HIGH-END FRONT-LINE HOSPITALITY: EXAMINING SKILL LEARNING SYSTEMS AND VOICE MECHANISMS AS POTENTIAL ANTECEDENTS TO WORK ENGAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION ACROSS TWO MARKET ECONOMIES

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the

degree of Doctor of Philosophy

by

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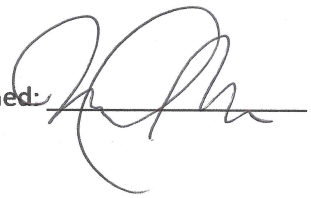
Signed:  Michael Moran ID No.: 16213488 Date: 21/09/2017

Abstract

High-end Front-line Hospitality: Examining Skill Learning Systems and Voice Mechanisms as Potential Antecedents to Work Engagement and Employee Retention Across Two Market Economies

Michael Joseph Moran

This study focused on 'high-end' front-line hospitality (HFLH). In doing so, it called on two theoretical frameworks to help inform the understanding of the HFLH employment relationship. From this, it examined voice mechanisms and skill learning systems as potential antecedents to work engagement and employee retention. This involved the use of mixed methods across two market economies (Ireland and Sweden).

Work in the HFLH service offering comes with particularly alienating characteristics, including considerable discretion and emotional demands, which are often exacerbated in this 'high-end' service offering. Labour Process (LP) analysis is used as the main theoretical framework to inform the micro-processes of the HFLH employment relationship. In addition to this, the comparative political economy framework, Varieties of Capitalism (VoC), is used to capture different macro-processes that shape this LP.

The results of SEM analysis of questionnaires across Ireland and Sweden (n=272) suggested a negative relationship between collective voice mechanisms and work engagement. Individual voice mechanisms were strongly related to work engagement, while both individual and collective voice mechanisms were positively related to employee retention. The findings suggested no significant relationship between different skill learning systems on work engagement or employee retention. However, both HFLH employees studying for a different occupation and those perceiving their future within the HFLH were found to be more engaged. Differences between formal and informal individual voice were also found across both countries. Semi-structured interviews with HFLH employees, managers, Trade Unions, Employer Associations and skill institutions explored these findings further.

This research provided important theoretical contributions in the form of 'connective tissue' between the LP perspective and VoC. In conducting this research across two market economies, it provided important sectoral insights into this atypical and alienating, yet economically important, sector: HFLH, and its particularly distinctive LP. Finally, it considered new voice mechanisms and skill learning systems within HFLH and discussed policy implications.

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Finally, thank you to my wife Triona, for her support and encouragement during this journey.

List of Abbreviations

AB – Absorption

AFS – Accommodation and Food Services

AMS – Arbetsmarknadsstyrelen (The Labour Market Board Sweden)

B&B – Bed and Breakfast

CSO – Central Statistics Office (Ireland)

CFA – Comparative Factor Analysis

CFI – Comparative Fit Index

CPD – Continuous Personal Development

CME - Co-ordinated Market Economy

DE - Dedication

EL – Emotional Labour

EPC – Expected Parameter Change

EU – European Union

ETB – Education and Training Board

EWC – European Works Councils

FET – Further Education and Training

FETAC - Further Education and Training Awards Council

FL – Front-line

FLH – Front-line Hospitality

HFLH – High-end Front-line Hospitality

GWA – Gallup Work Audit

GP – General Practice

HE – Higher Education

HRF - Hotel and Restaurant Workers' Union

ISCO - International Standard Classification of Occupations

JD-R – Job Demands-Resources

LP – Labour Process

LME – Liberal Market Economy

MBI - Maslach Burnout Inventory

MBL - Medbestämmandelagen (Co-Determination Act)

MI – Measurement Invariance

M.I. – Modification Indices

ML – Maximum Likelihood

MLR – Maximum Likelihood Robust

MNC – Multinational Corporation

NFQ – National Framework of Qualifications

NQV – National Vocational Qualifications

OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SE – Standard Error

SOLAS - Further Education and Training Authority of Ireland

UK – United Kingdom

US – United States of America

UWES – Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

R&D – Research and Development

RAI – Restaurants Association of Ireland

RMSEA - Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

SHR - Hotel and Restaurant Employers' Association

SIPTU – Services Industrial Professional Trade Union

SOLAS - An tSeirbhís Oideachais Leanúnaigh agus Scileanna (Further Education and Training Authority)

TU – Trade Union

TY – Transition Year

VFI – Vintners Federation of Ireland

VI - Vigour

VoC – Varieties of Capitalism

WERS – Workplace Employment Relations Survey

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION AND CONTRIBUTION

(i) Introduction

From customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and indeed a country's image for tourists, the importance of high-end front-line hospitality (HFLH) is well documented (Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). HFLH employees are faced with considerable skill and emotional demands, as they provide a customised, flexible and authentic offering within 'high-end' or 'luxury' hospitality service. Despite this, HFLH employees are often faced with low control, low wages, low skill perception and little scope for personal development in a competitive, high-pressure, 'high-end' sector which continues to grow globally (Lane, 2014; Chen and Peng, 2014). A greater understanding of this type of 'customer facing' work is required within hotels, restaurants, cafes and bars to capture these demands, and potential management and policy implications.

This 'introductory' chapter begins by considering the importance of HFLH as an economically strategic sector, particularly for tourism. It then describes the research focus, which is the HFLH in more detail, by providing the rationale and contextual outline for this research. HFLH is an atypical sector, with complex and demanding characteristics. In examining this sector, this thesis examines the HFLH service offering, with its high-level of emotional demands, low-skill perception, flexibility demands, all while delivering a customised service offering.

This chapter describes the motivation for this thesis in five main points. Firstly, in examining the HFLH employment relationship, this research contributes important sectoral knowledge to comparative employment relations. The 'sector' has often been ignored within comparative employee and industrial relations research. This is particularly important due to the atypical nature of this sector and provides insight into how this sector differs from the more usually studied manufacturing and services work. Secondly, it contributes important '*connective tissue'* between the two theoretical frameworks used in its analysis of the HFLH sector: the macro-institutional framework of Varieties of Capitalism (VoC) and the micro-level processes of Labour Process (LP) perspective. Thirdly, it contributes to the

theoretical lacuna regarding specific and general skill learning systems as potential antecedents to HFLH work engagement and employee retention. Fourthly, it identifies new innovative forms of skill formation and voice mechanisms that are particular to HFLH. The fifth motivation for this thesis relates to its contribution to literature, in that it considers individual and collective voice mechanisms as potential antecedents to HFLH work engagement and employee retention.

Following this, the chapter summarises the research methodology, in particular the mixed methods used to answer these research questions. A chapter structure is then provided to conclude the chapter.

(ii) Importance of Front-line Hospitality Work

Globally, it is estimated that tourism generates around, 10% of the world's GDP, one out of every eleven jobs, and 7% of the world's exports (UNWTO, 2016). Hospitality provides the basis for tourism, with its provision of services and the consumption of leisure. In dealing directly with the customer, HFLH interactions shapes multiple perceptions (Wong Chak Keung, 2000). Over the past six decades, the continued expansion and diversification of tourism into *'one of the largest economic sectors in the world',* and one where competition outside Europe and North America, has considerable implications (UNWTO, 2016).

There is no doubting the importance of the food services and accommodation sector within the EU, contributing over €213 billion of value added to the EU-28 in 2013 and an average of 4.6% in employment rate across countries. In Ireland, the sector directly employs almost 160,000 people, which is almost 8% of economy-wide employment (SOLAS, 2015). Hospitality is comprised primarily of small and medium organisations, where over 80% employ less than 10 people (SOLAS, 2015). Characterised by seasonal fluctuations, the hospitality industry provides flexible employment opportunities, particularly through part-time work. Over a third of those employed by the hospitality industry in Ireland comprise customer facing or FLH workers. Despite this, and its importance to the tourism industry: HFLH work remains particularly precarious across many countries - lacking career paths,

progression opportunities, and adequate wages - and is viewed by many in society as a low skill profession.

The nature of the industry has also changed with electronic word of mouth (EWOM), which includes bloggers, social media and reviewers such as TripAdvisor and Yelp. In addition to such competitive pressures, other pressures such as rent, rates, food and labour costs are part of the transformational shift of hospitality *"from artistic craft to big business"* (Lane, 2014). Opportunities remain to build competitive advantage from a unique culture in front-line services. This may be possible through fostering career development, skill recognition, organisational identification, authentic service encounters, and meaningful roles for employees. However, such opportunities are being thwarted by the cost-reducing pressures, pointing HFLH towards a more efficiency-based, low-skill sector, where HFLH employees remain an easily replaceable resource.

Organisationally, HFLH employees represent and shape their company's culture, values and perception in the daily performativity of their role (Nickson, 2013). Furthermore, they are responsible for managing and maintaining important client relationships (Batt, 2000). This includes preserving repeat business to minimise the clients switching to competing organisations (Han et al., 2011). This involves maintaining a high quality service and dealing effectively with complaints and situations. In addition to the maintenance of such relationships, HFLH employees also conduct the service interaction. Here, they can potentially add considerable value to the organisation from activities ranging from cross-selling to up-selling. This is often referred to as the 'ambidexterity' of service and sales (Jasmand et al., 2012) and is often linked with citizenship behaviour or going above and beyond one's role. This citizenship behaviour, extra-role behaviour and ambidexterity are organisational outcomes associated with engaged HFLH employees (Karatepe, 2013).

(iii) Research Focus

Despite the importance of HFLH, ranging from a hospitality organisation's provision of quality service to a country's delivery of a quality tourism offering, it remains a particularly precarious industry in which to work (Lashley and Morrison, 2000; Alberti, 2014). HFLH includes non-standard work time, a turnover culture, low skill perception, along with other alienating characteristics. Other precarious features include unpredictable demand, a customer focused culture, low wage, normative controls (Warhurst and Nickson, 2007) and high emotional demands, which may lead to lack of meaningfulness and erosion of identity (Sosteric, 1996; Curley and Royle, 2013).

Counteracting this, this thesis examines potential antecedents to two key drivers of performance (work engagement and employee retention). Following critical analysis, of the engagement construct, and its sector specific outcomes, Work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2006) is viewed as the most suitable proximal outcome for these HFLH employees. It is considered particularly appropriate for HFLH, with its links to customer service, ambidextrous service (up-selling) and in possibly helping to mitigate the stressful demands of HFLH work (Britt et al., 2001). The second key driver of performance is employee retention because of the turnover culture within HFLH. This culture results in associated recruitment, supervision, and knowledge-base erosion costs (Iverson and Deery, 1997; Dawson et al., 2011).

The Labour Process (LP) perspective, which is premised on control, is a lens for examining the micro-processes of employee relations. While core-LP theory (Braverman 1974) suggests total or absolute control, the more embracing 'second wave' literature (Burawoy, 1979; Edwards, 1979; Friedman, 1977) proposes autonomy for employees, albeit maintaining management's prerogative through '*responsible autonomy'*. Although originating within the 'manufacturing'-focused 1970s, LP is particularly useful in examining the complexities of the services sector. These complexities include the triangular relationship (employee, employer and client) of services and its understanding of dynamics and demands of emotional labour (Beal et al., 2013). It not only captures why these features of this sector of work may be alienating, it also explains its turnover culture through 'mobility-

power', which is an indeterminacy of the LP describing employees' ability to leave an organisation (Smith, 2006).

However, employee relations are strongly affected by national context (Rosenzweig and Nohria, 1994). LP requires an over-arching comparative capitalism framework to provide a basis for examining institutional differences shaping the employee relationship. This lacuna has been part of the discourse surrounding the 'disconnected capitalism thesis' (Thompson, 2003; 2013) and has led to calls for developing 'connective tissue' between LP and comparative political economy (Hauptmeier and Vidal, 2014). From the various comparative capitalism frameworks, Varieties of Capitalism (VoC) (Hall and Soskice, 2001), despite its criticism (e.g. Mayrhofer et al., 2011; Gooderham and Nordhaug, 2011), remains the dominant and most resilient of them all (Colvin and Darbishire, 2012); the 'revitalised' CME model of recent years has strengthened this argument (Wilkinson and Wood, 2017). VoC, which is based on rational choice theory, has provided durable logic through crises, institutional reforms and globalisation. The VoC framework proposes a developed economy dichotomy categorised into either Liberal Market Economies (LMEs) or Co-ordinated Market Economies (CMEs). LMEs co-ordinate their activities mainly through competitive market arrangements, while CMEs depend on non-market relationships to co-ordinate their activities (Hall and Soskice, 2001). VoC relies on differentiation based on institutional configurations that logically co-ordinate resources based on five spheres. These five spheres are, vocational training and education, industrial relations and wage and productivity, corporate governance, inter-firm relations, and employees (Hall and Soskice, 2001).

