

**Incremental Effect of Service Orientation,  
Perceptions of Organizational Politics, and  
Employee Engagement on Job Embeddedness in  
Hotels of North Cyprus**

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## **ABSTRACT**

This research analyzes a reasonable model indicate that the rate of increase on job embeddedness as a result of service orientation in a low perceptions of organizational politics is higher compared to an organization with high perceptions of organizational politics. In addition, employee engagement has mediating effect on the relationship between service orientation and job embeddedness.

Three hundred and seven employees with 47 manager groups were selected as samples 14 five-star hotels in Northern Cyprus for this study. The data were analyzed using the multi-level analysis following the hierarchical linear modeling considering the employees were nested in the departments. As hypothesized, the results demonstrated that the employee engagement partially mediates the effects of service orientation on job embeddedness. The results also indicated that interaction of service orientation and perceptions of organizational politics has negative influence on job embeddedness, which is an important signal to the hotels in the research context.

Hotel managers must seek to adopt and focus on an excellent service orientation for training. Furthermore, new procedures and policies should be devised by the management of the lower star hotels within Northern Cyprus i.e. five-star hotels, which would aid in minimizing the possible effects of political decisions likewise adopting a more professional approach in the various aspects of their operations. In addition, there are very limited empirical researches have been conducted in the field of human resource and hospitality management on the links between employee engagements, perceptions of organizational politics, job embeddedness and service orientation.

Hence, the significance of this study as it aims to fill the gap by examining the mediating and moderating roles of employee engagement and perceptions of organizational politics using a multi-level model for five-star hotel industry in Northern Cyprus is necessary.

**Keywords:** Employees, Employee engagement, Job embeddedness, Cyprus, Perceptions of organizational politics, Service orientation.

## ÖZ

Bu araştırma, hizmet yöneliminin iş uyumu üzerindeki etkisini artıran ve örgütsel algıların, çalışanların otel organizasyonundaki işe uyumu konusundaki zorunluluğunu geliştirebilecek en uygun modeli analiz etmektedir. Ayrıca, çalışan iş uyumu ve hizmet yönelimi arasındaki ilişki dolaylı etki aracılığıyla da incelenmektedir.

Bu çalışma için Kuzey Kıbrıs'taki 14 adet beş yıldızlı otelden, 47 yönetici grubuyla 307 çalışan örneklem olarak seçilmiştir. Veriler, çalışanların bir araya getirilmiş oldukları departmanlar göz önüne alınarak, hiyerarşik lineer modellemeyi takip eden çoklu seviye analizi ile analiz edilmiştir. Varsayıldığı üzere, sonuçlar özellikle, örgütsel politika algılarının düşük etkileri olduğu otellerin departmanlarında etkileyici bir çalışan bağlılığı için; hizmet yönelimi etkilerinin iş uyumuna kısmen aracılık ettiğini göstermiştir. Hiç şüphesiz ki, örgütsel politika algıları etkin çalışan bağlılığının olumsuz bir parçası olduğunda, bu personellerin yüksek iş uyumuna neden olmaktadır.

Otel yöneticileri, eğitim için son derece iyi bir hizmet yönelimini benimsemeli ve odaklanmalıdır. Ayrıca, Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta bulunan ve beş yıldızlı olmayan diğer otel yönetimleri ile de yeni usuller ve politikalar geliştirilmelidir. Örneğin, politik kararların olası etkilerini en aza indirmeye yardımcı olan beş yıldızlı oteller, benzer şekilde, faaliyetlerinin çeşitli yönlerinde daha profesyonel bir yaklaşım benimsemektedir. Ayrıca, insan kaynakları ve otel yönetimi alanında; çalışan bağlılığı, örgütsel politika algıları, işe uyumu ve hizmet yönelimi arasındaki ilişkileri inceleyen çok sınırlı deneysel araştırmalar yapılmıştır. Bu nedenle, çalışmanın önemi, Kuzey Kıbrıs'taki beş yıldızlı otel endüstrisi için çoklu seviye analizi kullanılarak, çalışan

bağlılığının ve örgütsel politika algılarının aracı ve düzenleyici rolleri yönündeki boşluğu doldurmaktır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Çalışanlar, Çalışanların Bağlılığı, İş Uyumunu, Kıbrıs, Örgütsel Politika Algıları, Hizmet Yönelimi.

# DEDICATION

To My Family

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# Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Overview

This chapter tries to indicate a statement of problem, purpose, and contributions of my research to survey of human resource management in tourism hospitality. The hospitality of the local community is highly important for the tourism industry. This is because in order to create a favorable and positive image of a destination (Snaith & Haley, 1999). Change of mass tourism, especially on a worldwide level from 1965, started because of various variables including social, monetary, technological additionally politically which had an immediate impact on the procedure of tourism advancement. These elements are characterized in the accompanying seven ways (Vorlauffer, 1996).

1. The global increase of people's income affects the tourism spending money.
2. The reduction of working hours increases the traveling.
3. The mass tourism is affected by increasing of senior citizens can with higher travel encounters.
4. The advancements in Transportation, for example, railroad, and aviation have expanded the likelihood of longer outings around the globe.
5. Universal voyaging has been expanded due to progression in migration, and trade directions.

6. The collusion among hotels, airline and tour operators created a worldwide system in the travel industry.

7. There are advancements in technology impact on worldwide reservation and enhanced booking framework in the hotels.

In spite of, the majority of people expense only for fundamental items and not for the journey. Because they might lose their jobs or they have unstable income situation (Freitag and Pyka, 2009). But, the development tourism needs the satisfaction of visitors and their repeat visitation is largely influenced by the attitude of the host (Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001; Swarbrooke, 1993). It is, hence, essential to measure the perceptions of the host community about the development of tourism, as it is important to the destination's success (Andriotis, 2005; Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997). However, the responses of various communities could vary about tourism from one country to another. In these various communities, it is most crucial for hotel managers to further enhance the satisfaction of customers and retain skilled employees in order to sustain equilibrium between them (Kuo, 2009). Furthermore, providing quality services and keeping tourists satisfied is one of the basic hotels management in the contemporary hospitality industry (Kuo, 2009) faced challenges.

Indeed, the role of service employees in the hotel industry has become of great significance today as hospitality managers have come to acknowledge their crucial role in delivering excellent service and cultivating a longer term relationship with clients. Nonetheless, there remain some less motivators to the employees such as high workload, low wages, promotion, delay and inadequate training (Arasli et, al, 2017). Therefore, in the competitive environment, it is important for hospitality businesses to help employees who are helpful and intentionally go beyond their job duties which in

turn affect organizations' success. The service orientation program which makes room for cross-training opportunities which help the improvement of employees, will serve as a platform for enhancing the productivity in the hospitality industry. The service orientation encompasses sets of organizational practices which directly or indirectly influence the dispositions and conducts of employees (González & Garazo, 2006). Lyttle and Timmerman (2006) defined it as “an organization-wide embracing of a simple set of fairly persistent procedures, practices and organizational policies proposed to reward or support behaviors of service-giving that make and provide excellent service”. Indeed, the quality of services also in hotels has a considerable role in keeping skilled employees. For example, service orientation transforms into a bunch of rather practices within an organization that is long-term; the behavior and attitude of employees are influenced by the activities (González & Garazo, 2006).

Besides, job embeddedness is “a wide set of influences the decision of the employee to remain at the organization” (Holtom et al., 2006a). It seems to be a likely countermeasure for retaining employees by managers. However, as a motivation of variable, employee engagement is viewed as a positive work-related mental state and can help employees to reduce turnover intention and increase job embeddedness. Indeed, when employees are embedded in their organizations as the hotel industry, these employees have high intention to stay their organization (Lee et al., 2004), their plans and futuristic goals fit with their job demands and they feel high attached to their hotels in comparison by employees cannot get embedded in their jobs. Hence, regarding the extant hospitality literature, two of the most important strategies in increasing the number of embedded employees in an organization may be to engage the employees via providing service orientation and reducing the size of organizational political behaviors within.

Perceptions of organizational politics being a reality in the workplace focus on the escalation of short and long-term self-interests (Cropanzano et al., 1997). This concept comprises of members of an organization finding ways to achieve their group or personal goals by influencing others indirectly or directly as against the formal procedures or norms (Witt, 1995). Managers confronted with organizational politics experience uncertainty, threats, risks and a state of unfairness which would cause their employees to have a weak service orientation thereby decreasing job embeddedness and retention of skilled employees made difficult.

### **1.1.1 Introduction about Tourism in Northern Cyprus**

World Tourism Organizations (UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2017 Edition), reports that tourism is the largest industry worldwide, while it is rapidly growing in developing countries. The number of international tourists' arrivals in 2017 grew by a remarkable 7% and it was 1.322 billion tourists in the worldwide. Cyprus as country is the third biggest island after Sicily and Sardinia in North-East of the Mediterranean. It has 9,251 square kilometers. Hence, the location of Cyprus about the weather and beach help it as tourism destination. The tourism industry in Cyprus could have an important in the economy sector and its development of tourism industry last decades. Moreover, tourism has impact on the local culture.

Nonetheless, the war between Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots occupants of the island rose when troops from Turkey intervened in this tension because of a coup d'état Greece sponsored. Accordingly, two countries built up: the Republic of Cyprus the only globally recognized state of the island and the member of the European Union is in the south, and the unrecognized Turkish Cypriot country in the north, which remains financially and politically exceptionally subject to Turkey.



The important regions of employment in Northern Cyprus happens, for example, tourism, training, and service sector but least farming and bar producing have existed. Money and the principal economic cycle are created by the business of tourism, in Famagusta, a free zone territory situated that could attract many investments in the help of exportable items, and to-date works effectively.

The Tourism industry is an essential part in the Northern Cyprus economy, In 2017, net tourism income was 796.2 million US dollars and it has improved 7.14% in comparison with 2016 (TRNC Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Culture 2017) and the ratio of net tourism income to the trade balance increased from 24% in 2008 to 50.7% in 2017 (State Planning Organization, 2017).

Moreover, the accommodation of tourists segment has the primary component of the tourism business and as of the finish of 2016 as indicated by Ministry of Tourism in Northern Cyprus there were 133 accommodations, for example; hotels, motels and some village for holiday with 21.425 beds (Özduran and Tanova, 2017). Hence, there are 18 five-star hotels, 5 four-star hotels, 13 three-star hotels, 17 two-star hotels, 15 one-star hotels, 25 tourist bungalow, 20 pensions, 5 boutique hotels, 4 holiday villages and other types in Northern Cyprus. The maximum of tourists that they arrived in 2015 was 1483244. But, Turkey tourists (75%) of total tourists in Northern Cyprus has majority of tourist arrivals, then Germany (3.9%) and England (3.8%), also Iran (1.37%), Czech Republic (1.08%), Russia by (1%), Slovakia (0.86%), Ukraine (0.55%) and Austria (0.50%) are the other principle traveler creating nations for TRNC after (MTEC, 2016).

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

Northern Cyprus has faced with some problems in overcoming of its political isolation and fashioning particular Cypriot goal advertising. Indeed, the improvement of Northern Cyprus and its tourism developed has not been acceptable. Because this area pulls in remote venture as a result of the political and economic spilt up (Ioannides and Apostolopoulos, 1999). Despite the fact of vacationer request has multiplied beginning from the year 1995, tourism in North Cyprus is experiencing serious difficulties. Flights into North Cyprus are only available via Turkey and it increases the duration of travel. The Northern Cyprus Tourism tries by Sustainable Tourism Development that it can support the motivation in this Industry and tourism master plan develops in these sectors. Hence, tourism ought to be improved in a way that is sustainable socially, environmentally and economically (Altinay et al., 2002).

Different difficulties incorporate a deficiency of qualified staff, an absence of a specific brand as North Cyprus is frequently mentioned by Turkey and the lack of planning improvement for the tourism sector. Additionally, the absence of formal foundations and the nonattendance of clear tourism approaches offer ascent to fears that it can damage the nearby agreeable relations with Turkey. Therefore, tourism advancement would not towards a sustainable method (Altinay and Hussain, 2005).

Furthermore, Cyprus has begun an eager system intended to increment both tourists' arrivals and the tourism revenues, with the goal of making 47,000 employments by 2030. The new system means to reclassify Cyprus as a key occasion goal and the guests can enjoy more than before. However, the tourism industry in Northern Cyprus is faced with the problem of unavailability of skilled employees and this seemingly might be due to the lack of service orientation in terms of the human resource management.

Subsequently, this research somewhat bridges the gap by exploring the relationship between these factors and the most hotels, especially the ones with lower star ratings this research focuses on do not adopt contemporary management approaches. This might be because high rates of political behaviors are evident in these organizations. It is important that managers of hospitality develop better ways of improving and increasing the level of engagement and decreasing the rate of organizational politics among the managers and employees with a focus on five-star hotels in the Northern Cyprus.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The current study's objective is to provide information about the sector of tourism in Northern Cyprus and it followed by the conceptual focuses on developing and testing a research model examining the employee engagement's mediating effect on the service orientation's relationship with job embeddedness. Furthermore, the analysis of the role of moderator perceptions of organizational politics plays on the impact of employee engagement on job embeddedness is done in this research. A limited amount of research and empirical studies have been conducted on job embeddedness within the human resource at the levels of individuals (Arasli et, al, 2017, Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), highlighting its striking relevance. In line with these, data were obtained from the five-star hotel managers and employees from 47 various departments.

### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This research for a number of reasons endeavors to contribute to the hospitality management and human resource fields. Firstly, there are few empirical works on the antecedents and consequences of engagement (Anitha J, 2014, Menguc, Auh, Fisher, & Haddad, 2012; Karatepe, 2011). Hence, the importance of employee engagement

through which service orientation influences job embeddedness has not been adequately examined in the hospitality sector. This study is necessary because employees engaged in their jobs have more tendencies deliver quality service and go beyond their expected role performance to satisfy customers (Karatepe, 2011). Hence, service orientation is treated as an antecedent to employee engagement while job embeddedness as a consequence of employee engagement.

Secondly, empirical research linking organizational politics perception to service orientation and job embeddedness in extant literature is sparse and there are shortcomings about organizational politics perception in the hospitality industry. However, there is an empirical research on perceptions of organizational politics alluding that it can act as a buffer in the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance (Hochwarter et al., 2000). Unfortunately, when normative guidelines for behaviors are not provided, there is a high tendency for the occurrence of political behaviors (Ferris et al., 1989). For instance, in a situation of unclear and uncertain organizational priorities and criteria, employees may adopt risk avoidance practices and adopt means of obtaining their perceived deserved share of the service orientation on hand.

This subsequently results in dissatisfied employees and a higher intention to quit their jobs. However, studies on these seeming gaps have not been adequately conducted in developing countries. Following this, the essence of this study is to fill such gap in the human resource management literature via analyzing the moderating role organizational politics perception plays on the association that exists between service orientation and job embeddedness.

Thirdly, other areas that would need more research that is empirical include structural problems and skill mismatching in hotels. Lack of focus on training in management sectors within developing countries may end up producing fumbling employees. Subsequently, hotel managers have to endeavor to retain skilled employees in order to maintain competitive advantage, service quality and increase job embeddedness. The theory of job embeddedness as introduced by Mitchell et al. (2001) highlights a way of detecting the reason employees do not leave an organization. However, notwithstanding its significant role in employee retention, there has not been enough empirical research on job embeddedness in the hospitality management field in developing countries.

Finally, the quality and standard of service in Northern Cyprus is quite poor more precisely in the hospitality sector (Arasli et al., 2017). The problems aforementioned relating to human resource (HR) practices may have been responsible for these poor standards and quality of service. Thus, the findings in this study will provide relevant implications and be of huge significance to the hospitality management sector, especially in the HR practices by promoting the importance of the three variables in focus in improving standards of service in five-star hotels. Moreover, the implications of our study would prove perceptions of organizational politics have significant influence in the hospitality industries of developing countries.

### **1.5 Outline of the Study**

Introduction; literature review; theoretical background; hypothesis; methodology; findings; discussion and conclusion are the six chapters of this thesis.

Chapter Two displays a survey of the pertinent literature as the study variables, their antecedent, and outcomes. It tries to explain about service orientation, perceptions of organizational politics, employee engagement, and job embeddedness. Moreover, we evaluated the results of past scholars about these ideas.

Chapter Three likewise is indicated the theoretical background of the proposed study variables and their interrelation.

Chapter Four examines the exploration hypotheses and hypothetical systems, also the variables identified with each other's.

Chapter Five related to the methodology that it gives data about how the examination is led, including information accumulation process, research and sampling procedures, which scholar would utilize for the investigation.

Chapter Six would show the results and finding by analysis of data.

Chapter Seven examines and interprets the results of the examination. It comprises managerial implications (i.e., theoretical implications and practical implication), research limitation, in addition to recommendations for further study.

## **Chapter 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Service Orientation**

In the literature there are several references to the significance of having a service orientation that I tried to explain as follows:

An organization's service orientation is described as its strategic reaction to information about the market that executes its concept of marketing within the customer service boundary. It may also be described as: a mustering of quite long-term practices within an organization that make excellent services available to customers (Lytle, 1994). An organization is inclined to, and its customers as well as the propensity to believe that activities carried out within the organization put precedence on excellence in service because of its huge influence on providing a competitive-edge, customer satisfaction and delivering superior value.

The service orientation design of food service enterprises will boost its competitive positioning, as well as offer employees opportunities for cross-training so as to develop their professional capabilities. A key antecedent for the sustainability of the food service industry to offer superior food service and products is service orientation. Repeat patronage and customer retention is to be expected by providers of service-oriented services because they meet their guests' expectations.

Generally, a relationship exists between employee satisfaction and an organization's service orientation. The satisfied employees in turn give superiority service quality to the customers. At the organizational level, service orientation impacts employees' business performance, service image and organizational commitment (Lee et al., 1999) as well as job satisfaction level (Lee et al., 1999; Yoo et al., 2000). An organization's commitment to constant quality enhancement is evidence of its high commitment to employee satisfaction. New employees' orientation and the development of a broad program on training are carried out to keep speed with the consumers' varied demand for services and products.

For this reason, identifying the elements that impacts the employee's job satisfaction level is necessary. Service orientation particularly is a foremost means by which a service provider offers the kind of service that builds loyalty in the customer. Service firms with cultures of service orientation experience less customer attrition, are faced with fewer customer complaints, appeal to new customers, get new businesses from current customers and are sheltered from price rivalry (Berry et al., 1994).

According to Homburg et al. (2002), implementing the service orientation idea is possible at two levels: the individual level – in this case, it is measured as an aspect of personality, and as a result certain persons within the firm have more service orientation than some others. At the next level- organizational level, dual viewpoints could be adopted. The first is service organization which is measured in terms of organizational factors that have been decided upon, which comprises of internal design features like culture, climate and structure of the organization. In the second viewpoint, the service orientation of the service could be a function of strategy in which case, the



approach adopted would be more external and it would analyze the significance of service to the marketing strategy of the firm.

At the individual level, service orientation has been described as the behaviors and attitudes influencing the relationship between the customers of an organization and their employees (Hogan et al., 1984, p. 167), simply put, service orientation is the individual predispositions of a polite and pleasant character when delivering service. Homburg et al. (2002) studied service orientation as an important strategy and from the organizational level within the retail distribution sector. In their study, three dimensions of service orientation were identified. They are the amount of services delivered, the variety as per the consumers these services are delivered to, and the emphasis level at which these services are really delivered. Concluding on the viewpoint of service orientation being an element of an organization's general climate, it is good to look at Lytle et al. (1998) study. They suggested that service orientation is established in an organization when the climate within the organization builds nurtures and recompenses service behaviors and practices that generally satisfy expectations of customers. Precisely, it is the embracing by the entire organization of a simple agreed upon long-term organizational procedures, practices and policies geared towards fostering and recompensing service behaviors that build and offer superior services (Lytle et al., 1998, p. 459).

The SERV\*OR scale conceptualizes service orientation as a variable (Lynn et al., 2000; Lytle et al., 1998). This scale assesses service orientation as a variable within an organization with the objective of recognizing beliefs and perception of employees in relation to the procedures, practices and policies within the organization that are geared towards the promotion of service delivery. The SERV\*OR instrument has used many

times and it has been validated. First, it is a useful tool in measuring levels of service orientation in various sectors and firms; secondly, in the same firms it is also useful in diagnosing and evaluating the dimensions and provisions of service by different branch, division and departments; lastly it is also useful in leading change within an organization, by making service orientation dimensions and levels base-lines, to observe levels of performance and associate them to certain measurements like customer satisfaction, profitability and employee satisfaction and so on. Below are the four different components of the service orientation dimensions in this categorization:

- (1) The practices of service leadership having the management styles and behavior dimensions, and the entire organization being saturated by service vision;
- (2) Practices of service encounter, relating to interactions between customer and employee, which consists of dimensions like employee empowerment and customer treatment enabling them to make decisions on activities under their watch;
- (3) Practices of service systems that covers phases that has to do with systems of creation of service as well as delivery with service dimensions such as prevention and recovery of service failure, and the provision of superior values to customers by the usage of service technologies, in addition to service standards communication, needed for efficient working of the service system; and
- (4) HRM practices, with the service oriented reward and training system dimensions.

Multiple studies exist on service orientation and the part it plays in providing competitive edge for food service businesses. Service orientation's objective is to enlighten the organization's culture and philosophy to its intending personnel. Service orientation was described by Hogan et al. (1984) as a tendency to be cooperative, considerate, thoughtful and helpful at the individual level. On the other hand, service

orientation was considered by Lytle et al. (1998) as elements of an organization's in-house design like its culture, climate and structure at the organizational level.

It has been stated that firms with a service orientation are more likely to successfully implement a competitive strategy for boosting the satisfaction of its customers (Bowen et al., 1989). The result is that firms that are service-oriented will be able to meet the expectations of their customers via certain procedures that are service-oriented, which might in turn be a competitive edge in the restaurant industry. Therefore, service orientation ought to be assumed as a key means by which business leaders have brought about differentiations amongst rival businesses. The perceptions of the employees of an organization on its practices that are service-related are related to its customers' perceptions of its quality of service (Schneider & Bowen, 1993).

Simply put, the climate of an organization that is seen and experienced by its employees has a positive legacy on the organization's customers. The significance of the proximity between customers and employees in the course of a service encounter makes it possible for employees to anticipate the needs of the customer (Schneider and Bowen, 1993). Three dimensions of customer service under pressure, organizational support and customer focus were suggested by Dienhart et al. (1992). These are correlated with assessing service orientation's behavioral and cognitive dimensions as well as its usefulness in producing meeting the needs of customer and satisfying them.

## **2.2 Employee Engagement**

Currently, a generally accepted definition of employee engagement does exist. This is obvious from the different definitions three renowned research organizations in the

field of human resource management has for employee engagement, not to talk of those proposed by several scholars. Some of the definitions are discussed below:

Perrin's Global Workforce Study (2003) described employee engagement as the capability and inclination of employees to support their organization to succeed, mostly by sustainably offering discretionary effort. Based on their study, employee engagement is influenced by a number of rational and emotional factors related to employees' general experience at work and the work in particular. Gallup organization describes employee engagement as the immersion in, and zest for work. Dernovsek (2008) cited Gallup's definition as employees' positive emotional attachment and commitment to work.

Robinson et al. (2004) described Employee Engagement as positive attitude employees hold towards their organizations as well as its values. An employee that is engaged is fully cognizant of the business' situation and is willing to enhance performance on the job to the advantage of the organization. Organizations ought to make effort to cultivate and foster engagement and this entails a mutual relationship between employee and employer. In addition, although it seems that engagement overlaps with the concepts of organizational citizenship behaviour and commitment, according to Robinson et al. (2004) these two concepts do not sufficiently mirror employee engagement's two-way characteristics, as well as how well-engaged employees, are likely to have an element of business cognizance. Rafferty et al (2005) also made a distinction between the two concepts of commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, and employee engagement based on employee engagement's apparent two-way collaborative process between the organization and the employee.

In other words, engaged employees are passionate about their work and demonstrate increased energy levels. In addition, they are regularly completely occupied by their work so much so that so that they have no cognizance of time. For instance, due to their great level of activity and positive approach, engaged employees generate for themselves feedbacks that are positive, by way of success, recognition and appreciation. Numerous examinees also showed that their energy and passion is demonstrated beyond their working environment in activities like volunteer work, creative hobbies and sports. Engaged employees are not super human beings –after a day of extensive work, they do become exhausted. Nonetheless, they refer to their exhaustion as a quite lovely state since it is linked with positive achievements. In conclusion, engaged employees aren't work addicts. They do engage in other activities beyond their work and, nothing like workaholics, they work hard because working is fun for them not because of an irresistible and strong drive within.

Soon scholars began to discuss the need for a really positive approach that is innovative to study human behavior in organizational psychology and labor (Demerouti et al., 2001). Optimistic employees, who consider that life has having a positive import for them would usually come up with, and are equally well equipped to seize opportunities. They also have the tendency to be exceptionally excited about and contented with their activities that they take critical steps the moment they see that they are becoming less effective because their job is their pride. Simply put, their job gives them contentment. Rich et al. (2010) argued based on Kahn's (1990) description of engagement, that an essential concept of motivation that is not merely limited to job performance is engagement. It also delivers an extensive perception of the personnel himself. This broader outlook gives a picture of persons who have the ability to make

decisions regarding the activities and tasks they are willing to devote their energy be it cognitive, affective and physical.

Thus, a conception that refers to the manner in which employees attach themselves to the roles in their organizations by transforming their energy into physical, cognitive and affective labors is known as engagement (Rich et al., 2010). According to Schaufeli et al. 2002 this process actually has the ability to stimulate behaviors that could eventually lead to some positive, determined affective-motivational fulfillment level. Demerouti et al. (2001) and Bakker (2009) stated that as a result of the attitude of optimism as well as great activity levels, engaged personnel make for themselves good feedback in terms success, credit and appreciation. Outside of their jobs as well, engaged employees have proven to be really active. They are positive as well as excited, not merely in job-related issues, but concerning what's done for relaxation as well, in addition to communicating to others about their engagement. According to Luthans and Youssef (2007), advocates of this contemporary and really progressive psychological approach never make assertions of discovering something original, but basically emphasize the significance of more studies focused on personnel character. The quantity of employee engagement research in previous years is obvious and it is not exceptionally linked to recent heightened curiosity in positive psychology which is the systematic scholarship of optimal functioning and human strength.

Four explanations for engaged employees' superior performance compared to non-engaged persons was given by Bakker (2009). Engaged employees (1) regularly have emotions that are positive like enthusiasm, pleasure and happiness; (2) have a tendency to experience good health; (3) communicate to others about their engagement and they also (4) feel responsible for and the take initiative for fashioning their own resources

be it personal or job-related. It is particularly the dedication level, as a characteristic of their engagement, which might be an extremely significant indicator of performance both at the organizational and individual level (Kodden, 2011). Scholars (Bakker, 2009; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Halbesleben, 2010) agree that while job-related and personal resources might at first be provided by personnel that are engaged, in particular circumstances, these resources are quite vital requirements for engagement to be maintained. Resources that are job-related and personal are made up of long-lasting work sources and personal sources that keep personnel from the adverse impacts of labor e.g. stress. These sources provide persons right to a broad variety of resources that are social, personal and physical that are mostly effective and valuable during adversity and hardship (Bakker, 2009).