From the analysis of the connective strands between the LP perspective and the VoC framework, with reference to the distinct characteristics of HFLH work, two main areas of focus are chosen.

Firstly, the LP perspective involves the 'disassociation of the LP from the skills of employees', particularly evident in Braverman's (1974) example of reclassifications of occupations within the U.S. (LME example). This draws parallels with the HFLH industry, which is predominantly perceived as low skill. In addition to this, the 'deskilling thesis' within LP analysis involves the movement of control from employees to employer by means of technology, standardisation of procedures etc.

This resonates with the VoC's emphasis on skill learning systems (i.e. general skills versus specific skills) and provides a basis to examine these within HFLH.

Secondly, the LP perspective, ('second wave' analysis) proposes increased scope or responsible autonomy for employees. Employee voice is often described as a means of ensuring a balance between responsible autonomy and control (McCabe and Lewin, 1992; Colin and Antonis, 1998; Marks and Chillas, 2014). This research examines voice mechanisms providing this 'scope' or opportunity for such 'personal control' within the HFLH employment relationship. VoC is often used as a utility to assess voice (Brewster et al. 2007; Richbell et al. 2011; Tüselmann et al. 2015). The VoC dimensions of 'industrial relations and employees' provide the basis for voice to be analysed under the 'individual and collective' dichotomy of voice mechanisms (e.g. Brewster et al., 2007). This research seeks to understand how these voice mechanisms inform the HFLH employment relationship across different market economy institutional arrangements.

(iv) Rationale and Contribution

Despite the particular importance of work engagement for FL employees, there are limited studies in the area of frontline employees with regard to work engagement (e.g. Karatepe and Olugbade, 2009; Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2011) in their study of hospitality workers found perceptions of role benefit, job autonomy, and strategic attention were all significantly related to work engagement. Karatepe (2013) found that FLH appraisal of training, empowerment and rewards enhanced work engagement. The fundamental objective of generating work engagement in HFLH is that it develops benefits from demanding or stressful work (Britt et al., 2001). Furthermore, work engagement is positively related to organisational performance (Demerouti et al., 2001a). The below table (Table 1.1) provides a summary of both the theoretical lacunae and the contribution to literature that this thesis provides.

Table 1.1: Theoretical Lacuna and contribution to Literature

Theoretical Lacuna	Contribution to literature
Connective tissue called for by Thompson and Vincent (2010) and Hauptmeier and Vidal (2014) between the micro processes of the LP perspective and broader macro comparative political economy.	This research provides a conceptual model to contribute to such connective tissue by identifying **commonalities and parallels** such as: Dissociation of LP from worker skills and learning and responsible autonomy and scope as voice mechanisms.
Sector studies have been neglected in comparative employee and industrial relations due to a 'national' focus. This is despite most co-ordination taking place at sectoral level (Bechter et al. 2012).	This research builds a **sector-specific conceptual model** based on theoretical frameworks most suitable for **analysis** of HFLH with sector-suitable **outcomes** of work engagement and employee retention.
There is no research comparing differences in **skill system formation** (general and specific) and their influence on **work engagement**. HFLH among its characteristics suffers from a low skill perception from both public and management.	This research empirically examines whether **vocational training** may provide **work engagement** in HFLH compared with general skills. It does so with reference to LP dynamics and in particular the 'dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers' (Braverman 1974).
There are still relatively few studies concerning **voice and work engagement**. Rees et al. (2013) voice behaviour, trust and engagement across two organisations while Cheng et al. (2013) surveyed managers and subordinates in examining voice behaviour, leader-member exchange and engagement organisations in Taiwan.	This research considers **voice mechanisms** and work engagement. It also considers voice as 'mechanisms' congruent to 'scope' or 'responsible autonomy' necessary within the HFLH LP. The only cross-cultural study (Kwon et al., 2016) focused on a conceptual model for direct and indirect voice while calling for research regarding **collective voice** and **work engagement.**
From examining Brewster et al. (2007) voice mechanisms, there is a gap and indeed opportunity to explore **sector specific voice mechanisms and skill formation practices** appropriate for managers of 'high-end' hospitality organisations for managing their HFLH employees effectively.	This research identifies **new innovative voice mechanisms and skill formation practices** in 'high-end' hospitality organisations across different market contexts. These are identified through multi-stakeholder semi-structured interviews carried out with reference to the outcomes of **work engagement** and **employee retention.**

(v) Organisational Context

Sectoral

Within comparative capitalism, there have been studies (Rafiqui, 2010; Casper and Whitley, 2004) exploring regional differences within national typologies. However, there is a 'disconnect' between these national types and sectoral studies. Although sectoral differences within VoC's '*governance*' sphere with regard to regulation have been examined (Schröder and Voelzkow, 2016), other spheres have not been investigated with regard to sector. This thesis seeks to provide a greater sectoral understanding regarding voice mechanisms (industrial relations and employees) and skill learning systems (specific or general) across market economies. While VoC proposes differences in these spheres, based on national institutional arrangements, this thesis focuses on these distinctions more closely through its analysis of the economically important, yet atypical, sector: HFLH.

HFLH is an atypical form of work which includes precarious characteristics of non-standard work time, high emotional demands, low skill perception and 'triangular' employment relationship (e.g. Kirov and Ramioul, 2014; Vosko, 1997). Examining this employment relationship across different market economies, with their distinct institutional arrangements, allows for a better understanding the HFLH LP and how to foster much needed work engagement and employee retention.

National

This research compares Ireland and Sweden as examples of a LME and CME, respectively, in assessing the antecedents of HFLH work engagement and employee retention. Sweden is chosen, as it is frequently used as a comparative example of a typical CME (Gonzalez and Almond 2012). In addition, it is an example of high levels of vocational training, even among its Nordic neighbours, who have distinct specific skill learning systems. With regard to voice mechanisms, Sweden also provides a suitable example of collective voice due to its strong worker participation mechanisms and union presence. Ireland is chosen as the LME example, despite using public sector wage agreements for many years, which (following economic collapse) were criticised as not being embedded in the LME system (Regan 2012).

Ireland is also considered particularly suitable for displaying 'classic LME characteristics' (Hall and Soskice, 2001; Hamann and Kelly, 2008).

(vi) Research Questions and Hypotheses

The main research question, which is derived from using the theoretical framework proposed from the literature review to understand the HFLH employment relationship more closely, is:

What factors influence work engagement and employee retention in high-end front-line hospitality in Ireland and Sweden?

From this, the two supplementary research questions are as follows:

1. **How does a variety of voice mechanisms utilised in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**

   H1: The use of individual voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies

   H2: The use of collective voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies

   H3: The use of individual voice mechanisms has a greater influence on HFLH work engagement than the use of collective voice mechanisms across different market economies.

   H4: HFLH individual voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across market economies

   H5: HFLH collective voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across different market economies

   H6: HFLH collective voice mechanisms have a greater influence on employee retention than individual voice mechanisms

2. **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**

   H7: HFLH employees with specific skills are more engaged than HFLH employees with general skills across different market economies.

   H8: HFLH work engagement is positively related to employee retention across different market economies.

   H9: HFLH employees with specific training are less likely to exercise their mobility power compared with HFLH employees with general skills.

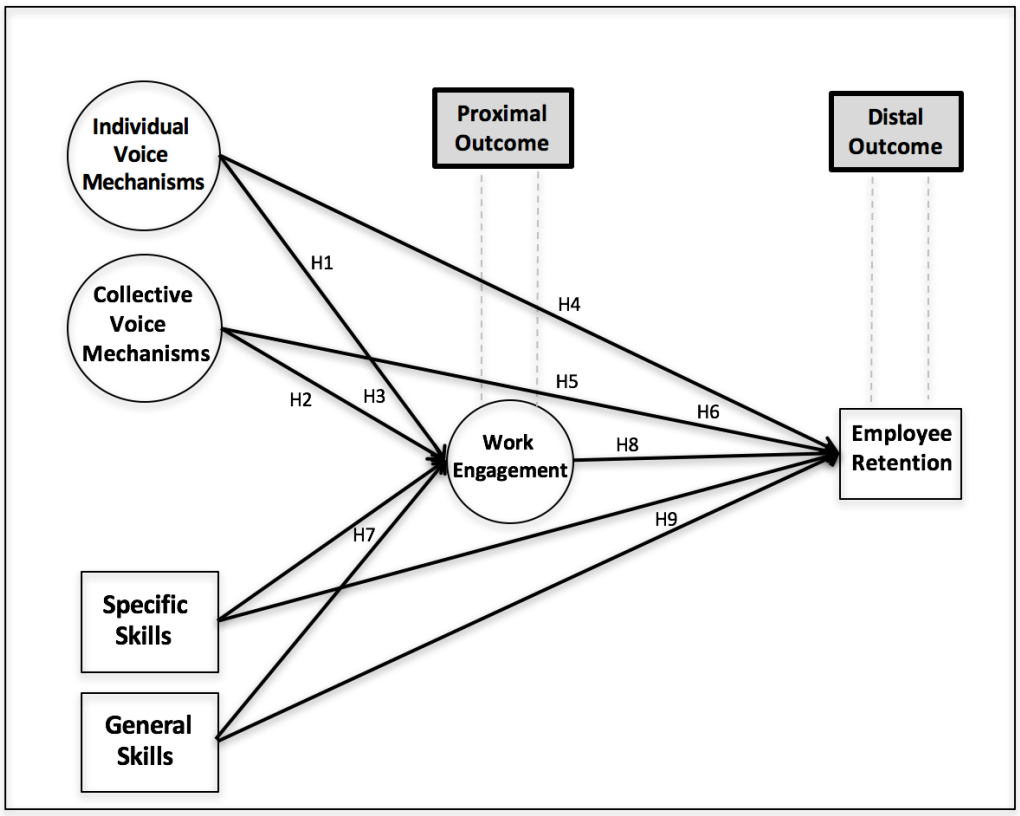


Figure 1.1: Examining voice mechanisms and skill learning systems as potential antecedents to work engagement and employee retention for HFLH employees.

Supplementary research question number one is addressed using both the literature review and the quantitative and qualitative methodology undertaken across the required market economy examples. The Hypotheses (displayed in Figure 1.1) above help in addressing the second and third supplementary research question, while the final research question is addressed using the qualitative methodology of semi-structured interviews. This research methodology is outlined in more detail in the next section.

(vii) Research Methodology

This research broadly employs a post-positivist approach. There is an awareness of potential bias, which it seeks to minimise as much as possible. This quantitative methodology involves questionnaires being distributed to HFLH employees across Ireland and Sweden, to identify skill learning systems and measure voice mechanisms and work engagement. Following this (using sequential explanatory design), the research employs an interpretivist methodology, which involves the use of semi-structured interviews to understand the dynamics of the HFLH employment relationship more closely.

This research samples the 'high-end' category of hospitality organisations, where both flexibility (in addition to efficiency) and emotional labour demands are found. This is illustrated by its comparison with the 'fast-food' service offering, with its standardised product, efficiency focused and limited more scripted response towards the customer (Seymour, 2000; Levitt, 1972). Hypotheses are proposed based on existing theory and are then tested by sampling a population of HFLH as representative of as much of the national population as possible. While convenience sampling was employed in the data collection (due to the difficulty in gaining access where sensitive information of turnover information is required) geographic, organisational size and ownership stratification were also employed.

The research methodology was undertaken in three stages. Firstly, employee retention was established by asking HFLH managers in the 50 organisations for data on employee turnover over the preceding year. Secondly, questionnaires were distributed to these 50 HFLH organisations to measure work engagement, individual and collective measures for voice mechanisms, and the training type (Specific or General). This resulted in a sample (n=272) of HFLH respondents (fully completed), comprising an 85% response rate across both the LME context (Ireland) and CME context (Sweden). This research then used Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to establish how employee voice mechanisms and skill learning systems influence the key performance drivers of work engagement (proximal outcome). It also investigated if this work engagement might act an antecedent to employee retention (distal outcome). Finally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with HFLH employees, HFLH managers and skill and collective voice institutions across Ireland

and Sweden. The findings were analysed using a combination of both manual coding and by using Nvivo software to analyse.

(viii) Literature Review Chapter Structure

This thesis consists of ten chapters, outlined below in Table 1.2

Table 1.2 Structure of Thesis	
Chapter One	Introduction and Contribution
Chapter Two	Literature Review I
Chapter Three	Literature Review II
Chapter Four	Research Methodology
Chapter Five	Initial Data Analysis, Descriptive Statistics and Model Fit
Chapter Six	Findings I Voice Mechanisms
Chapter Seven	Findings II Skill Learning Systems
Chapter Eight	Integration of Results
Chapter Nine	Discussion
Chapter Ten	Conclusion

Chapter two begins by examining the atypical nature and scope of HFLH. These include non-standard work-time, high emotional labour demands and culture of customer and erosion of identity. From this analysis, the Labour Process (LP) perspective emerges as the most suitable framework to understand the precarious nature of HFLH. It also encapsulates the emotional labour process and triangular relationship within the services industry.

Chapter two then turns to a weakness of LP analysis, namely the need to connect it to comparative political economy. When the core LP theory emerged in the 1970s, it remained reminiscent of its originating countries, Anglo-Saxon manufacturing, for many years. Thompson and Smith (2010) and Hauptmeier and Vidal (2014) have called for LP to be connected to the comparative political economy. This will provide a structure for the quite fragmented LP theory, often described in waves. Following a critical analysis of VoC, it is concluded as being appropriate for the macro-level analysis of this study. The chapter then examines possible synergies and parallels that may allow the LP perspective to encompass distinct national typologies of HFLH. This connection of theoretical frameworks is also synergistic: VoC benefits from using LP as a lens, extending it towards micro processes of the HFLH employee relationship. In reviewing the LP perspective, two main areas are chosen due to their

parallels with VoC theory. These are skill learning systems and employee voice mechanisms.

Following from chapter two, and the review of alienating characteristics within HFLH, **Chapter three** proposes work engagement, to counteract this alienation. The chapter follows with a review of engagement, its definition, constructs, and importance for HFLH. Chapter three develops the variables: skill learning systems and voice mechanisms from chapter one and examines these both as possible antecedents to work engagement (proximal outcome). Chapter three also builds on the 'mobility-power' and the high HFLH turnover, intrinsic to HFLH, in suggesting employee retention as a second key performance indicator (distal outcome). To this end, the chapter concludes by investigating voice, skill learning systems and HFLH work engagement, which may act as antecedents to the distal outcome of employee retention.

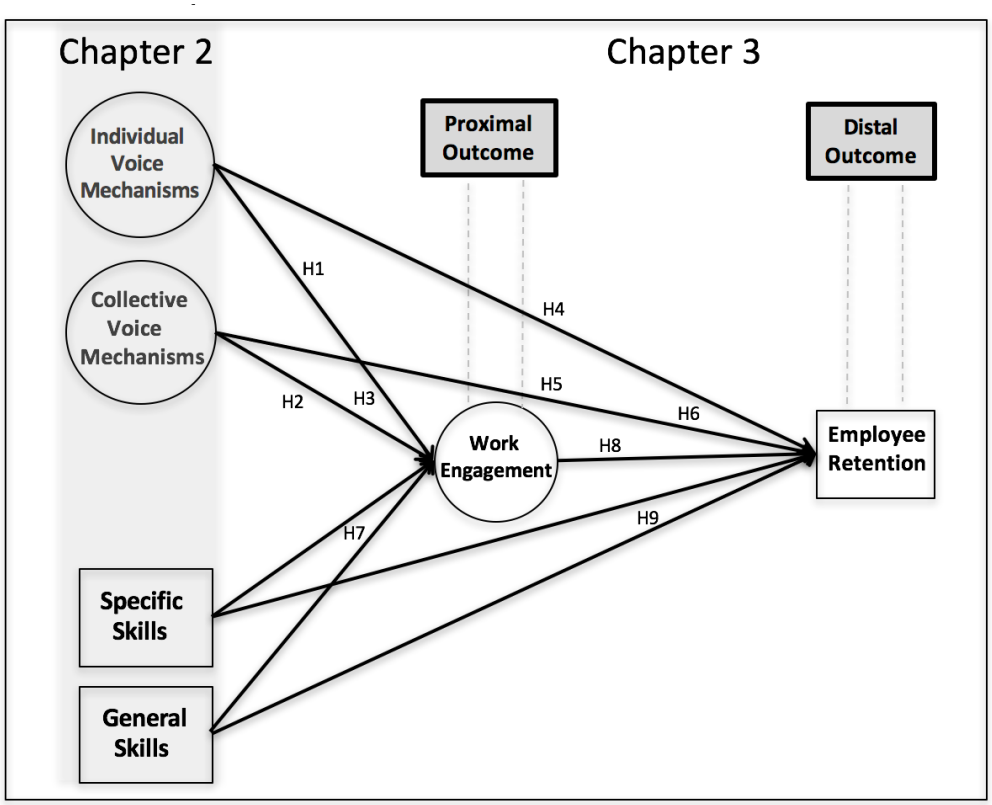


Figure 1.2 Literature Review Chapter Structure – HFLH Work Engagement

Chapter Four outlines the research methodology that will be used to address the main research question of the thesis, its supplementary research questions, and

Hypotheses used to help answer these. In doing so, it will outline the main philosophical perspectives and describe why a post-positivist / interpretivist approach is possible using a mixed methods methodology to address the research questions.

Chapter Five begins the data analysis by providing descriptive statistics of the samples, examining how representative they are of national HFLH populations across Ireland and Sweden. It examines similarities and differences across both countries. It then examines model fit and begins the SEM analysis.

Chapter Six and Chapter Seven address the findings relating to the respective parts of each research questions regarding voice mechanisms and skill learning systems. In each chapter, these are investigated as potential antecedents to work engagement and employee retention. These research findings are presented in a similar structure. Firstly, the voice mechanism and skill system landscape are examined in a comparative manner. Then, each chapter uses SEM analysis to test the Hypotheses relating to their respective research question. Finally, a qualitative analysis, furthering the understanding of the quantitative results and addressing the final research question, is then presented.

Chapter Eight then integrates the results from the previous three chapters, along with the literature review, to address each research question in turn.

Chapter Nine provides a discussion of the results, with regard to the respective literature and how these might impact theoretical frameworks and understanding.

Chapter Ten provides the conclusion.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW I – THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK INFORMING THE HIGH-END FRONT-LINE HOSPITALITY EMPLOYMENT RELATIONSHIP

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is the first of two parts of the literature review. It begins by critically analysing the unique characteristics of HFLH. In doing so, it considers LP analysis as the most suitable lens for understanding the complexities and demands of such a unique sector. LP analysis is particularly suitable in understanding these different service offerings and the various emotional labour, customer and management control demands. It is also capable of encompassing the high employee turnover issue, pertinent to HFLH (mobility-power indeterminacy). From this, the LP perspective is identified as the most suitable lens to view the employment relationship. Following this, the chapter identifies the need to extend LP analysis towards the macro-analysis capabilities of comparative political economy. The chapter then provides a critical review of existing comparative capitalism frameworks. From this, Varieties of Capitalism is identified as the most suitable comparative institutional theoretical framework to inform the macro-level analysis shaping the HFLH employment relationship. The chapter then turns to identifying connective tissue between the LP perspective and that of the VoC framework.

Through critical analysis of the development of the LP perspective, the central areas of 'direct control and responsible autonomy' and 'deskilling and skill dissociation' are discussed, along with their related VoC spheres of analysis. From this, connections are identified between VoC spheres and the main tenets of the LP. **Skill Learning Systems** are chosen due to their parallels with the LP's dissociation from skills from employees and the general/specific skill dichotomy proposed as one of the five VoC spheres. **Voice Mechanisms** are chosen due to their parallels with the LP perspective's 'responsible autonomy' and VoC as a utility to assess voice across an individual/ collective dichotomy. This chapter seeks to use the LP/VoC synergy as follows: Firstly, it seeks to use VoC as a means to understand LP control differences (from direct control to responsible autonomy). Secondly, it seeks to

extend the VoC spheres of employees and industrial relations beyond their co-ordination differences.

2.2 Labour Process perspective as a suitable lens for informing the HFLH employment relationship

Service Work differs from manufacturing work in the areas of intangibility, perishability, variability and inseparability (Korczynski, 2002). Historically, the primary focus of management and sociological literature was manufacturing, with service sector analysis attracting very little attention before the 1990s (Herzenberg and Wial, 2000). Since then, there has been a significant effort to catch up, with the main focus on expanding and developing the early theoretical mentions of the service sector (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2013). One theoretical framework, despite its manufacturing based origins, encompasses and understands many of the unique characteristics of the service sector: The Labour Process Perspective.

The Labour Process (LP) is concerned with how humans can transform nature into use-values through valorisation, which is the process where surplus value is added through value-creating labour in the production process (Marx, 1887). Harry Braverman's (1974) work renewed many of the aspects of Marxist LP ideas and is seen as a movement from the Marx's 'exploitation of workers' to the 'control of workers' (Thompson, 2007). Drawing on Goodrich (1920), LP theory reintroduced the control issue for management (Jocoy, 2003). In particular, the focus was on the movement of control from workers to management, primarily by way of job fragmentation, deskilling (Taylor, 1911), and technology. Whilst the original or core LP is referred to as LP 'theory', the LP 'perspective' encompasses its development through it subsequent 'waves' of literature (Thompson and Smith, 2010).

Services are comprised of particularly unique characteristics, including the 'triangular' employment relationship (of managers, workers and clients) creating tension and complexity in how the control is managed within the LP (e.g. Kirov and Ramioul, 2014; Vosko, 1997). Also, services sees production and consumption occurring closely or simultaneously (Hill, 1977). The LP perspective is seen as (Bolton and Houlihan, 2005, 691) particularly appropriate for the service industry, as the customer is 'intimately involved' in the LP and, therefore, the politics of production. Frontline hospitality (HFLH), within services, describes employees who

deal directly with the customer (often called customer-facing roles). It has its own unique features, in addition to those of services. The LP perspective also captures the alienating characteristics associated with HFLH and the degradation of work within the sector. HFLH is recognised as a demanding industry and this is reflected in the turnover levels. There are multiple factors exacerbating this precariousness or alienating characteristics. Through explaining the primary features of the HFLH, the next section seeks to demonstrate how the LP theory can understand its wide range of complexities. These include non-standard work times, erosion of identity and the sovereign-like culture of the customer. The first of these, non-standard worktime, has implications for work-life balance and often results in HFLH employees working when everyone else is off.

2.2.1 Non-standard Work Times

One of the main features of HFLH is non-standard work time and the prominence of shift working. Shift working has been described as a way of organising the daily working hours, in which different employees or teams work in succession to cover more than the traditional eight hour day (Costa, 2003). It has been estimated that up to 20% of European Union (EU) workers are involved in shift work, which includes night work (Boisard et al., 2002). This feature of HFLH includes rotating, permanent and split shifts (Wilson et al., 2007). Richbell et al. (2011) did not find significant differences between LME and CME non-standard work time but did note particularly high usage within the service sector across both contexts. In a study[1] on working time patterns across the EU, Anxo et al. (2013) found that employee preferences differ considerably depending on one's life course. The repercussions of repeatedly requesting days off or using policies to request scheduling preferences has been shown to involve reduced working hours or the allocation of undesirable shifts (Henly et al., 2006). While much of the work-life and recovery literature concerns the adoption of technology in creating a 24-hour working day (e.g. Ernst Kossek et al., 2010), the concern in the HFLH relates to unwinding or switching off after work (Kjeerheim et al., 1997). People working in intensive working conditions similar to

[1] Eurofound's fifth European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), based on interviews with more than 38,000 respondents in 34 countries.