Additionally, they make contributions to the accomplishment of work objectives in addition to promoting personal development and growth (Demerouti et al., 2001). In turn, this heightens the amount of engagement and lessens the stress experienced. A study by Storm and Rothmann (2003) carried out in South Africa proved that personality traits like emotional stability and extraversion are also related to engagement. The strong correlation between personality traits and engagement is also seen in relations to low point of neuroticism, a great amount of extraversion as well as a huge amount of agility— which is the capacity to complete a huge amount of successive chores) (Mostert & Rothmann, 2006). thus, it is conceivable at this point to state that a personality is ‘an engaged type’ as well as claim that it is personnel themselves that has the responsibility of their own job satisfaction and engagement in particular-- by using of an enormous amount of personal resources.

Adding to personal resources, resources that are job-related are a vital condition for employee engagement development since they make work autonomy of persons possible. This way they can be in charge of their decision-making as well as feedback from the organization, resulting in greater engagement. A number of studies (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007; Cole et al., 2011; Kodden, 2011) have supported this idea, which confirms that resources that are job-related like the social support offered by superiors and colleagues, prospects for growth and various employment of capabilities are positively associated to engagement. The prospect of creating resources that are job-related as well as the accessibility of these are usually a result of the style of leadership within the organization (Wilderom, van den Berg, & Wiersma, 2012; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011), the culture within the organization (Wilderom, 2011), and policies within the organization (Kossek, Markel, & McHugh, 2003).

Numerous studies, however, have also put emphasis on the significance of making job-related resources available, nonetheless sufficient studies have been carried out on the subject of the impact leaders have on the engagement of employees (Blomme, 2012). Styles of leadership influences the engagement level and resources availability seems rather evident, since managers are primarily responsible for the extent of autonomy personnel enjoy. Its manager's responsibility to provide feedback on performance and in conjunction with others decide on the extent of support offered at work to employees. Subsequent sections contain in more details the discussion on how styles of leadership influence the amount of personal and job related resources employees can access, all of which tell the degree to which there is a decline or increase in individual engagement.



## **2.3 Job Embeddedness**

Evolving from the developing model of voluntary employee turnover, job embeddedness is a theory of employee retention (Lee, Mitchell, Wise, & Fireman, 1996). It is somewhat an under-researched and novel idea in marketing and hospitality management literature (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2011).

In the developing model of voluntary employee turnover, there are four decision paths. The first path is categorized by a system shock and a previous plan of exiting the organization in place (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1996b). As an illustration, an employee getting an attractive employment offer somewhere else can actually quit without bearing in mind the present affiliation with and responsibility to the organization and with no consideration to other alternatives.

The second part is categorized by a shock, resulting in violations of image. Nonetheless, no prior plan exists (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). As an illustration, an individual who is denied of an important and deserved promotion or raise exits the firm without considering alternative. The third path is categorized as well by a shock, resulting in violations of image. There is more or less disaffection at this stage and alternatives are being considered (Lee et al., 1996a). As an illustration, an employee can be reassigned to another post which may lead to disaffection and the search for alternatives. If a preferred alternative is found, then an actual exiting happens. The fourth path involves no shock. A person could exit a firm as a result of dissatisfaction whether he/she is looking for alternatives or not (Lee et al., 1996b).

The aforementioned concepts have resulted in the development of the construct of job embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001b). The components and dimension of job

embeddedness are sacrifice, fit and links, which speak of all the forces that keep an individual in a firm. Off-job-embeddedness speak of community sacrifice, links and fit while embeddedness on-the-job speak of organizational sacrifice, links and fit.

### **2.3.1 Links**

Persons having connections (be it informal or formal) with coworkers in the place of work and with acquaintances and others within the community have high job embeddedness. Social institutions as well as family within the community wield considerable influences on persons and the decisions they make (Holtom, Mitchell & Lee, 2006). In these situations, the more the links with the community and the organization, the more the job embeddedness level. For instance, employees that are married and older with kids are unlikely to exit an organization, due to the fact that there are a few of links between them and others within the community and the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001b).

### **2.3.2 Fit**

If fit exists between an member of staff's future plans and individual values, and the job demands as well as the culture of the organization, at that juncture the employee becomes greatly embedded in his/her job. Furthermore, this kind of fit ought to be between the community and employees. For instance, general culture, amenities and weather of the location have direct influence on persons and the decisions they make (Holtom et al., 2006). Personnel who do not see this kind of fit don't experience job embeddedness.

### **2.3.3 Sacrifice**

Employees are fully conscious of their losses due to their intended turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001b). That would include giving up colleagues and the loss of future and present career as well as opportunities for promotion within the organization.

Additionally, persons exiting a safe and attractive community might not experience a similar setting in a different place. As a result, individuals are mindful of this kind of costs and thus come to be much embedded in their jobs.

The essential features of job embeddedness are highly related to his/her fit with the job, the links the person has on his/her job, and whatever he/she might have to sacrifice or loss if they were to quit their jobs (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Mitchell et al. (2001a) proposed that the link parts of embeddedness are informal and formal affinity between job entities and the employee. The more the amount of these links rises, the more the probability of the employee staying at the organization (Holtom, Mitchell & Lee, 2006). According to Holtom *et al.* (2006), 'fit' speak of the employee's apparent compatibility with the job and the organization; therefore, a greater fit confirms greater embeddedness. Lastly, 'sacrifice' refers to costs of benefits that the employee perceived be it psychological or material, which might be forfeited as a result of quitting the job. Therefore, high the job embeddedness is a function of how great the perceived cost is (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Holtom *et al.*, 2006).

While two dimensions' make-up of the job embeddedness concept—community and organizational embeddedness (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001a), scholars (Allen, 2006; Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton & Holtom, 2004) discovered and reported that in the absence of job relocation, the organizational dimensions is more suitable in predicting retention of employees than the dimensions of the community. Consequently, for the current study, the examination of job embeddedness is limited only to the dimensions that are organizational. Job embeddedness has also been conceptualized as the sacrifices associated with quitting the job, a person-job fit perception and links to other job features like the groups and the people. Job embeddedness is a construct that is

fairly new, introduced by Mitchell *et al.* (2001b) and it embodies an extensive number of factors that impact the decision of an employee to continue in or to exit an organization.

A lot of individuals remain in organizations because of supported community engagement activities, involvement with projects or the links they possess with people (for example, network groups and co-workers) (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001a). The more linked an individual is socially and professionally, the more the possibility of he/she remaining in their organization (Friedman & Holtom, 2002). As a result, quitting a job regularly necessitates a person to sacrifice societal networks or routines in tasks they have become accustomed to (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001a). A number of researches (e.g. Allen, 2006; Mitchell *et al.*, 2001b) did report that persons embedded in their jobs are unlikely to exit the organization when compared to individuals not embedded in their jobs. Job embeddedness analysis is different from regular models used in turnover prediction as it emphasizes retention of employee instead of turnover of employee (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001a). Mitchell and Lee (2001) buttressed this assessment when they affirmed that embeddedness is an antecedent— more than some regular on-the-job attitude— employee turnover. As a result, job embeddedness theory emphasizes on how organizations can retain employees, instead of keeping them from exiting to other firms (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001a).

Conversely employees that are embedded could feel trapped in poor jobs and be frustrated or be unable to find motivation as a result of the fear letting connections with job entities go, or all that will be foregone if they decide to leave the organization (Crossley *et al.*, 2007).

## **2.4 Perceptions of organizational politics**

A substantial dimension of how organizations function is how perceptions of organizational politics continue to be labeled. Ferris, Russ & Fandt (1989) described organizational politics as strategically intended actions aimed at maximizing self-interests. This meaning reveals the common bad image organizational politics has in the judgment of a lot of people. Mintzberg (1985) stated that organizational politics reflects illicit force-relations among members within an organization while Gandz & Murray (1980) said that generally employees regard politics as an irrational, evil and unfair behavior. Quite a lot of other scholarly works (Medison, et al., 1980; Block, 1988; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Drory, 1993; Vigoda, 2000) have dedicated so much attention on organizational politics perception in places politics playing within an organization is hypothesized as negative and its association with negative organizational and individual consequences has been established. One can realize from the various meanings in the literature, that in the working environment, political behaviors are activities that are intended to achieve a person's subjective objectives (Poon, 2004) instead of objectives formally agreed upon within the organization. These political behaviors could consist of not sharing required information with co-workers, circumventing the chain of command to gain approval, back-stabbing, using inappropriate means to achieve self-interest, ingratiation, lobbying higher-ups for promotions or preferred job assignments.

Here, it is important to stress that while related types of political activities are generally in most organizations; these activities are not completely outlawed in most organizations. That is to say, the presence of political behaviors in an organization that are supposedly contradictory to the policies of the organization may increase the

employees' perceptions of politics and this is the principal reason organizational politics have to be looked at by inquiring from employees concerning their observations of these behaviors (Andrews, Witt & Kacmar, 2003). There can be personnel who refuse to take part in organizational politics because these employees rarely consider the partisan situation within the organization as a prospect for such behavior. For these kinds of individuals, the organization's political environment might really cause high intention to quit and absenteeism rates, low job satisfaction and no commitment to the organization. Politics within an organization is regularly associated with undesirable terms as gaining favor by adulators, manipulations, cunning or the realization of goals through inappropriate means.

For this reason, a number of studies have investigated the impacts of organizational politics perceptions on perceived organizational support (Hochwarter, et al., 2003), turnover and favoritism (Daskin & Tezer, 2012), organizational stress (Gilmore, et al., 1996; Cropanzano, et al., 1997; Drory, 1993), organizational climate (O'Connor & Morrison, 2001; Liu, Liu & Wu, 2010), intention to quit the job (Randall, et al., 1999; Valle & Perrewé, 2000) and the performance of employees (Vigoda, 2000). In addition, another name given to organizational politics is political games; and it takes lots of different forms within an organization. Thirteen organizational politics behaviors have been identified as strategic candidates, rival camps, alliance building, expertise etc. (Mintzberg, 1985). However, Allen, et al., (1979) recommended 8 classifications by which political behaviors (tactics) can be studied; (1) making obligations, (2) aligning with the influential, (3) power alliances, (4) ingratiation, (5) support building for ideas, (6) impression management, (7) use of information and (8) blaming or attacking others. Thus is easy to recognize that organizational politics comprises of behaviors that are proactive and reactive in nature.

Political behaviors could be proactive, reactive or both simultaneously because it depends on the given circumstances. Worthy of note is that in research on organizational politics, impression management is at times regarded as a kind of tactics. This behavior is thought to be largely proactive and particularly aimed at promoting the interests of one's self. A tactic that is well known to mostly build one's image is according to one's self the credit for another person's good idea. Nonetheless impression management could as well involve developing a reputation of being liked, making-up the form of being in on significant undertakings drawing, attention to successes or general appearance.

Molm (1997) stated that an organization is a social entity that involves personal struggles, tussles for resources, and a diversity of influence tactics carried out by groups and individuals to achieve goals and get benefits through several means. Although it is important for a good appreciation of organizations, it is a difficult job to study the political environment of a workplace. The organizational politics is often described as activities tactically intended to actualize the interest of one's self (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989) and as a result opposes the shared goals within the organization or person's interest. For instance, Block (1988, p. 5) stated that organizational politics is essentially a process that is deleterious and thus discussed that If he calls someone a highly political individual, the person might consider it an affront or in the best case a sarcastic compliment. When persons speak of politics in organizations, they usually mention activities that are manipulative and self-serving and these behaviors are not positively perceived (Medison et al., 1980).

Studies of Drory (1993), and Ferris and Kacmar (1992) that introduced this concept discovered that politics in organizations was seen as a behavior that is self-serving

used by employees to realize benefits, advantages and self-interests at the detriment of other employees and at times conflicting with the work unit's or organization's interests. This activity was regularly accompanied by with defamation, manipulation and dishonest means of abusing power to achieve personal goals. A good measure of politics in organizations is the idea of organizational politics perception (Ferris et al., 1989). The higher a member of the organization perceives politics within the organization, the lesser in that individual's perception is the level of fairness, equity and justice (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992). Current scholarly works employed procedural justice theory in reasoning that politics in organizations is associated with the effectiveness of human resource systems and to the process of making decision (Ferris et al., 1996b; Folger, Konovsky, & Cropanzano, 1992). The want of fairness and minimal justice in organizations was reported to be the foremost reason for high perceptions of political behaviors in organization and consequently of stalled organizational effectiveness.

These researches were heavily reliant on Kurt Lewin's (1936) suggestion that individuals react to how they perceive reality and not necessarily to the reality in itself. Similarly, organizational politics ought to be understood as it pertains to the perception of people and not it really represents. A number of scholars suggested that fairness and justice perception reveal a political environment in the place of work as well as connected to a range of organizational outcomes (Ferris et al., 1996a, 1996b; Ferris, Fedor, & King, 1994; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Ferris, King, Judge, & Kacmar 1991; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991).

Lastly, perception of politics in organizations speaks of occurrences where members of an organization endeavor whether indirectly or directly to sway others through way



that are not approved by official operating standards and procedures or informal customs, in a bid to accomplish subjective group or personal interests (Witt et al., 2000, p. 342). This kind of behavior is a poses a risk to the effectiveness and efficiency of the workplace in general (Kacmar et al., 1999). Personnel who perceive their working as unfair, threatening, risky and uncertain are expected to demonstrate levels of engagement that are very low.

## Chapter 3

### THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Based on the evidence that abounds in extant literature we can claim that four theories exist that are related to this study. They are transactional theory of stress, social exchange theory, conservation of resources theory (COR) and job embeddedness theory.

#### 3.1 Job Embeddedness Theory

According to the universal notions, the author begins by proposing a construct and coming up with a measurement for job embeddedness. The studies that primarily inform this thought are: the study on the embedded figures test (Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough & Karp, 1962) and the field theory of Kurt Lewin (Lewin, 1951). Both interconnected in a number of ways. Both are incorporated into the surrounding. Lewin had similarly advocated that we perceive ourselves involved in a system of connections and forces. The self could be strongly or loosely involved in several factors. The connections could be weak or strong, distant or close, many or few. A deeply embedded person will possess many, close and strong connections whereas the reverse will be the case for an individual who is weakly embedded.

Furthermore, although the embeddedness level might be similar, what the connection are made up of or factors of attachment may possibly be different substantively. This generally embeddedness level is where our attention is in this study. As it upholds an

appearance of the two attachments, inertia is suggested; which speaks of how less likely someone is leaving their job depending on how embedded they are.

This school of thought was further advanced when Mitchell et al. (2001) framed the job embeddedness construct. They showed that their theory of job embeddedness stems from Lewin's (1951) theory of figures and fields, portraying embeddedness as a web in a framework of two dimensions. The setting of job embeddedness according to this model has figures depicted as psychological images entrenched in the individual's background; as a result, they turn out to be connected to the organization and trying to isolate the two would be a tough task. In addition, the theory of fields gives the people's perception based on all the space in their lives, be it far, near, large, and small.

Individuals who have a feeling of connection to an organization have come to be embedded into its social web to the environment (Mitchell et al., 2001). Based on this, the scholars formed a theory about job embeddedness focusing on retention through their basis of sacrifices, fit and links. Existing studies recommended that examining the different job embeddedness theories would open a range of ways by which strategies to encourage employees to remain in a workplace might be developed; consequently, the depth and scope of the current scholarship will be considerably broadened (Sekiguchi, Burton, & Sablinski, 2008; Zhao & Liu, 2010).

The theory of job embeddedness suggests that employees remain in organizations, as a result of having a lot of informal and formal links with friends and their colleagues, and want to benefit from various prospects available to them within the community or the organization. The contention of the theory is that the fit of the employee with the organization and the job motivates them to remain at the organization. Empirically, the

universal job embeddedness of employees lessened their intentions to exist an organization.

### **3.2 Conservation of Resources Theory**

In the last 25 years, Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory (COR) has steadily become one of the theories that is highly referenced in the studies of human behaviors within an organization. Introduced as one of the motivation theory, its underlining ideology is that individuals strive to keep existing resources as well as obtain additional resources. Assumed the varied uses of COR in literature, the primary objective this review has is to offer an analysis of the construct of resource in the theory of COR. Particularly, it is to offer innovative directions for scholars of the COR theory that could possibly address a number of the important constraints in the existing COR work.

A good review of COR theory over the years has been provided by Hobfoll (2001a) nevertheless, it concentrated on studies outside of organizations in addition to being too dedicated to the development of basic psychological points of view for COR. Other studies particular concentrated on how COR can be applied in studying stress (Westman et al., 2004). In addition, quite a few meta-analytic appraisals of certain estimates based on the conservation of theory exist (e.g., Halbesleben, 2006; R. T. Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Luchman & Gonzáles-Morales, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2012).

The theory of the conservation of theory is centered on the ideology of conservation (that people are having the tendency to keep their present resources) and acquisition (acquiring newfangled resources). According to Hobfoll (1988), resources have been lightly described as conditions, states, objects and related things that are valuable to

people. Resources value differs amongst people depending on their personal situations and experiences. For instance, family time may perhaps be regarded as a valued resource to a particular individual whereas it might not be valuable to another person or could even be viewed as a something that puts other resources at risk (e.g., one's self-worth in a relationship that is abusive).

The conservation of resources model is founded on the groundwork of the construct of resource. As abovementioned resources defined as whatever is valuable to individuals, highlighting conditions, states and objects as well as other things, which has been understood in an extensively (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989). A sketch is provided of the resources that studied over the last 25 available in literature. According to certain scholars (Gorgievski, Halbesleben, & Bakker, 2011; Halbesleben & Wheeler, in press; Thompson & Cooper, 2001), a prompt examination of the table reveals the theory's regular criticism, which is that almost everything might be regarded as a resource.

This criticism is fueled primarily by two things. The number one been the usage of "value" term suggests that resources necessarily leads to positive consequences for it to be considered as a resource; this does not distinguish the resource from its consequences. That is problematic, because studies (e.g. Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009; Beehr, Bowling, & Bennet, 2010; Grant, 2011) are gradually revealing good and valuable things could result to negative consequences (for example, great levels of job resources related to engagement could result in work-family conflict) Number two is that the actual definition of COR lay emphasis on the conditions, states and object categories of resources however categorizing and identifying resources is not the same thing as describing them.

This study gives a meaning of resources that goes quite well considering other theories on motivation in addition to it also giving room to extensively draw connections to theories about the organization. A resource is here defined as whatever is seen by an individual that will support him/her in attaining his/her objectives. Although undeniably extensive, a definition with a goal-orientation will help in the understanding of resources' fundamental characteristics in the framework of the theory of COR, in addition to the extra-sophisticated underlying forces of resources. Additionally, goal is a shared component of most theories of motivation (Locke & Latham, 1990), which includes goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990), control theory (Klein, 1989), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), self-determination theory (Gagne & Deci, 2005), evolutionary theories (Kaplan & Gangestad, 2005), and others (cf. Bargh & Ferguson, 2000; Elliot & Dweck, 1988). Therefore, goal functions as a crucial point of link for COR considering the wider context of the theories of motivation.

Although a description of resources that is goal-oriented is still unavoidably elusive because of its reliance on knowing a person's goals, it is advantageous in clarifying the value idea that resulted in most of the debates with prior definitions of resources. Besides, it also dissociates resources from its consequences. With this definition, the highlighting is now on the view that resources may possibly support a person in achieving a goal, instead of the definition that resources are always effective in expediting the realization of goals. Quite importantly, this allows for circumstances in which persons guard resources outsiders perceive as hampering achievement of goals instead of expediting it (for example, indulging in behaviors that are extra roles at the detriment of behaviors that within ones' roles) (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007).

A definition that is goal-oriented aids in the proper appreciation of resources' characteristics and how they expedite the achievement of goals. For instance, in a given situation, several ways exist obviously to attain a goal. Goals can be achieved by a few means (or resources). Consequently, according to Kruglanski 1996, and Shah and Kruglanski (2000), more than a single resource could contend in the realization a shared goal, a term called *equifinality*. Huang and Zhang (2013), and Kruglanski, Pierro and Sheveland (2011) explained further that equifinality showed that a resource can be taken in the place of another in the achievement of a single goal.

In general, the definition of resources as it pertains to the role it plays in goals attainment supports in offering further clarification to the construct. There is a huge amount of work to do if we are to understand how people decide on the value they place on their resources. Several guidelines from the theory of motivation have been offered (self-determination theory) as well as in the strategic management literature (the resource-based view), which could suffice in filling the gap. It is also worthy of note that resources vacillate behind a number of trajectories a study of these trajectories will reveal quite a lot of directions for further studies. Not forgetting that a little is yet known about the process of resource conservation, and ample opportunities abound for properly understanding the process of resource acquisition as well. Particularly because the theory of COR provides only an incomplete detail of why people devote resources to get new ones, nonetheless incorporating with social information processing theory for example may perhaps benefit the comprehensive understanding of that. In conclusion, the measurement of resources has been inconsistent, in addition to the need for research designs to properly fit the COR theory's dynamic nature.

### 3.3 Social Exchange Theory

As one of the most prominent theoretical models for studying workplace behavior, the theory of social exchange has its admired roots in the 1920s (e.g., Malinowski, 1922; Mauss, 1925), serving inter-disciplinary bridge like sociology (e.g., Blau, 1964), social psychology (e.g., Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958; Thibault & Kelley, 1959) and anthropology (e.g., Firth, 1967; Sahlins, 1972). In spite of the diverse opinions that exist on social exchange, it has evolved and scholars agree that it entails a series of interfaces that create responsibilities (Emerson, 1976). These interfaces are often understood as *interdependent* and dependent on another person's actions (Blau, 1964).

Social exchange theory also lays emphasis on these transactions that are interdependent possessing the possibility of generating relationships that are of high-quality, even though this happens given particular conditions. The explanatory value of the theory of social exchange has been sensed in a few different scopes as leadership (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997), psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995), organizational justice (Konovsky, 2000), board independence (Westphal & Zajac, 1997), networks (Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, & Tsai, 2004; Cook, Molm, & Yamagishi, 1993), social power (Molm, Peterson, & Takahashi, 1999) and so on. Nonetheless, contemporary appraisals have identified certain hitches the theory has.

Almost fifty years ago, Homans (1958) introduced an idea of social behavior centered on exchange. Basically, he presented the concept that exchanges do not stop at just material goods, but it consist of symbolic value as well (for example, prestige or approval). Homans' study connected a range of disciplines and generated theories that are inconsistent with social exchange theory. Even though scholars differ on details,



they however unite on the fundamental “principle” of the theory of social exchange. It includes actions dependent on the recompensing reactions of other people that after sometime makes rewarding and mutual relationship and transactions available.

Awkwardly, theories that are inconsistent with the theory of social exchange have resulted in applications that are pragmatic or misconceived. It is believed that this review offers a significant contribution in tackling this concern by mapping out theory of social exchange to its origins, in so doing expounding on the theories crucial constituents. Thus, several formulations of the theory of social exchange have been defined as well as the way it has been used different organizational behavior studies. Without overlooking the significance of this study, the author endeavors to illuminate the theoretical inconsistencies and then lays out further paths of discovery. This review also reacquaints the theory of social exchange and its principles into the field of management. The author also believes several significant constituents of the theory of social exchange has been discounted, or just ignored, that may have helped to understand—at all exchange levels—organizational phenomena. As a result, the author hopes this review gives likely ways to revisit early theories and presenting different ones.

Based on the theory of social exchange, relationships develop with time into commitments that are mutual, trusting and loyal (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 875). As a result, people in the relationship (for example managers and employees) at a place of work have a duty to abide by the exchange principle (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The exchange principle typically entails rules of repayment or reciprocity (Saks, 2006). In his social exchange perspective, Blau (1964) states that

one party will do a favor to another party without laying down a condition in advance but expecting a return in the future.

Emerson (1976) joined the perspectives of Blau (1964) and Homans (1961), and stated that the theory of social exchange is sociological approach which explains none economic social condition with economic interpretation. Social exchange has a lot to do with some mutual activities that liabilities are taken out by (Emerson, 1976). Actions of reciprocity depend and interdependent on what others do (Blau, 1964). The theory of social exchange has been employed by a number of scholars in key field like leadership (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997) and organizational justice (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Konovsky, 2000).

### **3.4 Transactional Theory**

In transactional theory, the outcome of a supposed imbalance between the demands of the environment of a person and resources accessible to the person to meet the demand is stress (Aldwin, 1994; Cohen, Evans, Stokols, & Krantz, 1986; Evans & Cohen, 1987; Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus & Launier, 1978). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) stated precisely that stress has been described as the link between a person and his/her environment, which the person appraises as threatening his/her well-being and exceeding or taxing to his/her resources. These stress perceptions ranges from ordinary life exasperations to challenges that are really frightening. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) presented from this theory, a stress and coping model with five key parts:

1. Adaptation upshots, equally for long-term and short-term
2. Coping response
3. Stress

4. Cognitive appraisals, and
5. Environment and person impacting elements

According to Crawford et al. (2010) the transactional theory of stress' precepts contends that people assess job demands or situations that are stressful on how threatening or challenging they are. Thus, stress is an occurrence everyone has to deal with day-to-day. Actually, human beings are not the only species that has to regularly handle with stress. Susan Folkman and Richard S. Lazarus initially introduced the transactional model of stress and coping. They wanted to research more into the reason why stress is a predominant problem to a lot species. Basically the theory is the transaction concerning stress between the environment and the person. Dependent on the extent of demands confronting a person and the abundance of resources at the person's disposal to combat the demands, stress may either be evaded totally or be in surplus.

Primary appraisal is the initial step in the transactional model of stress and coping. At this step, the significance of the situation is assessed to determine if it has to be stressed over or not. Three possible outcomes exist at this stage:

1. The occurrence is harmful, threatening and/or challenging.
2. The event is a desired encounter.
3. It is an irrelevant event.

The next step in the stress and coping is the point of figuring out the way to best handle the situation so as to make sure that a positive outcome is guaranteed. At this point, the person decides if they have sufficient resources to cope and steer the occurrence to a desired outcome. For instance, if a person is encountered by a situation that is

stressful in which they don't have sufficient resources to deal with, the person is incapable of coping, and as a result stress ensues.

Stress is also seen as a danger to significant element of experience (Schneider & Hammitt, 1995). This tilt is in line with the model Lazarus and Folkman (1984) presented. Hull (1990) and Hull and Michael (1995) also proposed that stress possess affective component. As a substitute to obviously classifying threats perceived to experienced elements in an environment of recreation, the present study made use of stress indicators and the indicators' efficient measures. Some scholars (Hull & Michael, 1995; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Watson, 1988) have submitted that affective assessments of circumstances could be used as stress indicators. Substantial volumes of studies (Clark & Watson, 1988; Diener & Emmons, 1984; Watson, 1995, 1988; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989; Watson & Tellegen, 1985) have been carried out on the negative affective responses measures to situations and events in life.