HFLH with high emotional labour have more difficulties in unwinding, compared to people in less intensive conditions (Meijman et al., 1995).

Nurses working shifts of ten hours or longer were found to be up to two and a half times more likely to experience burnout and job dissatisfaction and leave the job, than nurses working shorter shifts (Stimpfel et al., 2012). Employees who work excessively and compulsively are more likely to experience work-to-family conflict and psychological distress, compared to more relaxed workers (Shimazu et al., 2011). Although recovery is assessed at day-level, it must be compared alongside the benefits of long-term strategies of vacations. There has been much debate regarding the effectiveness of vacations (e.g. Dolnicar et al., 2012) but it is generally noted that the positive effects of holidays or vacations quickly 'fade-out' and are 'limited', in general (Westman and Etzion, 2001; Westman and Eden, 1997).

The hospitality industry's high level of NSWT and high work demands results in considerable alienation, resulting in issues from sleep disturbances (eg. Åkerstedt et al., 2002) to alcoholism (Harford et al., 1992) which are both common in the industry. Many night porters, waiters, publicans, and receptionists find it difficult to 'unwind' or 'switch-off' following a shift and this impedes the recovery required for the next shift. Apart from the dangers of this industry and the prominence and health effects of alcohol consumption amongst HFLH employees (Harford et al., 1992), there are also high levels of insomnia, anxiety, and depression evident in this industry (Karatepe and Ehsani, 2012).

The next section explores another key feature of HFLH, namely erosion of identity and customer culture, which are interlinked.

2.2.2 Erosion of Identity and Customer Culture

The concept of control encompasses so many elements, from the design of organisations through structures (Mintzberg, 1983), through to identity-regulation as a form of control (Fineman and Sturdy, 1999; Alvesson and Willmott, 2002). The use of normative controls, which, instead of rules, regulations, reward, and punishment, the employee is controlled through alignment and identification with the organizational culture (Blau and Scott, 1962; Blau, 1955; Barley et al., 1988; Fleming and Sturdy, 2011). Identity is often the focus of organisational behaviour, where individuals develop both a distinctive personality and patterns of motivation

(Thompson and McHugh, 1990). Over the past two decades, qualitative case-study based LP research applied to HFLH has focused largely on identity (Sosteric, 1996; Curley and Royle, 2013). Such studies suggest that erosion of identity from acting is exacerbated by the culture of customer that exists within HFLH.

Both Knights and Willmott (1989) and Gay and Salaman (1992) highlight the 'cult(ure) of the customer' and the legitimacy that they provide in the service sector as the employee searches for meaningfulness and identity. Firstly, the focus of the profession often becomes centred on the sovereign customer, where the customer (from management's concern) overshadows employees. Secondly, as hospitality is associated with 'consumption as leisure' (Korczynski, 2002, 84), HFLH workers are subjected to watching the public enjoying themselves. This does not provide a realistic view of society on HFLH employees, making them feel inferior, where they perceive the rest of society to be enjoying themselves, all the time.

In addition to this normative control of customer culture and its potential erosion of identity through regulation of personality, further demands are exacerbated within HFLH. These relate to the modification and regulation of ones' emotions and these demands are also captured within LP analytics in the commodification of ones' emotions for a wage.

2.2.3 Demands of the Emotional Labour Process

Earlier LP literature had a strong focus on manufacturing (which is a reflection of the economic landscape of the period), however, the advent of the service economy led authors (Hochschild, 1983; Brook, 2009) to apply LP analysis to 'the selling (or commodification) of ones emotions for a wage' and the resulting alienation of worker. Grandey (2000, 97) defines this 'Emotional Labour' (EL) as 'the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organisational goals'. Hochschild (1983, 7) noted that EL necessitates one 'to induce or suppress feeling to sustain the outward countenance'. While 'labour power' is mentioned by Arlie Russell Hochschild in an earlier work (1979), it is not explicitly mentioned in *The Managed Heart* (1983). However, here, Hochschild (1983) describes EL as emotions being 'sold for a wage', implying a LP (creating surplus value). Hochschild (1979); (1983)

also describes the 'transmutation of feelings', leaving employees alienated from EL ('crippled actors').

Hochschild (1983) uses the imagery of the theatre to analyse performance in the service industry. This 'dramaturgical' imagery of an actor's 'emotional performance' (Kahn, 1990) is prominent in HFLH, where 'stirring' performances' (Kahn, 1990) lead to excellent customer service. Bolton (2005) believes that the central point of The Hochschild (1983) thesis is that the commodification of emotions alienates workers. This occurs through the "transmutation of feelings" within EL by applying Marx's alienation of labour (Brook, 2009, 19). This is confirmed in psychological literature, where surface acting is one of the most fatiguing and emotionally exhausting activities that a worker can perform (Beal et al., 2013). This is also consistent with survey perceptions (e.g. WERS98[2]) of 'very hard work' and with cognitive dissonance theory (1962; Festinger, 1954), where one feels tension (dissonance) when acting contrary to beliefs.

Managing emotions (Hochschild, 1983) involves either: 'surface acting', whereby 'one regulates the emotional expressions' or through 'deep acting' where one 'consciously modifies feelings in order to express the desired emotions' (Grandey, 2000, 96). Both deep acting (sincere display) and surface acting (cynical display) (Diefendorff et al., 2008) form the extreme emotional regulation prominent in U.S. HFLH tipping culture (Chi et al., 2011): "have a nice day". Viewed as 'normal' outside of the work environment, within the workplace, 'emotional regulation' is controlled by the LP (Jocoy, 2003; Curley and Royle, 2013). Hochschild also supports this view, with her theorisation of EL as 'sold for a wage' (1983, 7) and as an 'aspect of labour power' (1979). The high-end fine-dining or luxury service offering is not afforded protection provided by the fast-food sector (less autonomy) against the 'psychological costs' associated with high levels of EL (Seymour, 2000; Levitt, 1972). However, it must be noted that management initiatives to reduce the amount of EL may result in a loss of autonomy and, subsequently, identity (Curley and Royle, 2013). To understand the EL demands more closely, it is important to note that hospitality differs in its nature and it is necessary to review exactly which area of

[2] Workplace Employment Relation Survey 1998 (WERS98) – British Hospitality respondents (N=1,100)

hospitality at will be investigated. To do so, the LP is considered with regard to flexibility (often described as discretion) versus efficiency needs in HFLH.

2.2.4 Flexibility versus Efficiency

Managing the 'manufacturing' strategies of efficiency versus flexibility and the prominence of x-inefficiency is explained by Leibenstein (1966) as the difference in how a firm could potentially use its resources, versus how it actually utilises them. Although the labour resource is the most fundamental part of the service industry, Leibenstein (1966) notes most x-inefficiency losses arise from inadequate motivation. Expanding this from its manufacturing origins, Frei (2006) focus on 'breaking the trade-off between efficiency and service' and proposes creative 'accommodation strategies' for reducing 'customer variability'. Flexibility here is not to be confused with flexibility for employees in balancing their work and private life. It relates more to functional flexibility within the organisation. This '*customer variability*' is understood in five categories: arrival variability, request variability, capability variability, effort variability, and subjective preference variability (Frei, 2006, 3). Chen (2007) adds that an efficiency frontier is more achievable within the competitive service industry. This efficiency choice, suitable for fast-food type service (mass service), may align more with core LP's 'direct control' (Lashley (1998); Figure 2.1, below). Contrastingly, a 5-star hotel type service (mass service with high differentiation) necessitates more personal control, scope, and autonomy for employees to deal with variability, flexibility, and differentiation. This service offering is sometimes referred to as 'high-end' hospitality (Warhurst and Nickson, 2007) or 'luxury work' (Sieben and Haunschild, 2012) .

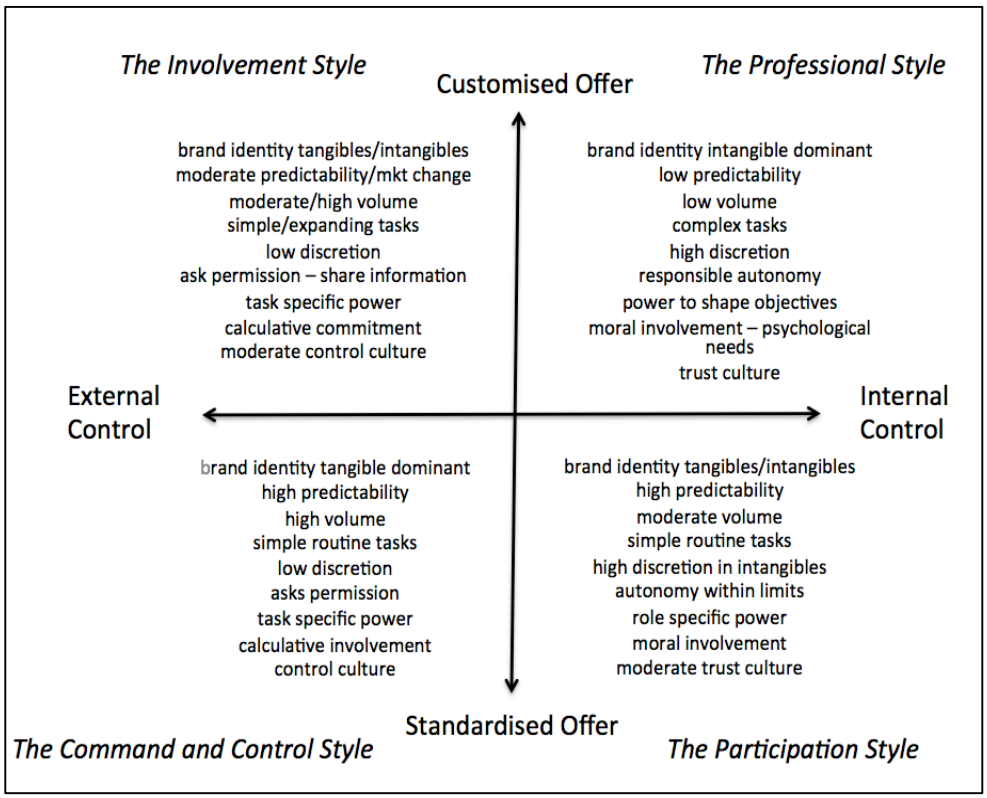


Figure 2.1: Approaches to the management of human resources in service organisations adapted from Lashley (1998)

Despite considerable differences between both the HFLH standardised offering and the flexible or customised offering, they do have a distinct characteristic in common. This relates to employee turnover culture or indeed a difficulty in retaining HFLH employees. Although this high turnover or movement between organisations might be viewed as experience gathering among HFLH employees, it may also indicate dissatisfaction or discontent.

2.2.5 HFLH Turnover Culture

The most pressing characteristic within the hospitality industry is its turnover culture (Iverson and Deery, 1997; Dawson et al., 2011). While most organisations find the retention of employees a significant challenge, voluntary employee turnover is often seen as an intrinsic part (Iverson and Deery, 1997) of the hospitality industry. Managers have even begun referring to it as 'circulation', where employees remain in the industry; in hospitality offerings with higher turnover (e.g. fast-food), management expect and prepare for constant turnover (Boella, 2000).

There is considerable research (e.g. Gustafson, 2002; Kao et al., 2014) focusing on this 'expensive issue' in the hospitality. Such expense encompasses recruiting, training and supervising new replacements (Hillmer et al., 2004). In addition to this, there is also the threat of erosion of the hospitality organisation's implicit knowledge base (Coff, 1997). Theoretically, the LP in more recent years (2015; Smith, 2006) provides explanatory pillars for this turnover culture within HFLH through its two indeterminacies.