Recreational coping behaviors, affective indicators of stress and use of transactional active stress theory reveals that particular theorized associations exists between coping responses and reported stress levels. That is to say, as level of stress rises, creationists are highly expected to be involved in complete shift behaviors. On the other hand, as stress levels that are low are related to coping strategies of cognitive adjustment. At reasonably levels of intermediate stress, to deal with pessimistic experience elements, creationists are expected to engage in substitution behaviors.

## **Chapter 4**

### **HYPOTHESES**

This section discusses the research hypotheses, how the research variables relate and interact with each other, and how the research hypotheses were developed.

#### **4.1 Service Orientation and Job Embeddedness**

Service orientation is a combination of attitude and behaviors that can influence the manner of the interaction between employees and customers an organization (Hogan, Hogan & Busch, 1984). Managers who execute the dimensions of service orientation would experience the following: First, A strong style of management via service leadership. Second, the relationship between the hotels and their clients is strengthened and hotels are empowered to have the best of such relationship via service encounters. Third, the employees in a service system with the help of service technologies have experienced improvement in service failure and are able to give clients had better value. Fourth, a lovely place creates for employees via the collaboration of human resource practices and the dimensions of service-oriented training and rewards (Irene Gil Saura et al., 2005).

Job embeddedness theory supports valuable protocols for building up the relationship between job embeddedness and service orientation that has not been empirically researched yet within Northern Cyprus. The job embeddedness theory (Lee et al., 1996 a) explains fit, sacrifice and links as segments of job embeddedness that empower organizations to keep employees and that make them show excellent administrations

at workplace. Links connotes connections between an institution and others, whether formal or informal; fit indicates the comfort and compatibility of an employee with the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001a). Sacrifice could be described as what an employee would have to forgo (psychologically or materially) in quitting a job (Mitchell et al., 2001b).

Hence, it becomes the responsibility of hotel management to reward employees in order to enhance their empowerment; and increase service training all in a bid to increase job embeddedness. In addition, increased level of organizational commitment are very likely to be created in organizations with a high level of service orientation (Lytle & Timmerman, 2006). Following this, employees with a service orientation have a higher probability of cultivating long term bonds with the hotels, which in turn strengthens their dispositions or behaviors and service orientation influences employees' probability of loyalty to the hotels, which then further strengthens the employees' behaviors and attitude thereby increasing job embeddedness and reducing turnover intention.

In addition, several researchers have further argued empirically that service orientation affects and has relations with job satisfaction and turnover intention (Kim, Leong, & Lee, 2005; Irene Gil Saura et al., 2005). However, not enough empirical evidence seems to be available to support the notion that service orientation has effects on job embeddedness. Thus, service-oriented employees feel good about their job and would not like to leave their jobs easily as they get strongly attached to their hotels. It is therefore expected that service in terms of appropriate practices will influence the JE of an employee. The following hypothesis is thus proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Service orientation is related to job embeddedness.

## **4.2 Service Orientation and Employee Engagement**

Hobfoll (1989) affirmed in theory of the conservation of resources theory that all individual efforts geared towards accumulating resources and securing their resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). This theory certainly highlights and depicts the employees as one of the most vital organizational resources; especially in hotels, and it should be the focus of hotel management. The theory of the Conservation of resources theory is established on principles proven over time in studies (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, employees that are trained via the dimensions of the service orientation are secured alongside other resources with a personal work responsibility feeling for service delivery improvement. This bodes well because it will be expected of service- oriented employees due to their incessant vocal or facial interactions with customers to always show positive employee engagement in their jobs with limited resources (Babakus et al., 2009).

Research exploring the association that exists between service orientation and employee engagement is rife with empirical evidence supporting this relationship, however, limited in employees' service jobs (Popli & Rizvi, 2015). As earlier mentioned service-oriented employees have enthusiasm and are fully immersed in the work. The employee's behaviors and attitudes have unswerving effect on their service orientation and other performances. Service orientation's influenced style of management also has a substantial influence on the general work engagement of individuals (Rizvi, 2000). Thus, it gives ground to hypothesize that service orientation has a relationship with employee engagement. We, therefore, propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Service orientation has a relationship with employee engagement.

### **4.3 Employee Engagement and Job Embeddedness**

The employee engagement has been defined as a powerful emotional variable in organizations (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004 Maslach, Schaufelli, & Leiter, 2001). For example, if employees have a high level of job engagement, they might get absorbed in their duties and thus get highly engaged in their jobs (Bakker, Maureen, and Arnold, 2010). Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) contended that engagement could change in job conditions. Although there could be a slower change in embeddedness due to shock or radical events, some motivating factors which have a tendency to increase the level of employee engagement could be associated with embeddedness if one decides to stay in the organization (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008).

Job embeddedness refers to a person's link to other job facets (that is, groups and persons), the cost of leaving the job and perceived person-job fit (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski & Erez, 2001). Therefore, it seems that employees need to excitement, devotion and connected in their work and then it is possible that they will feel embedded. Lee et al. (1996b) also highlighted that without job engagement, employees will not get embedded in their jobs. Interdependence bolsters engagement by cultivating collective effectiveness and enhancing high-level performance desires for group success. It is also important form engagement that there is tolerance for failure as this promotes risk-taking and creativity, which are healthy for engagement. In addition, resources related to engagement are work attachment psychologically and energy while those related to embeddedness is more in relations in the workplace and the organization (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008).



Thus, employees who are provided adequately by the aforementioned resources become more engaged and embedded in their jobs (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012). A few studies have enquired the effects of job embeddedness on work engagement (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), for example, showed that work engagement among Dutch employees from different organizations has a negative relation with turnover intentions. In addition, Ocampo, Tan and Sia (2018) illustrated the effect of employee engagement on job embeddedness among workers in hotel industry. Based on these, we thus propose:

Hypothesis 3: Employee engagement has a positive relationship with job embeddedness.

#### **4.4 Mediating Role of Employee Engagement**

Given that service orientation is believed to improve employee engagement which in turn leads to improvement of job embeddedness, it is only rational to research about employee engagement as a mediating variable linking service orientation and job embeddedness. According to the social exchange theory, the social life would swap tangible or intangible rewards and employees try to follow the rules of interaction (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) in engagement situations. The presence of service orientation makes employees repay their organization through employee engagement and these employees like to remodel their connection with their managers. The engaged employees have to show the full performance and this is related to the perspective of person-job fit and they try to change the situation of the organization by the concurrent investment of their cognitive, emotional, and physical energies (Donavan et al., 2004).

Moreover, employees are required for service jobs to deal with several challenges and inquiries of customers likewise satisfy their desires, it is, therefore, important that hotel managers empower their employees with service orientation practices so they can proffer solutions on the spot to customers' problems (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010). Employees by service orientation practices will sense an immense level of engagement in their work and they get a sense of effective work connection with more energy. Consequently, these employees have a deep engagement in their jobs and subsequently exhibit a sense of tie and affective commitment towards the organization (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012).

Hence, the employees of such organizations will have low levels of leaving their jobs and there will be high job embeddedness. For instance, the best service orientation as rewards in human resource practices in the hotels help employees get more ingrained in their work in such a way that they possibly will be obliged to commit to their organizations, having understood the cost of giving up friends, colleagues or the benefits they gain from the community if they decide to quit the organization (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012). It shows that a higher service orientation would increase the employee engagement, thereby minimizing the level of intentions to quit job. Lastly, it seems that the antecedent variable would predict engagement then engagement anticipates outcome variable. Hence, the argument that employee engagement acts as a mediating element between service orientation and job embeddedness is logical (Saks, 2006). These were in accordance with some study where employee engagement is portrayed as a mediating variable (e.g. Alfes et al., 2013, Saks, 2006). However, within the hospitality industry, there is not any research on its mediating effect on the relationship between service orientation and job embeddedness and a higher service orientation would increase the employee engagement, thereby minimizing the level of

intentions to quit influencing favorable job embeddedness. Also, Arasli et al. (2017) affirmed that there was a significant effect of engagement of employees as mediator between the relationship of job embeddedness and service orientation on employees of hotels. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: The effect of service orientation on job embeddedness is mediated by employee engagement.

#### **4.5 Moderating Role of Perceptions of Organizational Politics**

Several researches have viewed organizational politics perception in different ways when normative guidelines for behaviors are not provided within an environment, individuals are likely to exhibit political behaviors (Ferris et al., 1989). According to Crawford et al. (2010), transactional theory of stress insists that people assess situations that are stressful as to how threatened or challenged are they with their jobs. Time urgency an example of challenge may be considered a demand that is stressful, which might possibly foster personal growth and increase mastery, whereas politics (within an organization) an example of hindrance may be considered as a demand that is stressful, which might possibly hinder development and learning as well as personal growth (Crawford et al., 2010).

The emphasis of the current study is on the perceptions of employees of politics within their organization as a hindrance to service orientation and job embeddedness. Gotsis and Kortezi (2010) mentioned that organizational politics as a stressor consist of exercise of power and acts of influence that takes place in an organizational environment. When there are ambiguities and uncertainties, politics have a tendency to flourish with such an organization. This is because performance standards and structures of reward in organizations like this are vague. Higher levels of politics

within an organization are perceived when personnel discover that prejudicial promotions and rewards as well as favoritism are commonplace. Inappropriately, in the hospitality industry work practices like these have been reported by scholars (cf. Kusluvan et al., 2010; Wan, 2010) to be prevalent.

Evidently, perceptions of organizational politics create unfair conditions and treatments meted out to employees within the work environment, which in turn diminishes service orientation (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). Employees, who work in five-star hotels with low service orientation practices, have a higher probability of leaving the organizations (Vigoda, 2000). This, in other words, demonstrates that high perceptions of organizational politics in the work environment may be highly detrimental to employees and reduce the level of job embeddedness. Hence, perceptions of organizational politics for employees is viewed in this study as one of the hindering factors that negatively influence service orientation and job embeddedness. For instance, organizational politics' negative influence on service orientation in work environment indicates (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007) that employees in hotels would not be more engaged and happy in their jobs (Vigoda-Gadot, 2010) because these employees perceive a higher level of politics (Karatepe, 2013), thereby service orientation in their organization will decrease and they will end up leaving the organizations. It means that employees work in five-star hotels with low service orientation practices have a higher probability of leaving the organizations. This in other words demonstrates that increased awareness of politics in the work environment may be highly detrimental to employees and reduce the level of job embeddedness.

There are a substantial number of studies, which examine perceptions of organizational politics as the effective variable (e.g. Baloch et al., 2017, Naseer et al., 2016, Wiltshire

et al., 2014, Karatepe, 2013) and where perceptions of organizational politics is examined as a mediation variable (e.g. Meisler, G., & Vigoda-Gadot, E., 2014). In addition, perceptions of organizational politics are examined as a moderating variable (e.g. Sun, et al., 2015, Hochwarter et al., 2000). Nevertheless, a review of the literature has revealed that there is not any study done on the moderating effect of the perceptions of politics within the organization on service orientation and job embeddedness in the hospitality industry, especially in Northern Cyprus. Therefore, one of the aims of this study is to illustrate this gap in the literature by testing whether interaction of service orientation and perceptions of organizational politics has a moderating effect on job embeddedness. In line with this, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**Hypothesis 5:** The rate of increase on job embeddedness as a result of service orientation in a low perceptions of organizational politics is higher compared to an organization with high perceptions of organizational politics

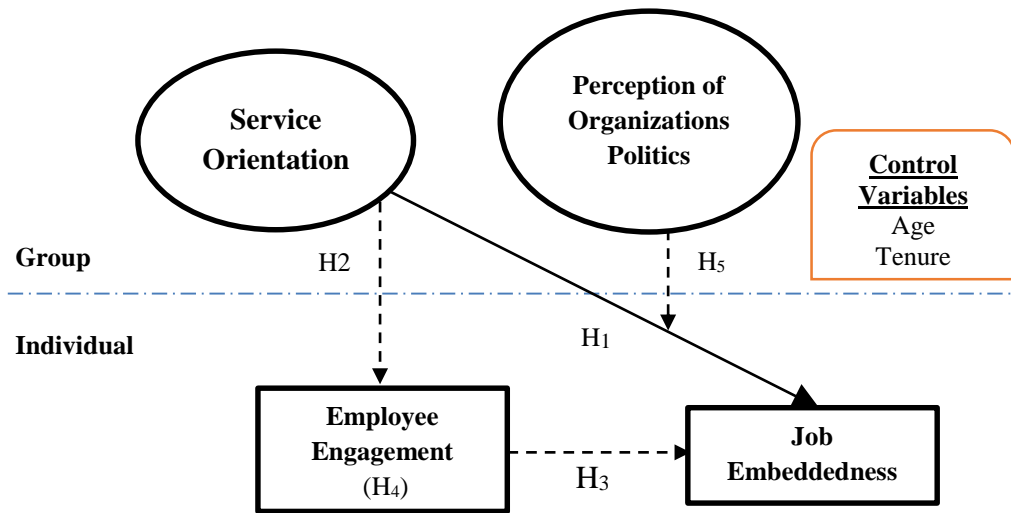


Figure 1: Theoretical Framework. Variables represented within rectangles were measured at the individual level while those within circles were measured at the group level. Dotted arrows represent relationships at the group-level that were measured by aggregating individual responses.

## **Chapter 5**

### **METHODOLOGY**

In this chapter is indicated the methodological approach as the sample and procedure; measures and the data analysis.

#### **5.1 Sample and Procedure**

The deductive approach was utilized in this research which helped us to better explain the nature of relationships and interactions among the study variables (Altinay et al., 2016). A deductive approach needs one to develop hypotheses and to describe them in operational terms. Also, these hypotheses need to be tested with an empirical inquiry and examine the specific results (Robson, 2002). Using a convenience sample approach that is a type of non-probability sampling method where the sample is taken from a group of employees easy to contact. Indeed, convenience sampling was used for hotel choices since five-star hotels were the focus of the study due to their overwhelming bed capacities that make up more than all the other hotels within the hospitality industry of Northern Cyprus and the convenience sampling was also practiced in this study with those employees of the five-star hotels that they were on duty at that practiced on their duty at that particular moment that we visited. Ghauri & Grønhaug (2010) and Bentler & Chou (1987) suggested that for each question at the minimum 5 respondents and the maximum 10 respondents are sufficient distribution. Hence, using a convenience sampling method, we sampled 351 top and frontline managers in five-star hotels in Northern Cyprus and 302 samples were retrieved to increase the validity and generalizability of response. Based on extant evidence, we

can argue that our sample is responses with forty questions in are assured in view of the numbers of top and frontline managers in five- star hotels compared to the total.

The researchers of this study gathered data sample from five-star hotels in Northern Cyprus because the tourism industry is the main sector for economic development in Northern Cyprus since the 1980s and the number of touristic establishments and investments has been increasing year by year (Yasarata et al., 2010). The tourism sector remains a crucial source of GDP as well as the main source of job creation. Based on the 2016 statistics obtained from Ministry of Tourism and Environment (MTES), the net tourism income was 746.7 million USD and the in 2015 and the ratio of net tourism income to trade balance was 43.4%. In addition, the rich history with some important historical heritage and the advertised predominantly as a perfect summer sun–sea–sand vacation, highlighting relaxation and fun (Sharpley, 2001) and to been designated as a travel destination by tourists from Germany, Austria, Turkey, Iran, England, and Ukraine in 2015 (MTES reported in 2016).

There are 18 five-star hotels of which, only the management of 14 five-star hotels accepted to help researchers. From general managers and managers of 14 hotels located in Northern Cyprus, the data were collected. Only top and frontline managers from hotels (five-stars only) in Northern Cyprus were selected (e.g., Front office, Housekeeping and, Food & Beverage services). All hotels chosen are fully serviced hotel facilities providing a range of Food & Beverage services and with several outlets (e.g., restaurants, lounges, bars).

The researchers pointed out that every department in the hotel was structured into three different groups of managers with helping of human resource manager (Way et al.,



2010). The first group, called Category-1 (C1) is made up of managers who have the designation of top managers, and their assistants. Category -2 (C2) is the second group of managers in the hotel, made up of managers with the designation 'executive director of frontline employees'. Category-3 (C3), the third group of managers in the hotel is made up of managers with the designation 'assistant executive directors of frontline employees' and 'outlet managers'. The hotels' human resource directors noted that while C1, C2, and C3 groups of managers work at the same hotel facility, the groups were identified as different groups, do not have the same job titles, have very different responsibilities and were managed different ways.

In all of these 14 hotels, data was gathered from managers in the three different manager groups and each group's direct supervisor (through a survey) (Way et al., 2010). The human resource manager from each of the hotel facilities gave members from the three groups of managers from their organization the job embeddedness, employee engagement and control variables surveys. Additionally, the human resource manager of each hotel gave the supervisor of each group of managers a survey that contains service orientation and perceptions organizational politics.

Surveys of group members were given out to all the group members working in all 14 sample hotels in Northern Cyprus. So as to complete the surveys, members of the different manager groups were allowed to take some time off their duties. Surveys of group members given out to evaluate their perception of employee engagement and job embeddedness in their respective units were given out to 351 respondents. The supervisor survey to measure the service orientation and perceptions organizational politics of individual departments in their hotels were distributed among 52 supervisors.

Based on existing literature on multilevel studies, it is standard to combine measures at minimum 3 responses to the group level (Joshi et al., 2008; Henderson et al., 2008; Choi, 2007). So as to minimize the likelihood of common method biases distorting the findings (Özduran and Tanova, 2017b); direct supervisors of all the manager groups were required to rate group service orientation and perceptions organizational politics. Direct supervisor to each hotel's C1 group of managers was the hotel's top managers (general manager), and their assistants; direct supervisor to each hotel's C2 group of managers (pointed out by each hotel's director of human resource) was a C1 manager of the facility; direct supervisor of each hotel's C3 group of managers (pointed out by each hotel's director human resource) was a C2 manager group member. Service orientation and perceptions organizational politics data were obtained for 47 manager groups (a response rate of 77.04%) from the direct supervisor of each of these 47 manager groups.

This study removed some missing data to decrease common method biases. We removed some the surveys' respondents that had been with their managers for not up to six months (Özduran & Tanova, 2017b). Complete data were obtained for 302 individual top and frontline managers (representing 86.03 % response rate) from 47 manager groups. More specifically, data used in creating the study's dependent variables (Employee Engagement & Job Embeddedness) as well as the control variables were gotten from 51 different C1 top managers from 14 C1 groups of managers (3.64 respondents/group averagely), 46 individual C2 group members working in 18 C2 frontline manager groups (2.56 respondents/group averagely), and 205 C3 group members working in 15 C3 frontline manager groups (13.67 respondents/group averagely); while the data used in creating the independent variable (group service orientation and perceptions of organizational politics) were obtained

from the 14 top managers of the hotels. They directly supervise C1 top manager groups (1 respondent per C1 group), 18 C1 top managers directly supervising C2 groups of frontline managers (1 respondent per C2 group of frontline managers), and 15 C1 top managers who directly supervising C3 frontline manager groups (1 respondent per C3 frontline manager group). The sample profile in Table 1 shows that we collected these data in three categories from 14 five-star hotels in Northern of Cyprus.

Table 1: Sample profile

	C1		C2		C3	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
<b>Gender</b>						
Male	26	8.6	21	7	106	50.7
Female	25	8.3	25	8.3	99	48.3
Total	51	16.9	46	15.2	205	67.9
<b>Age</b>						
Under 20	5	1.7	8	2.6	21	7.0
21-30	20	6.6	19	6.3	78	25.8
31-40	15	5.0	14	4.6	70	23.2
41-50	9	3.0	5	1.7	32	10.6
Over 50	2	0.7	0	0.0	4	1.3
Total	51	16.9	46	15.2	205	67.9
<b>Marital Status</b>						
Single	19	6.3	21	7.0	79	26.2
Married	25	8.3	18	6.0	102	33.8
Divorce	7	2.3	7	2.3	24	7.9
Total	51	16.9	46	15.2	205	67.9
<b>Education</b>						
Primary school	5	1.7	3	1.0	12	4.0
Secondary and high school	13	4.3	12	4.0	65	21.5
Two-year college degree	8	2.6	13	4.3	38	12.6
Four-year college degree	22	7.3	11	3.6	67	22.2
Graduate degree	3	1.0	7	2.3	23	7.6
Total	51	16.9	46	15.2	205	67.9
<b>Tenure</b>						
Below 1 year	2	0.7	7	2.3	28	9.3
1-5	16	5.3	18	6.0	55	18.2
6-10	17	5.6	10	3.3	57	18.9
11-15	7	2.3	7	2.3	36	11.9
16-20	4	1.3	2	0.7	17	5.6
21 and above	5	1.7	2	0.7	12	4.0
Total	51	16.9	46	15.2	205	67.9

## 5.2 Measures

Lytle et al. (1998) developed sixteen items used to measure service orientation in this research. Sample items are “we are noticeably more friendly and courteous than our competitors” and “every employee receives personal skills training that enhance his/her ability to deliver high quality service”. Individual group members also responded to six items that was a shortened adaptation of the Robertson and Cooper (2010) scale used to measure employee engagement in this study. A sample item is “the goals of my organization make me feel that my job is important” and “The objectives of my place of work make me feel that my work is significant”.

The perception of organizational politic was measured using a twelve-item scale adopted from Kacmar and Ferris (1991). Sample items included “In our hotel, pay and promotion policies are not politically applied” and “No room for yes-men here; even when it is frictional with supervisors, good ideas are always desired”. Lastly, Crossley et al. (2007) seven items were employed in measuring job embeddedness. They consist of: “I am highly caught up in this hotel to quit” and “I feel tied to this hotel”.

A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the item responses in all of the variables, i.e. 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). The demographic variables were used in line with extant research. Furthermore, a six-point scale was used for tenure while a 5-point scales for age (as control variable) and education. Gender (as control variable) and marital status were coded in binary variables, i.e. 0= male and 1= female; 0 = single or divorced and 1 = married.

A test sample of two managers and twelve personnel were first examined using the questionnaire. The results showed that employees and the managers understood all the items in the questionnaire hence, there were no alterations to the questionnaire.

### **5.3 Data Analysis**

The data collected were analyzed individually that they are used by SPSS. This study's hypotheses were examined with the aid of hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002). According to Hofmann (1997), since it has the ability to overcome regular methods' statistical weaknesses for nested data's analysis, HLM is desirable. Traditional statistical procedures are insufficient in testing hierarchical models and the inadequacies can lead to hitches such as misestimated levels of analysis, misestimated precision and aggregation bias (Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992, 2002).

This approach was adopted due to its suitability with the research questions in this study and because these hotels individually have nested departments within them which are influenced by their respective managers and other probable group factors. Following this analytical approach, we are able to examine the probability of group membership (i.e. each segment of hotels) influencing the relationships attributed to independent item-level variables. Furthermore, we are able to analyze the nature of variation in the relationships about each segment. Hence, two levels are applied to employ this procedure and for the hypotheses testing.

Individual level depicts employee surveys to assess employee perception of EE and JE in (C1), (C2) and (C3). The groups levels demonstrate how SO and POP, regarding subordinates and their organizations, were distributed to managers (C1) in their units.

All these relationships and levels are shown in Fig. 1. The effects within and between Individual level and group level could be simultaneously controlled with the aid of the HLM.

The relationship between the variables, i.e. employee engagement, service orientation, job embeddedness and perceptions of organizational politics and all the control variables were evaluated using correlation analysis. Following the Baron and Kenny (1986) guideline for mediation analysis, the mediating effect of employee engagement on the relations between service orientation and job embeddedness was tested via the hierarchical multiple regression analysis along with the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) to confirm the mediation. In addition, to analyze the general linear models via the interaction of effects (Cohen et al., 2003) between perceptions of organizational politics and employee engagement on job embeddedness, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was employed. This analysis proved relevant in discovering the effect each independent variable had on the dependent variable.

According to Hofmann (1998), since it has the ability to overcome regular methods' statistical weaknesses for nested data's analysis, hierarchical linear modeling is desirable. Traditional statistical procedures are insufficient in testing hierarchical models and the inadequacies can lead to hitches such as misestimated levels of analysis, misestimated precision and aggregation bias (Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992, 2002). Hence, since OLS methods are heavily critiqued due to its inadequacies in deal with cross-level matters in researches like this one (Rousseau, 1985), in line with certain scholars (e.g. Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992; Snijders and Bosker, 2003), HLM was used to test the cross-level relationships in this study. The kurtosis and skewness values of all the latent variables were checked, in addition to the curve of the normal

distribution histogram. Indeed, issues of multicollinearity and normality tested prior to HLM been administered. For our variables, issues of multicollinearity did not arise since tolerance values which were measured by OLS estimates were above 0.10 (Tabacnick & Fidell, 2007). For this reason, the data for this study were fit to be considered for use in HLM regression analysis.

## Chapter 6

### RESEARCH FINDINGS

Information on the results of the analysis carried out in this study is provided in this chapter. First, the results as regards the profile of the respondents is given, after which through Cronbach alpha's coefficient and confirmatory factor analyses, the results relating to the measurements' psychometric properties are also presented. After which, the research's hypotheses result according to the Sobel test, hierarchical multiple regression analysis and Pearson product-moment correlations are provided.

#### 6.1 Results of Measurements

The variables were reliable based on the results obtained from the reliability Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) which were greater than the 0.70 thresholds (Salanova, M. & Schaufeli, W.B., 2008) in Table 2. As depicted in Table 2, employee engagement ( $r = 0.592, p < 0.001$ ) is significantly and positively associated with job embeddedness. Also, according to the correlation results, service orientation is considerably and negatively related to organizational politics perception ( $r = -0.297, p < 0.001$ ).

To assess the suitability of the data for use in hierarchical linear modeling regression (HLM), all the latent variables were checked for normal distribution using the skewness and kurtosis values as well as the frequency distribution histogram and the normal curve (Kline, 2011).



Table 2: Means, standard deviations (SD), and inter-correlations among variables and Cronbach's alphas for each scale

Variabl	Mean	SD	$\alpha$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Level-2 (Group Level)</i>										
1. SO	3.5380	.81521	.92	1						
2. POP	2.4344	.56491	.76	-.297*	1					
<i>Level-1 (Individual Level)</i>										
3. Gender						1				
4. Age						-.122*	1			
5. Tenure						-.172**	.693**	1		
6. EE	3.7770	.78383	.88			.158**	.137*	.021	1	
7. JE	3.3217	.76106	.79			.139*	.050	.073	.592**	1

Notes: \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ . SO = Service Orientation; POP = Perception of Organizations Politics; EE = Employee Engagement; JE = Job Embeddedness.

## 6.2 Aggregation statistics

A one-way analysis of variance was done in determining the necessity for a multilevel model in our study. This will authenticate that the variability in service orientation and perception of organizations politics by departments is significantly different from zero: in other words, to see whether service orientation and perceptions of organizational politics differ between the departments (Özduran and Tanova, 2017).