2.2.6 'Mobility Power' Indeterminacy of the Labour Process

Fundamental to the LP perspective is the idea of indeterminacy of labour. This indeterminacy is two-fold: firstly, 'production indeterminacy' (or 'service indeterminacy') is described as work-effort. Secondly, 'indeterminacy' exists in the ability of an employee to leave the organisation, potentially in search of another similar organisation. Smith (2006) describes this as 'mobility-effort' or mobility power and notes differences in sectors, industries and forms of capitalism. Such power is mitigated by employers through the use of contracts and agency workers, thereby reducing the collective organisation of workers (Smith and Pun, 2006). This 'ability to leave an organisation', when exercised, is known as voluntary turnover (different from involuntary turnover: layoffs, dismissals, and redundancies etc.). Whether employees can exercise this mobility power to their advantage and provide suitable alternatives may well be an important determinant of this. Due to the precarious nature of HFLH, employees exercise this mobility power more often resulting in an average turnover rate of twice the average for the sector. It must also be noted that this power may be exercised for education, training or development reasons, increasing the market value of employees (Thompson and Smith, 2010). It must be reiterated that the LP perspectives of 'mobility-effort' or 'mobility power' indeterminacy are relatively recent (Smith 2006).

2.2.7 Conclusion on HFLH and it suitability of LP analysis

This concludes the analysis of distinct characteristics of HFLH and the suitability of LP analysis. From non-standard work times, erosion of identity, customer culture, emotional labour demands, flexibility demands, and turnover culture, each of these features add to the alienating nature of this LP. LP analysis encompasses the emotional labour process of HFLH. It also understands the turnover culture, which

is explained by the mobility power indeterminacy which is part of LP analysis. This thesis focuses on HFLH. Here, emotional demands, customisation, and alienating characteristics are exacerbated. This is supported further in the HFLH service offering framework of Lashley (1998), who provides an important summary of this 'HFLH employment relationship. This framework in figure 2.1 outlines this HFLH sector of low predictability. It describes the need for high levels of responsible autonomy and considerable discretion, along with a culture of trust and involvement.

Despite the suitability of LP in capturing the HFLH employment relationships through its understanding of micro and meso-level dynamics, LP falls short in capturing the macro-level forces that shape this employment relationship. Employee relations is strongly affected by national context (Rosenzweig and Nohria, 1994). Rubery (2010) suggests that 'institutionalising the employment relationship' help us to resolve crucial control and skill formation dilemmas. LP requires an over-arching comparative capitalism framework, providing a basis for examining institutional differences in shaping the employee relationship. This lacuna has been part of the discourse surrounding the 'disconnected capitalism thesis' (2013; Thompson, 2003) and has led to calls for developing 'connective tissue' between LP and comparative political economy (Hauptmeier and Vidal, 2014; Thompson and Vincent, 2010).

What follows this section relates to the identification and critical analysis of a suitable framework of comparative political economy. This will act as an overarching framework and provide the institutional understanding, often cited as a shortcoming of LP analysis. This next section firstly critically examines comparative capitalism and then identifies the most suitable framework to be used as a macro-framework for this thesis.

2.3 Comparative Capitalism – Identifying a suitable Macro-institutional umbrella for the LP perspective

Literature analysing the diversity in the modes of capitalism among industrialised economies is often referred to as 'comparative capitalism' (Jackson and Deeg, 2008). Jackson and Deeg (2008) consider three main approaches of comparative capitalism: Varieties of Capitalism (e.g. Hall and Soskice, 2001; Albert, 1991; 1993), the Social systems of Production (Hollingsworth and Boyer, 1997b), and National Business

Systems (Whitley, 1999). With 'Social Systems of Production', Hollingsworth and Boyer (1997b) focus on how national economies blend into related institutional arrangements. 'Business Systems', on the other hand, describe the 'distinctive configurations of economic organisation that contrast in their level and approach of authoritative co-ordination of economic activities' (Whitley, 1999, 33). Business Systems is something of a precursor and indeed was the first to use the term "Varieties of Capitalism" before Hall and Soskice (2001) (Whitley, 1999). Despite many similarities existing within these frameworks, their differences remain important; the most influential framework of the comparative capitalism literature is the work of Hall and Soskice (2001): Varieties of Capitalism (VoC).

The Business Systems framework (Whitley, 1999) does attempt to capture the employment relationship. However, in doing so, it constrains its ability to be integrated easily with other theories. Although it explains control systems across both organisational and institutional characteristics (Whitley, 1999), it falls short in its explanatory power, with regards to the employment relationship dynamics and the contested terrain encompassed by LP analysis. This may be a universal symptom of macro-institutional socio-economic models, in general, where focus often lies on the rules and formal processes, at the expense of capturing the daily dynamics of the employment relationship (Wood et al., 2014). VoC, in providing even less explanatory power of the micro-processes of the employment relationship allows itself more opportunity to integrate with theoretical frameworks. Although Business systems (Whitley, 1999) and VoC (Hall and Soskice, 2001) do indeed share many similarities, they differ in their presentation of each. Examples include the agreement on distinct legal structures across differing comparative capitalism. Differences occur in how they interpret the institutional interactions such as state regulation compared with an institutional element complementing its local spheres.

Thompson and Vincent (2010) argue that regulation theory (Lipietz, 1986) might indeed provide an 'obvious' contextual frame for the LP analysis, due to its similar conceptual language (e.g. 'regimes of accumulation'). However, they note that it provides a more 'totalising framework' that suffers from many exceptions and variations due to over-determination (Jessop, 1990; Thompson and Vincent, 2010). VoC is considered (Thompson and Vincent, 2010) as a less restrictive alternative, which may allow the LP to act as an antecedent structure while acknowledging the institutional influences that shape it in divergent ways across national contexts. It

has been argued (e.g. Thompson, 2010) that the 'rigid', 'core' LP Theory (Braverman, 1974) may not be flexible enough to be applied in its entirety to VoC. However, the LP 'perspective', which embraces 'responsible autonomy' and 'scope' from 'second wave' authors (Friedman, 1977; Edwards, 1979; Burawoy, 1979), enables it to understand (using a range of control) both the CME and LME models of capitalism. Second wave LP literature provides a spectrum of control to cover both models of capitalism. It is suggested that Braverman's core theory of 'direct control' 'fits' the LME form of capitalism more closely (Smith, 2015). Indeed, LP Theory shares many similar aspects to the LME national type. Examples of this include Chandler's (1990) work on the U.S. regime of capitalism, where he studied the separation of assets from managers and the multi-divisional organisational structures.

In summary, through critical analysis, VoC is identified as the most suitable macro-institutional framework for the LP perspective. The next section begins a thorough examination of VoC, its origins, framework, and critical analysis, before turning its attention towards potential synergies from using the LP perspective and VoC together.

2.3.1 Varieties of Capitalism

Drawing on existing CC literature (e.g. Crouch and Streeck, 1997; Hollingsworth and Boyer, 1997a), Hall and Soskice (2001) categorise developed market economies into two types. Firstly, Liberal Market Economies (LMEs) allow firms to arrange their activities through hierarchies and short-term competitive market arrangements. Contrastingly, Co-ordinated Market Economies (CMEs) concentrate more on non-market connections to co-ordinate their activities. Hall and Soskice (2001) identify LME countries as USA, UK, Canada, Australia, and Ireland. Contrastingly, they propose the CME examples of Japan, Sweden, Denmark, and Germany. CMEs are characterised by strong labour market institutions, and have highly organised governance within the firm. They are often referred to as stakeholder orientated or co-operative VoC, as opposed to the Anglo-Saxon shareholder-oriented (or shareholder-maximising) LME type (Dore, 2000; Hopner, 2005). CME's institutions and non-market mechanisms aim to lower uncertainty while increasing stakeholder commitment.

VoC describes how institutions are formed, not only by legal or common knowledge, but by knowledge assimilated by actors from both history and national culture (Hall and Soskice, 2001). Here, institutions are defined as 'sets of regularised practices with a rule-like quality' (Hall and Thelen, 2009, 9). VoC, builds on the existing concept of the political economy as actor-centred (e.g. Scharpf, 1997). This is where the political economy (terrain) of multiple actors all seek to progress their interests rationally through strategic interaction (Hall and Soskice, 2001). The firm is the main actor but all actors or institutions largely obey 'the rules of the game' (North, 1990, 3).

The VoC discourse may have had its roots in the early 1990s 'Rhinish versus Anglo-American' debate of Albert (1991); (1993). However, since 2001, VoC has become the dominant institutional approach in the study of comparative capitalism. Drawing on a range of literature (Streeck and Yamamura, 2001; Boyer, 2005; Crouch, 1993), it develops institutional theory to understand these 'developed' or 'market' economy differences. Comparative political economy analysis began in the early 1970s, with a focus on neo-corporatism (Schmitter, 1974), industrial relations (Dore, 1973), and collective bargaining and employment protection (Streeck, 1984). Maurice et al. (1980) in studying comparable manufacturing plants in West Germany, France, and the UK, found distinct 'organisational processes'. These were based on education, skills and human resource functions based on a 'society's institutional logic' (Maurice et al., 1980, 59). From developments in both political science and economics, emerged comparative institutional analysis: the rational choice alternate of neo-institutionalism, which directly influences organisational behaviour (Djelic, 2010).

2.3.2 Spheres within Varieties of Capitalism

VoC considers five spheres (industrial relations, vocational training and education: corporate governance: inter-firm relations: and employees). These relationships govern the degree to which a nation is co-ordinated or not. The different institutions across the five mentioned spheres are not isolated but interconnected, producing what Hall and Soskice (2001, 9) call 'institutional complementarity'. This is where the 'functionality of an institutional form is conditioned by other institutions' (Hopner, 2005, 331).

The next section outlines the five VoC spheres in more detail.

The first sphere, **corporate governance**, is differentiated based on the long-term (CME) stakeholder focus versus the short-term (LME) shareholder focus. CME firms rely on 'patient capital', which is possible through the networks of 'monitoring' (Vitols, 1997; Hall and Soskice, 2001). This is where investors maintain relationships with major suppliers and clients or cross shareholders as a monitoring mechanism regarding their financial arrangements. **Inter-firm relations,** on the other hand, include the comparison of collaborative (CME) versus competitive (LME) relationships, involving mainly suppliers and clients. The CME is seen to experience the advantages of stable supply and demand; the LME prefers a competitive relationship to avoid potential exploitation of knowledge by suppliers and clients (Hall and Soskice, 2001).

Within the sphere of **'employees'**, Hall and Soskice (2001) highlight co-ordination issues faced in each form of capitalism with regard to co-operation of employees to advance the firm. Within the **'industrial relations'** sphere, there are similar co-ordination issues, ranging from bargaining to working conditions. Within the 'conflict-based' LME context, the prevailing belief exists of unions as 'unnecessary and irrelevant' (Guest, 1987; Wood and Wall, 2007). This compares with the more 'collaborative' view of unions as an important co-ordinating institution of the CME context (Hall and Soskice, 2001). This is best exemplified in the study of trade union density in UK and France, where Coutrot (1998) found that in the UK (LME example), the likelihood of engaging in strike action was more dependent on union membership levels than the French (CME). Similarly, in other LME examples (Australia, UK, and New Zealand), managerial 'de-collectivisation' is often evident through the creation of fear, through casual contracts, redundancies and outsourcing (2005; Peetz, 2002). The **vocational training and education** sphere is characterised by the distinction: general education of LMEs compared with the specific training of CMEs. Interaction of the institutional spheres, such as the CME's high employment and employment protection, motivates both employees and firms to invest in education (Hall and Soskice, 2001). This stable employment stems from the reduced risk of employees being fired or the lower risk to the organisation of employee poaching (Hall and Soskice, 2001).

Following this analysis into the logic of VoC, the next section examines both its strengths and weaknesses through a critical analysis of the framework.

2.3.3 Critical Analysis of VoC

VoC is recognised as providing an 'important challenge' (Weiss, 2009) to the neoliberal homogenisation concept, a reminder that there is more than one sustainable form of 'capitalism'. Further to this, VoC provides a path dependant approach, emanating from a cultural, historical, political and strategic background, which leads to relatively fixed and stable systems (Samuel and Bacon, 2015). Nevertheless, the VoC 'parsimonious' categorisation on a 'national' basis (which may lead to comparative institutional advantage) has not been without criticism. The two main areas will now be examined.