An aggregation was done across several subordinates of the same department for the service orientation and perceptions of organizational politics variables. The aggregation to the group level would require statistical and theoretical support (Bliese, 2000). The within group agreement and Intra Class Correlations (ICC) were measured. To arrive at this i.e. ICC; the aggregate variation's proportion in the individual service orientation organizational politics perception scores were explained by the departmental discrepancies.

These results show that for JE Intra Class Correlations (ICC) is equal to 0.83 and chi-squared of 227.687 with 46 degrees of freedom at  $p < 0.001$  and for EE the ICC=0.72 has a chi-squared of 286.253 with 46 degrees of freedom at  $p < 0.001$ . ICC values as low as 0.05 may suggest that individual-level variation requires investigation using multilevel modeling. Higher levels of ICC indicate dependence within variation requires investigation using multilevel modeling. Higher levels of ICC indicate dependence within the data that violates the assumptions of single-level regression (Halbesleben and Leon, 2014). It suffices to conclude that the aggregation of the service orientation and perceptions of organizational politics variables at level 2 is justified (Huta, 2014).

### **6.3 Hypothesis testing**

According to Table 3 below, it is clear that the hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) analysis results supported H<sub>1</sub>, H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>3</sub>. According to Table 3 below, based on the regression analysis results, H<sub>1</sub>, H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>3</sub> are supported. The results of Model 1 affirm that service orientation has significant and positive relations with employee engagement ( $\beta=0.470$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The Model 2 implies that job embeddedness is positively and significantly affected directly by service orientation ( $\beta=0.584$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Based on the results of Model 3 also, it is clear that employee engagement has a direct significant positive effect on JE ( $\beta=0.716$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

Hypothesis 4 considers the mediation effect of employee engagement in the relation of service orientation and job embeddedness. By the aid of Sobel (1982) which is depicted in Table 3, service orientation's total effect on job embeddedness without employee engagement presence ( $\beta=0.584$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) is positive and significant. However, the service orientation's direct effect on job embeddedness in the presence of employee engagement variable is significant ( $\beta =0.247$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and the indirect

effect of service orientation on job embeddedness was through employee engagement as mediator is also significant ( $\beta=0.337$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and Sobel test statistic is equal to 4.46. Certainly, by considering the growth of R2 in Table 3 among the Model 1, 2, and 3, we conclude that the presence of employee engagement as mediator has a significant effect on the enhancement of explanation of the dependent variable (job embeddedness) by independent variable (service orientation). Hence, the results indicated that there is a partial mediation and H4 is supported and employee engagement does mediate the effect of service orientation on job embeddedness. To confirm the outcomes of the HLM for the indirect effect or mediation hypotheses, Sobel test was performed (Sobel, 1982). Hence, the result of Sobel test is confirmed ( $z = 5.98$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

Table 3: Hierarchical linear modeling results testing H1, H2, H3, H4

Level variables	EE		JE
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
<i>Level-2 (Group Level)</i>			
SO	.470***	.584***	.247***
<i>Level-1 (Individual Level)</i>			
Gender	-.058	-.011	.030
Age	.298*	-.127	-.340***
Tenure	-.224	.224	.385***
EE			.716***
R <sup>2</sup>	.301	.316	.674

Notes: \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\* $p < 0.05$ ; \* $p < 0.10$ . SO = Service Orientation; POP = Perception of Organizations Politics; EE = Employee Engagement; JE = Job Embeddedness.

We conducted our HLM analysis for testing perceptions of organizational politics' moderator effect on the association between service orientation and job embeddedness in three steps. In step 1 (see Table 4, Model 1) except for independent variable and mediator, no control variable has been entered in the regression relationship. The second step (see Table 4, Model 2) included the control variables and a random effect for the intercept but we still did not enter the perceptions of organizational politics as moderator variable. The third step (see Table 4, Model 3) was surveyed the effects of the group service orientation on individual-level (individual group member) employee engagement and job embeddedness by adding the perceptions of organizational politics as moderator variable to this baseline model at the presence of control variables Age and Tenure.

As regards the results indicated in Table 4, the significant growth of regression coefficient between service orientation and job embeddedness in Model 3 rather than Model 1 and 2, from  $\beta = .129$ ,  $p < 0.01$  up to  $\beta = .556$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , represents the desired effect of the presence of the perceptions of organizational politics as moderator in the model of study. On the other hand, considering the growth of the  $R^2$  among the models in Table 4, it can be concluded that the moderator variable (organizational politics perception) in the participant of service orientation was regressed on job embeddedness are effective. Further, control variables possess significant effect on job embeddedness as obtained from the results concerning age ( $\beta = -0.269$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ), and tenure ( $\beta = 0.209$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ).

To analyze the relationship between service orientations, perceptions of organizational politics and job embeddedness, the interaction terms were added in Model 3. The interaction between a high level of service orientation and a high level of perceptions

of organizational politics could influence decreased job embeddedness. Hence, it can be said that perceptions of organizational politics negatively influences the relationship between service orientation and job embeddedness ( $\beta = -.195, p < 0.01$ ) (Table 4). These strongly support H5.

Therefore, the results demonstrated that the samples of top and frontline managers were nested in manager groups and group service orientation had the positive relation to the individual group member of job embeddedness (Table 4), but it is necessary to be described in the prediction about the individual level. As a result, the HLM analyses and regression of our research in Tables 3 and 4 demonstrate that the employees are in group members, they feel more satisfied when they would spread perceptions of their helping with related to customer service and these group members believe that their behaviors are supported by their organizations. Table 4 displays the outcomes of the conducted analysis. Regarding the regression analysis three demographic variables served as control variables. Thus, in model one, the variables age and tenure were regressed on the participant's job embeddedness.

Finally, the results of HLM analyses supported the effects of mediation variable and moderation variable in the model of this work with dual employee levels as well as individual level group level (Table 3 & Table 4).

Table 4: Hierarchical linear modelling results testing H5

Level and variable	JE		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Intercept	.364	.007	-1.311*
<i>Level-2 (Group Level)</i>			
SO	.115*	.129***	.556***

POP			-.564***
Cross-level			
SO × POP			-.195***
<i>Level-1(Individual Level)</i>			
EE	.673***	.757***	.776***
Age		-.283***	-.269***
Tenure		.220***	.209***
R <sup>2</sup>	.593	.674	.719
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.593	.081	.045
F	32.057	35.472	38.591
ΔF (df)	32.057***	3.415***	3.119**
	(2,44)	(3, 41)	(2, 39)

Notes: \*p< 0.10; \*\*p< 0.05; \*\*\*p< 0.01. SO = Service Orientation; POP = Perception of Organizations Politics; EE = Employee Engagement; JE = Job Embeddedness. For level 1 measures, N = 302; for level 2 measures, N = 47.

As suggested by Cohen et al. (2003) and in an attempt to further clarify the point of the interaction, a simple slope analysis was carried out. A HLM Graph Equation was used to illustrate the connection service orientation and job embeddedness has with high and low perception of organization's politics. As indicated in Figure II that participants who report a low level of service orientation and have a lower perception of organization's politics are more prone to increased job embeddedness compared with those with a high perception of organization's politics.

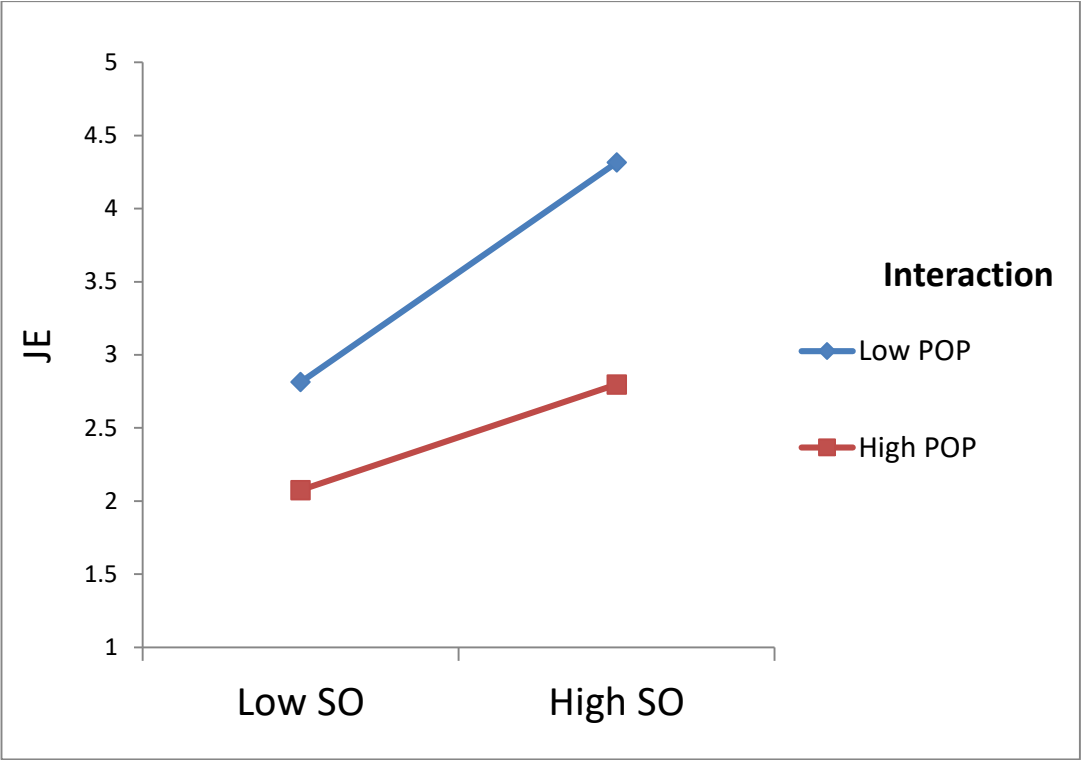


Figure 2: Interaction effect of service orientation and perception of organization's politics on job embeddednes

## Chapter 7

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

An appraisal of the results reported from the analysis of this study is presented in this chapter. This is closely followed up by the managerial implications of the study's outcomes. After which, the study's limitations, and suggested directions for further studies were given just before the conclusion.

#### 7.1 Evaluations of Findings

The current study tried to a certain degree to add to the body of knowledge in the hospitality industry. Specifically, this study examined perceptions of organizational politics as a moderator of the effects of service orientation and job embeddedness. In addition, this study investigated the employee engagement as a partial mediation between the relationship of service orientation and job embeddedness. This study filled in the gap by examining these relationships. The above-mentioned, that data were collected from hotel personnel in North Cyprus. There are some inferences appear from the results of this empirical study. Based on the results obtained, the stated hypotheses were supported thus:

Firstly, the job embeddedness results show in a number of benefits. For example, decreasing of turnover intentions (Bergiel et al., 2009; Tanova & Holtom, 2008); increasing employee retention (Wheeler, Harris, & Harvey, 2010) and explains some importance of effects on organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001b) in recent hospitality literature which is also valid for the 5-star hotels in North Cyprus. Findings show that a positive connection exists between



service orientation and job embeddedness. As job embeddedness theory (Lee et al., 1996b), keeping skilled employees has significant in organizations. One of the best procedures to keep skilled employees in hospitality organizations has a service-oriented climate. Indeed, service-oriented employees feel satisfied in their jobs and they exceed the usual customer satisfaction; listen effectively, adopt effective training and solution methods, enhance transparent incentives, provision of advanced technology and a common language, etc. Thus, these service-orientated employees feel that it is not easy for them to give up their hospitality organizations and they have strong ties with their hotels. These findings are very crucial, because there are few studies exist between service orientation and job embeddedness as research about this issue by Arasli et al., 2017.

Secondly, an alternative way to survey service orientation is to focus on employee engagement. The findings are congruent with the principles of the conservation of resources theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989) that all individual intentions in the organizations can accumulate and keeping their resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Indeed, this theory would indicate that the employees as one of the most important organizational resources need dimensions of service orientation as service leadership, service encounter, service system and human resources management. Thus, the service - oriented employees are more likely to increase the level of themselves about the service of customers in their hotels so that they would try to enhance effective employee engagement.

According to the findings, we discovered that service orientation influences employee engagement and this signifies that employees in five-star hotels in Northern Cyprus are more passionate about their organization's customer focus, policies, measurement,

quality, incentives and more immersed in their work. Consequently, managers who adopt these service orientation dimensions give the employees a sense of pride and employee engagement in their jobs. Indeed, this result corresponds with those of Popli and Rizvi (2015) in service jobs.

Thirdly, one other way to achieve job embeddedness and get benefit from its outcomes is to pay necessary attention to the employee engagement. As shown in this study, employee engagement and job embeddedness do have a significant positive relationship inferring that, employees at 5-star hotels in Northern Cyprus in focus are committed, devoted and absorbed in their jobs making it difficult for them to quit. Thus, employee engagement in their working positively influences job embeddedness and this is in agreement with the work of Saks (2006) and Halbesleben & Wheeler (2008).

Nowadays, there is interest in engagement with employees (Saks, 2006), especially for the hospitality industry. Therefore, we tried to survey the model of the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement in this study and the results indicated that employee engagement partially mediates the relationship between antecedent variable (service orientation) and consequence variable (job embeddedness). This also implies that employees who are engaged in their work and receive adequate service orientation become more embedded in the job and develop a sense of attachment to the hotel they work for in the process of delivering service. Although, few studies have been done on employee engagement's mediating role by Alfes et al. (2013) and Saks (2006), the study on its partial mediation between service orientation and job embeddedness in Northern Cyprus hotels are very scarce.

Finally, the findings also indicate that the interaction between service orientation and perceptions of organizational politics negatively influences job embeddedness. It means that if the employees of hotels in three categories as (C1), (C2) and (C3) do not have program for service orientation in their jobs; they are more likely to quit their job than those employees in hotels with a low perceptions of organizational politics. Some of the manager groups of category (C1) (general managers, their assistants and executive director of frontline employees) would also create a high perceptions of organizational politics in these hotels in Northern Cyprus because the top managers forget the importance of training for assistants' executive director of frontline employees and their supervisor (C2) and (C1). Therefore, these manager groups lack the knowledge of contemporary management approaches. This creates a risky environment and the management of these hotels tends to neglect employee engagement among their employees. If the top managers in (C1) keep high perceptions of organizational politics, the skilled employees will be discouraged and will quit their jobs as quickly as possible and the number of unskilled employees will increase. Hence, the rate of increase in job embeddedness caused by service orientation is not as high when there is high perceptions of organizational politics compared to the rate of increase in job embeddedness caused by service orientation when there is low perceptions of organizational politics. This result of this study about the negative interaction service orientation and perceptions of organizational politics on job embeddedness have not been surveyed in five –star hotels of Northern Cyprus yet. Though, the moderating effects of organizational politics perception on different results were proven before in different studies, like as Ferris & Judge, 1991.

## **7.2 Theoretical Implications**

Several theoretical and practical implications are provided by the findings in this study. The relationship between incremental service orientation and job embeddedness is well-explained by job embeddedness theory (Lee et al., 1996b). As previously mentioned, job embeddedness is a retention theory for employees. If employees perceive that decisions taken by top management might help them in their jobs and they sense to have the good quality of relationships, they show high levels of job embeddedness.

Hence, this research adds to the body of literature and knowledge as it relates to the role of job embeddedness in showing that service orientation enhances job embeddedness of employees in the hospitality industry; as a result, making a huge addition to the robustness job embeddedness theory in literature.

An addition is also made to the theory of the conservation of resources theory by this study as well. This is done by its finding that incremental service orientation results in high levels of employee engagement in the teams where they work in three and four star hotels in Northern Cyprus.

Indeed, this theory extends that the increase of resources as equipment, supportive environmental of work, skills, and knowledge of employees is more significant and these developments of resources increase service orientation on to high employee engagement among in individual level of employees. Consistent with the principle of COR theory, personnel with very effective service orientation will respond with higher employee engagement in the duties of their organizations.

Result from this study extend the present literature on social exchange, through its result that incremental service orientation is highly expected to influence employee engagement and this subsequently results in high level on-the-job embeddedness. Same as the theory of social exchange's principle, personnel with more service orientation feel high employee engagement respond with high job embeddedness. This research supplements the available literature on social exchange by pinpointing employee surveys to evaluate employee perception of engagement, job embeddedness and service orientation in their units regard to managers.

In addition, our research shows that service orientation and job embeddedness is moderated by perceptions of organizational politics. Hence, we expand and contribute to the transactional theory of stress (Crawford et al., 2010) by demonstrating that individuals appraise stressful situations whether employees are not challenging or threatening with their jobs from perceptions of organizational politics onto a new condition in the organizations as 5-star hotels when there are low perceptions of organizational politics, effective service orientation is quite essential so as to boost employees job embeddedness in hotels.

### **7.3 Practical Implications**

There are some practical recommendations in this research for managers in the hospitality industry about reducing organizational politics and increasing employee retention with advanced levels of employee engagement and service orientation in the hotels in focus. Employees who are highly engaged and high performing would be negatively influenced in a work environment where organizational politics and unfair decisions are prevalent.

It is important that new procedures and policies be adopted to minimize the tendency of political decisions within the organization. For example, managers always were rewarding commendable employees who follow set guidelines and frown at those who behave politically by not rewarding them. These hotel managers must endeavor to adopt effective hiring practices via objective and standard tests. They must also guarantee that there are fair career and promotional opportunities in place to make it easier by hiring and retaining the right employees with the right skills for service jobs.

The management could be of great relevance in developing the service behavior service orientation that the managers could be developed that would re-orientate the organizational mindset towards the satisfaction of customers and they also can assume a key role in influencing behaviors of employees who serve as representatives of the organization in reaching excellence.

The hotels' management in this research content needs to understand that they have to provide the needs of their employees in the training programs of services in hotels because this issue is one of the best ways to improve serve customers. These trainings could enhance and increase their employee engagement and have effects potentially on organizational politics. Moreover, managers should also endeavor to cultivate the necessary or relevant skills within themselves and their personnel so as to build the best services. Indeed, the study findings imply that 5-star hotels, especially in Northern Cyprus, need to understand their main responsibility towards managing human resources, that is, if they can protect the skilled employees and achieve high level service orientation, they can also have satisfied customers with ease.

Since employees especially in 5-star hotels in North Cyprus are relevant in retaining profitable customers, supervisors ought to make sure that employees are fully cognizant of the organization's provision of adequate employee engagement in order to fulfil the assigned tasks successfully under tensed times. (Karatepe, Baradarani, Ghasemi, Ilkhanizadeh, & Raoofi, 2014) and they should know that job embeddedness is a strategy in their hotels for employee retention in the hospitality industry (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012).

Lastly, the managers should avoid political interferences and they should also adopt a professional approach in every area of their operations. Indeed, improvement of employees at the hotels does not relate just to the human resource departments, the duty of all the managers in the hotel. In addition, information sharing with employees about policies and a transparent work environment should be encouraged and made available by the hotel managers as these build trust between the employees and the managers.

## **7.4 Limitations and Further Research Recommendations**

There were some limitations encountered in this research as follows:

First, the study focused on full-time hotel employees (five-star hotels) within Northern Cyprus only which limits the extent and applicability of the findings considering also the peculiarity of the tourism situation in Northern Cyprus as the environment culturally is relatively high on collectivism and uncertainty avoidance. In addition, the study focused on the managers' departments and their employees following a two-level analysis hence, future studies could. It might also prove better to gather data from other hospitality sector. A number of limitations were encountered by this study, which is discussed here.

Second, there are very few empirical researches on the interconnection that exists between the job embeddedness- service orientation and service orientation - employee engagement. Future research could focus on service jobs in other sectors of hospitality i.e. banking sector, airline, railway and the IT to gain a better comprehension of their relationships. Future studies could also consider examining the moderating effect of organizational politics perceptions in the association service orientation has with job embeddedness via cross-national samples (e.g., Iran, and Middle East countries).

Thirdly, scholars have to pay better consideration to certain largely under-investigated regions. Although Europe is the most studied area in 14 studies (35%), which comprised of a lot of regions of tourist attraction and certain countries identified as the world's leading tourist destinations (35 of the top 50 countries with most tourist arrival) and do not have to focus on region that keep resurfacing in literature because this would as well add to the comprehensive understanding of the construct.

Fourth, according to the literature review and schematic map of future research recommendations, studies could also replicate this study, however, with larger sample sizes, tentatively with a focus on the working population and could be done with a different population and it would improve the database and the variables' internal consistency estimates for further generalizations. Variables like as work-family conflict, environmental, organizational culture, as well as favoritism, which were not included in this work, could also be considered in their effects on job embeddedness.

Fifth, generalizability of the study findings is constraint due the use of data from the Cyprus people context. Although Northern Cyprus offers an ideal context to inspect the proposed hypotheses, these results may not be generalizable to Western and



Eastern nations and other nations with regulatory systems that makes mistreatment the place of work difficult and better systems that effectively manage resources.

Sixth, culture could significantly impact the findings. For this reason, present study urges researchers to carry out studies that are related in different cultural contexts. A confirmatory evidence for the outcome of this study can also be provided by a longitudinal research design. In addition, further studies could as well examine other elements increasing incivility for example gender, coping's effectiveness and the likely variation that may be different generations. These could be vital areas of research in future on this subject.

## **7.5 Conclusion**

This study proves its importance in several ways. It examined the relationship between service orientation and job embeddedness, and employee engagement. This is relevant because there are few empirical studies that investigate this within the human resource and hospitality management literature (e.g. Karatepe, 2011). The study showed the presence of strong empirical support for the mediating effect of employee engagement. By also examining the negative moderating effects of organizational politics perception within the work environment, the current research contributes to the already existing knowledge base.

These findings emanated from data obtained from full-time hotel employees (five-star hotels) in Northern of Cyprus, where certain managerial practices are not very well, especially as the human resource, insufficient infrastructure, poor marketing efforts and poor service standards should improve aspect following a two-level analysis (individual and group level). Furthermore, a multilevel analysis was done using

hierarchical linear modeling given the nesting nature of employees in departments. Finally, this empirical research endeavored to fill the gap in the existing stream of research and highlighted the practical implications for managers especially in the hospitality industry.

The findings of the current research showed that engagement mediates in part the positive association between service orientation and job embeddedness. Furthermore, a negative interaction exists between organizational politics perception and service orientation on job embeddedness. The influence of employee engagement on job embeddedness has also been investigated. Indeed, this research provides a clearer in-depth into the determinants and outcomes of service-oriented employees likewise employee engagement, organizational politics perception, and job embeddedness in the tourist hotel context.

These relationships had to be tested for two main reasons: Firstly, scientific study on job embeddedness' precursors and consequences within the hospitality management and human resource literature is deficient; Secondly, this study takes job embeddedness research to a non-western emerging country as North Cyprus. In further researches, it would be essential to exam the service orientation → job embeddedness→ employee engagement interconnection in service providing jobs outside of the hospitality industry. In addition, cultures could fill the gap of knowledge in this current study and present actual managerial implications.

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## **APPENDIX**

The hotel industry in North Cyprus is the area of study

Research Team,

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Dear Respondent,

This study objective is to further appreciate the perceptions you have towards place of work. For this reason, we ask that this survey be self-administered. All kinds of information gathered over the period of this study will be kept private. I really thank you for your time and involvement in this study. Should you have any enquires about this study, kindly get in touch with the researcher through mobile phone- Tel: 05338388674 or email- Reza.teimouri@emu.edu.tr.

Thank you once again for participation

Project Developers:

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I. Using the following five-point scale, kindly specify your agreement or disagreement with every statement by ticking the corresponding number:

1. I strongly agree
2. I agree
3. I am unsure
4. I disagree
5. I strongly disagree

**Service Orientation (SO)**

	<i>Service encounter practices (SE)</i>					
1	For customers, organization give the “extra mile”	1	2	3	4	5
2	We are obviously more courteous and friendly than our competitors.	1	2	3	4	5
3	To reduce inconveniences for customers, employees go out of their way	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Service systems practices (SS)</i>					
4	We go all the way to avert problems with customers.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Instead of acting in response to problems after they occur, we go all the way to “head off” or avert problems with customers	1	2	3	4	5
6	With customers, we do active listening	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Service leadership practices (LDS)</i>					
7	Management regularly highlights the significance of service.	1	2	3	4	5

8	Management is continually evaluating quality of service.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Management demonstrates their concern towards service by regularly offering themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Instead of just paying “lip service”, resources are offered management to augment the ability of the employee to deliver more exceptional service.	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Human resources management practices (GRH)</i>					
11	Management offers excellent rewards and incentive at all levels for quality of service and not just for productivity.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Each employee goes through individual skills training that develop their capacity to provide services of high quality	1	2	3	4	5
13	Excellent service is conspicuously celebrated in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
14	Much effort and time is expended in training exercises that are simulated to help us deliver greater levels of service when interfacing with the customer in reality.	1	2	3	4	5
15	In the course of training we go through activities that identifies and enhance good attitudes toward clients.	1	2	3	4	5

**Perception of Politics (POP)**

16	Because no one is willing to defy them, there is a set of individuals in this working unit who continuously get things their own way.	1	2	3	4	5
17	There has always been a group of influential individuals in this working unit nobody ever confronts.	1	2	3	4	5
18	There have been policy changes at this place of work that does not meet the need of the work unit or the hotel but just meet the needs of some certain people	1	2	3	4	5
19	Individuals in place of work endeavor to promote themselves by bring other people down.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Instead of merit, favoritism defines who gets ahead in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
21	For fear of revenge from others, individuals in place here ordinarily wouldn't speak up	1	2	3	4	5
22	In this department, promotion as a rule goes to the once that performs the most	1	2	3	4	5

23	In this organization, rewards go to only those that are working hard	1	2	3	4	5
24	People are stimulated to speak out honestly even when they criticize ideas that are deeply engrained.	1	2	3	4	5
25	There are no rooms for yes-men in this organization; even when it seems contradicting with bosses, brilliant ideas are still encouraged	1	2	3	4	5
26	In our workplace, policies on promotion and pay are not there for political reasons.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Policies are not relevant when it comes to decisions on promotion and increase in pay.	1	2	3	4	5

#### Employee Engagement (EE)

28	The purposes of my organization make me feel that my position should be important.	1	2	3	4	5
29	I have commitment for my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I believe that I should listen to by my bosses at work.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I am eager about the job I do.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I am serious to work hard, even when things do not go well enough in my organization.	1	2	3	4	5

#### Job Embeddedness (JE)

33	I have a feeling of attachment to this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5
34	It would be hard for me to quit at this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5
35	I am too wedged into this hotel to leave.	1	2	3	4	5
36	I feel tied to this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5
37	I just could not leave the hotel where I work.	1	2	3	4	5
38	It will be convenient for me to leave this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5
39	I am closely attached to this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5

## Demographics

Please tick ( ✓ ) the appropriate option.

1. Sex?

Female       Male

2. Age?

>50 yrs.    41-50 yrs.    31-40 yrs.    21-30 yrs.    <20

3. Marital Status?

Divorced       Married       Single

4. Level of education?

Graduate degree    Four-year college degree    Two-year college degree    Secondary and high school  
   Primary school

5. How many years do you have tenure?

Below 1 year       1-5      6-10       11-15       16-20       21 and above