Dynamic Nature

The dynamic nature of the VoC model is the source of considerable discourse. Some have suggested (e.g. Hancké et al., 2008) that the global crises has shown flaws in the VoC model. Others criticise the 'static' nature (Mayrhofer et al., 2011; Gooderham and Nordhaug, 2011) and path dependence of the VoC framework (Jackson and Deeg, 2008). This 'static' criticism, however, is cited as a shortcoming of most CC approaches (Storz et al., 2013). Despite this criticism, CMEs and LMEs have been shown to operate on distinct, durable logics and can endure the significant institutional pressures of globalisation and the shift towards services (Thelen, 2012). In further defence of this, VoC possesses the ability to recognise actor discretion in the strategic choices they make, while being constrained or supported by the institutional configuration (Colvin and Darbishire, 2012).

Do nations have more complex configurations?

Another area for debate is, firstly, the strength of the institutionally homogeneity in national categories. Authors often suggest more 'complex configurations' (Thelen, 2010, 50) in their criticism of VoC's simple 'twin peaks' (Peck and Theodore, 2007) approach of 'improbable combinations' (Herrigel, 2007, 481). An example of this is differences regarding local outcomes such as creative hubs within national systems (Rafiqui, 2010).

Secondly, the LME/CME categorisation itself has been questioned with some (Schmidt, 2003) proposing three capitalist economies. These include market capitalism (US, UK, and Ireland), managed capitalism, practiced by some central and northern Europe countries (e.g., Germany and Sweden), and a third 'state capitalism' (e.g. France and Italy). Potential fourth and fifth categories have also been suggested. These may include Asian capitalism (Witt and Redding, 2013), encompassing rapid institutional change (Storz et al., 2013), and former communist countries of LME Estonia (LME) and Slovenia (CME) (Feldmann, 2006). Despite these arguments, it is concluded that VoC distinguishes the different 'relatively stable' practices that can be analysed on a national, state, and institutional level (Smith, 2005).

2.3.4 Conclusion on Macro Institutional Context

Many of VoCs advocates highlight its strong theoretical pillars. While it puts employer interests (the firm) at the centre of analysis, it still provides an institutional focus that supports either market or strategic coordination among firms/actors' (Hall and Thelen, 2009, 11). Another strength is the VoC's ability to group detailed dimensions under 'functional' categories. For example, the 'vocational training and education' sphere contains 'specific' skills, which in turn encompass specific approaches of apprenticeship, vocational training, dualistic approaches etc. Despite this, an opportunity exists to potentially extend analysis of VoC spheres towards the dynamics of the employment relationship. This may be possible through the 'employee' and 'industrial relations' spheres, which are differentiated on the basis of how they institutionally handle 'co-ordination issues' (Hall and Soskice, 2001).

VoC has remained a CC tool for almost two decades and despite its critiques, it has maintained a strong defence against its criticisms. Firstly, the argument that VoC may be somewhat 'static' can be countered by VoC's ability to allow both strategic choices and actor discretion. Furthermore, its logic has proved durable and capable of enduring significant economic shifts (Thelen, 2012) and, if anything, in recent years the traditional model of the CME might have been be revitalised (Wilkinson and Wood, 2017). Secondly, criticisms proposing more complex configurations are counteracted through the argument that VoC already incorporates these within it lexicon (e.g. CME skill learning systems and the state through agencies and legal institutions). The third main criticism of VoC, as overstating coherence and being

'locked in' in nature, may indeed provide the opportunity to extend VoC towards the agency of employment relationship.

In conclusion, the need for a suitable framework to use with the LP perspective is critical. Employee relations is strongly affected by national context (Rosenzweig and Nohria, 1994). In addition to this, the primary concern is that the majority of employee relations theory (including core LP theory) in general is Anglo-Saxon (or LME) orientated (Budhwar and Sparrow, 2002). From a macro-institutional perspective, despite CC attempts to capture the employment relationship, it lacks the ability to capture the degree of autonomy afforded to employees and, consequently, limits employer control (Rubery, 2010, 505). It has also been suggested that while focusing on 'institutional determinism', VoC theory neglects underlying power struggles and social classes (Deeg and Jackson, 2007; Hancké et al., 2008). Furthermore, VoC, due to a manufacturing bias, cannot capture the existence of sizeable service sectors in the CME context (Blyth, 2003); previous sections have critically supported the use of VoC as a comparative political economy analysis for LP to be examined under different regimes of capitalism. The next section explains the top down suitability of LP as a lens for VoC, where both may inform the understanding of the HFLH employment relationship.

2.4 Synergy of LP and VoC frameworks

The employment relationship describes the connection between the employees and the organisation through which employees sell their labour to the employer. The LP provides this explanation of the HFLH micro processes of this connection whilst allowing it to consider different models of capitalism. This is achieved through the LP perspective's spectrum of control, where both institutional and employee relations practices can be assessed across different typologies of capitalism. Edwards (1990) notes that this may be the relative autonomy across different modes of capitalism. In addition to this, the LP captures the dynamics of the 'contested terrain' of employee relations, allowing it to understand both the individual and collective dimensions of different arrangements of capitalism. For the HFLH context, LP analysis also understands the complexities of the service industry (e.g. emotional labour and triangular relationship) (Taylor and Moore, 2015). Even though these frameworks originate from different backgrounds (namely political science and labour economics theory respectively), authors (e.g. Hauptmeier and Vidal, 2014;

Thompson and Vincent, 2010) support the use of both VoC and LP together. The basis for the 'VoC and LP synergy' lies in their ability to investigate how macro-level institutions significantly shape the employment relationship (Busemeyer and Jensen, 2012).

In summary, the LP perspective adds crucial micro-level analysis to VoC's macro- and meso-level institutions' (Hauptmeier and Vidal, 2014, 2). VoC/LP application is under researched, with few examples, including the McCann et al. (2010) study of mid-level managers, changing work roles, hours, and control. From reviewing the suitability of LP as a theoretical lens for VoC to examine employee relations, the next section reviews LP's appropriateness for the organisational context, namely, HFLH.

2.5 Responsible Autonomy and Scope

This movement of control from the worker to management was refined further in the 'second wave' of LP analysis in the late 1970s (Friedman, 1977; Edwards, 1979; Burawoy, 1979). From the 'direct control' associated with core LP theory, second wave literature, in the LP perspective, proposed 'responsible autonomy', where management transfers some work responsibility to employees and this results in increased loyalty and benefits. This was seen as a movement towards 'soft(er) controls' (Thompson and Hartley, 2007), thereby introducing consent and limited forms of workplace citizenship (Burawoy, 1979). Core LP theory was premised on the degradation of work involving deskilling and low discretion (Burchell et al., 1994). However, as LP literature developed there was an increased focus on the need for discretion due to its aim of satisfying management objectives (Jaques, 1967). Discretion is often defined as the 'prescriptive limits to task performance' (Burchell et al., 1994, 163). Establishing the amount of employee discretion required to fulfil a particular customer-service need allows managers to understand the 'best fit' between a service offering (See Figure 2.2) and the management of employees (Lashley, 1998). The next section seeks to examine Friedman's (1977) 'managerial strategy' for the LP; comparable to scope, discretion, personal control, it is known as 'responsible autonomy'.

Friedman (1977, 78) originally described 'responsible autonomy' as an attempt to give workers leeway and encouraging them to 'adapt to changing conditions' or as an alternative to the 'direct control' or 'absolute control' implied by Braverman

(1974). Others (Child, 1988; Thompson and McHugh, 1990) developed Friedman's ideas that argued that 'direct control' was more aligned to scientific management. Ramsay (1977) began to explore alternatives to direct control such as 'cycles of control' with regard to participation. However, Friedman's (1977) strategy of 'responsible autonomy' is considered a compromise for many of the contradictions within the LP. One of these contradictions for management to resolve is the need to control labour while, at the same time, obtaining its co-operation.

HFLH examples of responsible autonomy include the Sosteric (1996) case-study of a 'high-end' nightclub (in the LME context of Canada), where empowerment and responsible autonomy were replaced by direct control to generalise the service to a wider market. This shift involved deskilling, reducing the time spent with customers and direct monitoring, which was met with resistance from employees (who came close to organising a union) and, ultimately, resulted in increased turnover of staff, and customer alienation (Sosteric, 1996). They suggested that direct control is more suited to workers who are less skilled, less organised, and situated in competitive markets. In contrast to this 'responsible autonomy', is a better policy for well-organised, skilled workers and more suited to avoiding resistance. While management retain control of the organisation, employees are provided with a degree of power, leeway, participation, and responsibility in how they control their work tasks. However, this 'responsible autonomy' is also depicted as 'scope for voice under conditions appropriate for management' (Marks and Chillas, 2014). It has been suggested (e.g. Tangirala and Ramanujam, 2008) that this 'autonomy' be paralleled with 'personal control' or employee voice. Given that 'responsible autonomy' is criticised for not distinguishing between individual and collective control (e.g. unions), 'Voice Mechanisms' may provide a bridge to extend LP's 'responsible autonomy' to encompass individual/collective and the market/non-market co-ordinated contexts.

2.5.1 Voice Mechanisms

Voice mechanisms, viewed as 'scope' or 'responsible autonomy', aside from an extension of LP analysis away from a strategy of total control, also suitably aligns with VoC comparative analysis. Hall and Soskice (2001) note that VoC is an effective framework for assessing employee voice due to the contrasting 'voluntarist' nature of LME voice and the 'co-ordinated' nature of CME voice. VoC has often been used as

a utility to investigate voice and employee representation and participation. Existing employee voice studies across VoC include assessing individual / collective voice convergence (Brewster et al., 2007), multinational corporations (Tüselmann et al., 2015) and non-standard work time (Richbell et al., 2011). Similarly, within the VoC spheres, the previous sections identified possible opportunities for extension. Through the employee and industrial relations sphere of VoC, which revolve primarily around 'co-ordination issues' (Hall and Soskice, 2001), the opportunity exists to extend this 'co-ordination' towards individual and collective voice mechanisms.

2.5.2 Nature of Voice Mechanisms

Freeman and Medoff (1984) outlined the importance for both management and employees to have voice mechanisms within their workplace. Voice strategies are determined by factors including government regulation, managerial attitudes, employee expectations, union density and business pressures (Dundon et al., 2006). Apart from this, the provision of voice for employees as 'claimant' stakeholders is often viewed as an 'ethical duty', owed to them by the employer (Buren and Greenwood, 2008). Voice is seen as being mutually beneficial with regard to employers and employees (Kochan and Osterman, 1994). Despite this, Union membership is declining in many countries, led by the neo-classical assumptions that unions distort the market by inflating wages, threatening competitiveness, and exacerbating unemployment (Brewster et al., 2007; Freeman and Medoff, 1984).

Voice mechanisms describe the mechanisms allowing employees to 'have a say' in matters affecting them at work (Dundon et al., 2004). Initially, the concept of voice stemmed from the notion of employee dissatisfaction or the opportunity to improve their own or the organisation's wellbeing (Hirschman, 1970). Now, voice encompasses autonomy, input and self-expression (Budd, 2014). Regarding employee participation, voice differs in that it may not always provide a 'participatory' level of influence (see Figure 2.2) (Wilkinson et al., 2013). Whilst this is important in terms of the depth and extent of voice, the absolute worker 'control' may be more appropriately framed as 'responsible autonomy', whereby scope through voice mechanisms is provided in terms of conditions appropriate to management (Marks and Chillas, 2014).

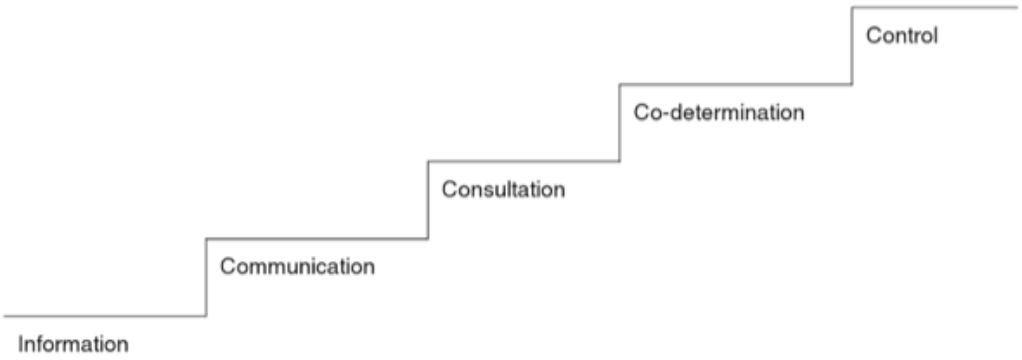


Figure 2.2: The escalator of participation adapted from Wilkinson et al. (2013)

Regarding the nature of voice, it is often important to consider the differences that exist between positive and negative voice. Positive voice is voice expressing change-orientated ideas, opinions and suggestions and is intended to improve the situation at work (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). Voice is one of the responses listed in the exit, voice, loyalty and neglect (ELVN) typology (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970). This typology views both 'considerate' voice and an 'aggressive' voice as a response to dissatisfaction. Considerate voice consists of 'focuses on both the employee and organisational concerns', while aggressive voice consists of employee efforts to win, without organisational consideration (Hagedoorn et al., 1999, 309).

2.5.3 Voice as Equity and Fairness

Industrial Relations champions the *equity* aspect of voice and also its moral imperative which relates to human dignity and rights (Budd, 2004; Meltz, 1989). Central to this *equity* movement is the procedural justice literature (Thibaut and Walker, 1975; Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Cropanzano et al., 2001; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992). However, the distinction between the concepts of *procedural* and *distributive* justice is often defined through a collective bargaining or 'employee compensation' lens (e.g. Greenberg and Tyler, 1987; Folger and Konovsky, 1989) However, a more universal definition of this *procedural/distributive* distinction is captured by Budd (2004, 14) as the "fairness of the process" versus the "fairness of the outcomes". With regard to procedural justice research, the presence of voice has generally been found to lead to greater fairness judgements where no voice exists (Lind et al., 1990). Van den Bos et al. (1996), through a series of experiments, found

subjects expecting voice or who expected no voice judged receiving the voice procedure as more fair than receiving the no-voice procedure. Budd (2004, 2) proposes replacing the equity efficiency dyad with a triad of efficiency, equity, and voice, where employment has a human face: 'a productive and efficient employment relationship that also fulfils the standards of human rights'. The potential of voice is considered as a means of fairness, equity and justice, significant within precarious HFLH.

2.5.4 Voice Mechanisms and HFLH

Although management are often reluctant to promote voice in high-turnover industries such as hospitality (Marchington, 2007), when they do, it is often just a channel for customer voice, rather than voice of the employees (Korczynski, 2002). The structure of the control process within HFLH differs from the traditional (manufacturing) control process because the customer plays a central part. This process, which utilises the customer as a means of control, has intensified in recent years due to new technological mechanisms. Online outlets such as Yelp and TripAdvisor and social media, where the customers can directly inform management of their experience, bypass employee views and opinions and are widespread. Word of mouth (WOM) (Arndt, 1967) has been supplemented and often replaced by electronic word of mouth (EWOM) or 'user-generated content' (Baka, 2016). It must be noted that questions remain over the validity and reliability of such mechanisms (Ayeh et al., 2013) and the presence of 'distrustful and untruthful tourists' (Del Chiappa et al., 2015). While standardisation and tight control is ubiquitous in hospitality, mass service leans particularly towards efficiency and cost-reducing strategies. High-end organisations, on the other hand, are more concerned with just standardisation and the process of both retaining quality awards, repeat business, and avoiding the 'reputational' damage (Baka, 2016) potential of EWOM mechanisms. HFLH necessitates voice mechanisms to allow an opportunity to moderate this form of control.

2.5.5 Conclusion on Voice Mechanisms

From both LP and VoC analysis of the HFLH sector, voice mechanisms may provide a form of scope, personal control and, indeed, autonomy in the LP. This is paralleled with VoC, which is often used as a utility to assess voice under the spheres of

industrial relations and employees. This section considers the atypical control structure which voice must navigate within HFLH. Voice mechanisms may manifest themselves as mere channels for control by the sovereign customer. However, given the upsurge in technological changes (e.g. EWOM) in HFLH, voice may importantly provide much needed moderation in times where such control may be distrustful, providing much needed equity, fairness and justice for precarious HFLH employees (Budd, 2004; Meltz, 1989).

The next section continues with the analysis of the employment relationship from the basis of the LP in the discussion of another key area, which is the dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers.

2.6 Dissociation of the LP from the Skills of the Workers

In developing the LP theory, Braverman focused on the 'shop floor' employment relationship instead of the more macro 'capital accumulation' laws developed by others (e.g. Baran and Sweezy, 1966). Here, he identifies three particular principles from Taylorism. These include: 'the separation of conception from execution' (Braverman, 1974, 114) and 'the use of monopoly over knowledge to control each step of the LP and its mode of execution' (Braverman, 1974, 119).

A third principle of Taylorism which the LP focused on was 'the dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers' (Braverman, 1974, 113). While much of Taylor's work until 1911 took place in either non-union or weakly unionised manufacturing plants, after this, his negative attitude and hostile relationship was evident (Jacoby, 1983). Despite the widespread focus on the manufacturing arena, Braverman (1974, 257) illustrated this 'dissociation of skill' of the service sector using an example of restaurants and food retail organisations struggling with the shortage and high price of skilled help; 'Grocery clerk, fruiterer and vegetable dealers, dairymen, butchers were replaced with checkout clerks, meat wrappers and meat cutters' (Braverman, 1974, 257). LME hospitality provides examples of this with 'Babbage principle' of 'runners' 'pot-wash' etc. compared with the 'maître d'hôtel' and 'waiter' being more prominent in the CME context. Braverman (1974) refers to the 'up-skilling' of nations through the reclassification of terminology with regard to categories (from 'unskilled' to 'semiskilled').

The next section explores the idea that VoC provides a means of using these LP ideas across different institutional arrangements. Even thouth VoC provides a general/specific dichotomy for assessing skill, whether the sector of HFLH follows the VoC 'rules of the game' is questionable.

2.6.1 Skill Learning Systems

While the idea of 'skill' is ambiguous (More, 1982), qualifications have remained only as a general proxy for skill (Steiger, 1993). Others note qualifications as an indicator of trainability. The allocation/selection role of education (Davis and Moore, 1945; Parsons, 1959) has focused particularly on the matching of workers on the basis of their talents, abilities and suitability. Both the development and the certifying of skill provides a sense of accomplishment, meaningfulness achievement, necessary for esteem and fulfilment needs (Maslow et al., 1970; Maslow, 1958; Maslow, 1943). The vocational training qualification is also an important indicator of 'trainability' or the ease at which an individual can acquire new skills. This is a factor of job competition theory, where higher education is a screen (Arrow, 1973).

Despite being a sphere of comparison in VoC, skills have been a source of comparison for comparative political economy for decades. While skills influence job-design, power, discretion and autonomy with regard to work processes it can also influence firm, industrial and national competitively (Turner, 1962). CC literature focuses on skill from early years and the VoC LME/CME distinction was evident in research carried out by Roland Dore (1973); for example, focused on comparing British and Japanese factories. Dore (1973) questioned the state's intervention in providing a skilled workforce in Japan and how the British relied on the labour market to pressure employees to up-skill for their own benefit.

2.6.2 Skill Specificity

VoC theory posits that LMEs promote 'general skills' while CMEs provide 'specific skills' (Hall and Soskice, 2001). This emanates from the concept of asset specificity, where the productivity of an asset depends on the context where it is used. Drawing on the work of Coase (1937), which questioned the efficiency of the exchange of labour power, Williamson (1971) identified 'asset specificity' as a source of 'transaction costs'. Despite highlighting the importance of 'portability of skills' in

VoC's dimensions, Busemeyer (2009) argues against applying Becker's (1964) definition of portability of skills, as it contains comparisons with productivity. Another important issue is education mismatch. This is often explained as an employee either having more qualifications than is required for a position or less education than is required for a position (Hartog and Oosterbeek, 1988; Sicherman, 1991; Duncan and Hoffman, 1981). The area has often been criticised for ignoring the education that is acquired while working 'on the job' (McGuinness, 2006).

2.6.3 Skill Learning Systems and HFLH

Thelen's (2012) argument is that HFLH is more suited to 'general' communication and social skills, compared to the specific 'high-end' skills of software engineering. She notes that while labour mobility may help high-skill positions realise their true marginal product, she adds that 'low-skill' hospitality positions may benefit more from high quality school systems than apprenticeship training, instilling strong communication and social skills (Thelen, 2012). This is reflected in the changes within LME higher education such as 'modularisation' and the increased use of distance learning and the convergence between universities and polytechnics/technical colleges (Lawson et al., 2009). Despite the efforts of LMEs to develop similar institutions to those embedded in CMEs, there is research that points to the overall merits of more general based skills system. Firstly, it has been shown that 'general' cognitive ability predicts performance in all jobs, compared with 'specific' cognitive ability (Hunter, 1986). These factors (driven by the market forces) have resulted in the increased 'general' training of LMEs such as the USA, UK, and Ireland. Secondly, research (Kampkötter and Marggraf, 2015) has shown that intra-firm general training predicted turnover rates, particularly among employees with low tenure. Thirdly, management roles are essentially 'general' with regard to skills (Barker, 2010). This has implications for progression and promotional aspirations for HFLH employees.

2.6.4 Conclusion on Skill Learning Systems

From the LP perspectives on Taylorism's three principles of skill separation, monopoly knowledge, and skill dissociation, there are clear parallels evident with VoC and its skill logic. Its proposition of skills as either 'general' within the LME context or 'specific' within the CME context provides the basis for an important area

of analysis of employment relationship within the sector of HFLH. The argument continues (Thelen, 2012; Barker, 2010) with regard to the most suitable skill system for FLH, while institutional configuration differences remain across market economies, in terms of FLH skill provision.

This concludes this section on critically developing 'connective tissue' in using both LP analysis, along with VoC logic, to understand the HFLH employment relationship. From understanding the atypical and particularly alienating characteristics of HFLH, the focus on 'high-end' exacerbates many of these demands. LP analysis of HFLH identifies the need for 'responsible autonomy'. This 'scope', is assessed as voice mechanisms using VoC's sphere of 'industrial relations and employees' as a utility to assess voice across institutional configurations under individual and collective dimensions. Similarly, from the HFLH sector analysis, deskilling from technology, and dissociation of the skills of the worker from the LP is assessed alongside VoC's dichotomy based on skill specificity. Such skill learning systems are proposed as a second sector-appropriate area for analysing the HFLH employment.

2.7 Critical Analysis of VoC country examples to be used to assess Voice Mechanisms and Skill Learning Systems

Hall and Soskice (2001) propose that, within CMEs such as Japan, Sweden and Germany, and LMEs such as Ireland, USA and the UK, while differences exist, many of these differences have been well documented and have provided interesting insights (Feldmann, 2006; Schmidt, 2003). VoC literature suggests a contrast between CMEs, which have a greater level of regulation, and institutionalisation of management activities, and LMEs, with lesser levels of regulation (Hall and Soskice 2001). In general, the range of management practices available to firms is much more controlled in CMEs than in LMEs (Farndale et al., 2008). The justification for choosing the VoC examples of Sweden and Ireland will now be explained.

Rationale for choosing Sweden and Ireland as CME and LME examples

This research compares Ireland and Sweden to encompass both the individual and collective voice mechanisms and specific and general skills systems as potential antecedents to HFLH work engagement and employee retention.

Sweden is chosen, as it is regularly used as a comparative example of a typical CME (Gonzalez and Almond, 2012). Sweden is an extreme for vocational training where it is robustly institutionally supported; its initial training, which now comprises three years of training, provides general eligibility for higher education (Virolainen and Persson Thunqvist, 2016). Sweden is also an extreme for collective voice with collective agreements and trade union coverage (67.3% national trade union membership) (2014, OECD). In a study of eight countries (n=7,867), Sweden demonstrated high levels of autonomy and also a higher level of support, compared to the other seven countries[3] (Taipale et al., 2011). Both the UK and Ireland, along with Sweden, fully opened their labour markets in 2004 and after this when the resulting volume of migration resulted in cases of underpayment of foreign workers (Krings, 2009).

Ireland is chosen as a LME example and, despite using public sector wage agreements for many years, which were criticised as not LME embedded (Regan, 2012), Ireland displays 'classic LME characteristics' (Hamann and Kelly, 2008). Ireland previously adopted some co-ordination strategies regarding the public sector wage agreements beginning in 1987 to combat high inflation and weak economic growth (Hamann and Kelly, 2008). Ireland and the UK, as LMEs, share a 'broadly voluntarist' industrial relations (IR) tradition and comparable models of public sector employment regulation (Bach and Stroleny, 2013, 342). Examples of these voluntarist IR programmes in Ireland include the Programme for National Recovery (1987-1990) to Sustaining Progress 2003-2005. Although these were focused primarily on the public sector, it demonstrates the power of the government to initiate shifts in economic institutions like France and Italy. The financial crisis in Ireland provided confirmation of the fragility of the Irish social partnership, a feature not embedded in the Irish LME system (Regan, 2012).

2.7.1.1 Emotional Culture in Sweden and Ireland

Emotional Expressions have been shown to elicit different norms depending on regional and cultural differences (Ekman et al., 1972). Daun (1991), in his book on Swedish Mentality, suggested a culture characterised by, a high rate of introversion,

[3] Bulgaria, Finland, Germany, Hungary, The Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and the UK in 2007 (n. 7,867). The data represent four economic sectors: retail, trade, finance and banking, telecoms and public hospitals.

high degree of quietness, positive attitudes towards loneliness. and strict boundaries between private and public life. More importantly, he also notes, regarding emotions, that the Swedes generally display low anxiety. While Ireland and Sweden score similarly (Figure 2.3 below) on the Geert Hofstede's 6-D Model (Hofstede et al., 2010; Hofstede, 2001), there are differences in the dimensions of masculinity and pragmatism, the former confirming many differences in the VoC classifications. Ireland's masculinity is a 'shareholder' orientated LME, where the "winner takes it all". Sweden's 'feminine' society is consistent with the 'shareholder' orientated CME with the Swedish word '*lagom'* used to describe 'just the right amount', which is enforced by society under *Jante Law* counselling people not to lift themselves above others (Hofstede et al., 2010; Hofstede, 2001).

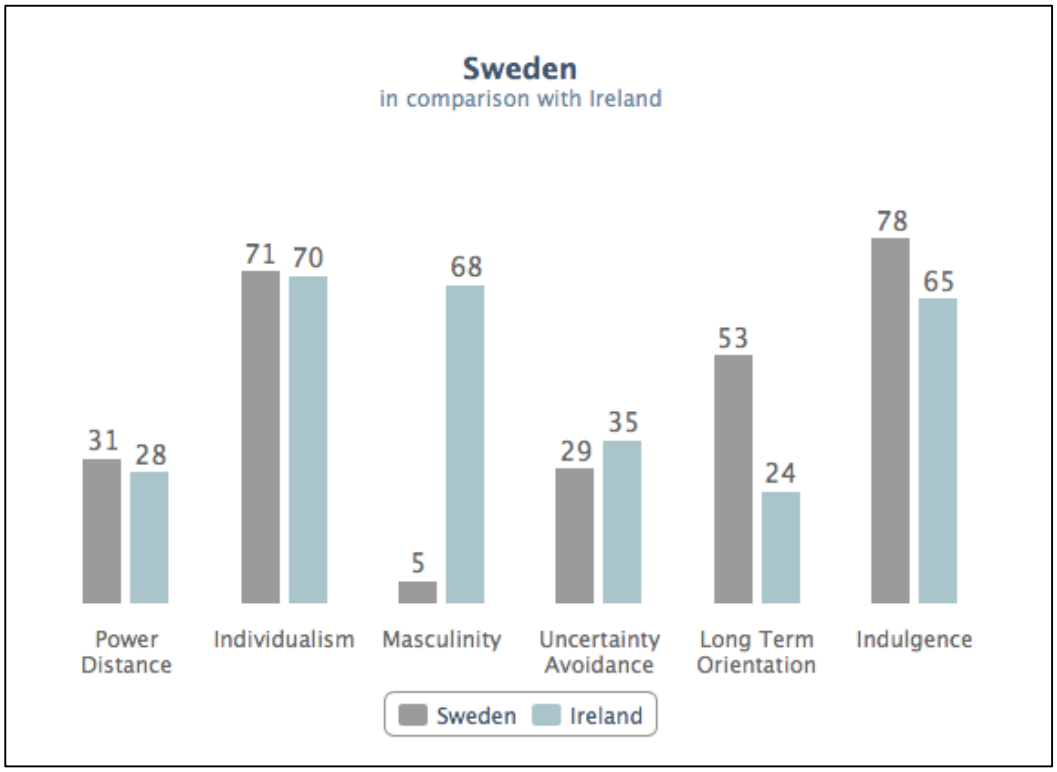


Figure 2.3: 6-D Model Comparing Sweden and Ireland (Hofstede et al., 2010; Hofstede, 2001),

2.7.1.2 Work-time regulation

There is also an element of work-life balance involved with government regulation working time; for example, on the rights to reduce hours around the birth or

adoption of a child and then to later increase hours. Swedish parents with children below eight can lower their working hours up to 25%. Apart from government regulation such as this, CME NSWT arrangements are often negotiated through either unions or bargaining (Berg et al., 2004; Richbell et al., 2011) and it is likely to facilitate adequate recovery and engagement. Ireland does have legislation in the form of the Organisation of Working Time Act 1997, where the daily rest period is outlined in the form that 'an employee shall be entitled to a rest period of not less than 11 consecutive hours in each period of 24 hours during which he or she works for his or her employer' (Part II, Section 11). In addition to this, the act states that an employee shall, in each period of 7 days, be granted a rest period of at least 24 consecutive hours. With regard to working time per year, CME countries such as Luxembourg, Sweden, Belgium and France fall in to the category of below average annual working hours (1,500-1,600 hours); the LME countries of Ireland and the UK are in the 'above average' category (1,800 to 1,900) hours (Morley et al., 2010).

Work-time literature has concentrated on the overall duration of work and the times of day and night that work takes place (Lee et al., 2007). Non-standard work times such as overtime, shift working and weekend working have been studied under a VoC framework, with only shift working displaying any significant differences (Richbell et al., 2011). While Richbell et al. (2011) focuses on the extent of Non Standard Work-time forms such as overtime, shift working and weekend working, it could also be argued that these are inherent to the service industry.

2.7.2 Ireland

Whilst most countries across the world experienced the significant impact of the 2009 recession, Ireland felt one of the most substantial downturns in the industrial world, where GDP fell 9% between 2008 and 2009. Ireland's real estate sector was the primary cause of the economic collapse of the country. This had knock-on effects for unemployment, as there was a significant amount of young males working in the construction sector supporting this economic 'bubble' (Kelly and McGuinness, 2015).

The unemployment rate increased from 4.6% in 2004 to 15% in 2012[4]. The 'bad bank' (similar to that of Sweden in the 1990s but on a much larger scale), National Asset Management Agency (Nama), was used to exchange toxic assets for government bonds and thereby freeing up lending again for the main financial institutions. Ireland's two main trading partners (the UK and U.S.) are LMEs also and these were important in helping Ireland achieve stable growth following the recession. With an unemployment rate of 6.4% at the time of writing[5], Ireland faces uncertainty following significant change in its main LME partners; 'Brexit' in the UK and the political changes in the U.S.

Institutional Actions during the Economic Crises

Ireland was subject to considerable institutional change during the economic crises. While it involved considerable regulation being implemented, it also involved the use of a competitive economic strategy, to the detriment of many long-term co-ordination and partnership agreements. By 2010, the consensus from the Department of Finance Minister Brian Lenihan was that the social partnership agreements 'did enormous damage to our Financial System'. Others viewed the justification for such partnerships as a result of 'weak governments' needing to implement difficult political changes, which it could not do without the support of the social partners (Culpepper and Regan, 2014).

Recent work (Roche et al., 2011; Teague and Roche, 2014) on Ireland focused on the recession years and in particular where there was a lack of 'specific programmes for engagement', where many work engagement initiatives were parked (Roche et al., 2011). They *(ibid)* also noted that during this time voice was very much one-way (top down); there have been no recent examples of national scale resistance in hospitality on a scale similar to the strike by bar workers in Dublin in 1994 that closed 70% of pubs during the World Cup (Baum, 1995).

[4] Quarterly National Household Survey, Central Statistics Office. http://www.cso.ie/en/qnhs/releasesandpublications/qnhspostcensusofpopulation2011/ accessed 10/01/15

[5] Central Statistics Office – July 2017 http://www.cso.ie/en/ accessed 23/08/2017

Vocational Education and Training

Existing Vocational Training in Ireland was criticised as being limited and fragmented. The history of the Vocational Training in Ireland has being shadowed by the 'classical academic' orientated second level education system in Ireland. Despite this, *Transition* Year (TY), an optional year following the Junior Certificate Cycle was established following the Programme for Economic and Social Progress, as a means to develop work-life skills. Criticism of TY as "unchallenging", "gap year" or a "doss year" remain, has been counteracted by the successful uptake of the programme, where over 70.8% of TY students participated in 2015 (from less than 38.4% in 2001), despite growth having stagnated over the past decade (2016).

Ireland's existing vocational training institution: 'FAS', was replaced by SOLAS (An tSeirbhís Oideachais Leanúnaigh agus Scileanna) in 2013 in a further attempt to work with stakeholders including employers, State organisation, the Higher Education Authority and representative bodies. The OECD highlighted the limited provision of Vocational Training facilities in 1995 along with criticism of the uptake of third level; since then, there has been a renewed focus on addressing this. While the uptake in third level education increased rapidly since these reports, VET still remained weak, despite the OECD's support of the social cohesion benefits associated with education (Heraty et al., 2000). Despite many attempts on embedding vocational training into the secondary level cycle, much of the uptake are on unemployment courses such as 'Return to Work' offered by the hospitality department. Fáilte Ireland and Vocational Training and Opportunities Scheme (VTOS) (5,757 participants in 2014) (2016). These are Further Educational and Training Awards (FETAC) accredited and focus on unemployed people over the age of 21.

Employee Voice in Ireland

There has not been research on the uptake on applicable hospitality organisations EWCs with regard to Ireland and Sweden. An investigation of the Database of EWC Agreements, as of 2015 has (3,256 EWC agreements), show that the only hospitality company headquartered in Ireland, Jury's Hotel Group, does not have any EWCs installed or active. While Rezidor Limited are not headquartered in Sweden (Headquartered in Denmark with brands such as Radisson and Park Inn Hotels), they do have EWCs installed and active and are active in both countries (ETUI, 2015).

Other international hospitality companies such as Aramark, Hilton and Sodexo all have installed and active EWCs (ETUI, 2015).

In concluding this section, Ireland provides a suitable LME example. It is characterised predominantly by general education, and relatively low trade union membership (with its concentration in the public sector). The next section will consider Sweden as a suitable CME example.

2.7.3 Sweden

Sweden's institutional focus on engagement and meaning may have begun in the late 1970s when Sweden's Act of Co-determination (1977) established rights, giving workers influence over job design and the right to influence major decisions and planning processes via representation at the board level. Following this, the Swedish Work Environment Act (1978) broadened the definition of health to encompass psychological and physical health (Barling and Griffiths, 2003). From the early 1990s, Unions in Sweden have sought to extend the area of 'development work' pursuing policies that would 'enhance the meaningfulness of work, improve occupational health and self-respect and provide employees with the opportunity to develop their personal resources' (Gallie, 2003, 63).

Following a decade of high employment and growth during the 1980s, there was a failure in some of Sweden's capacities of strategic co-ordination, resulting in high inflation and negative growth during the 1990s (Hall, 2007). However, this failure which was sparked by the deregulation of credit markets, was followed by a recovery from 1994 onwards, where the central bank was successful in holding down inflation (Anxo and Niklasson, 2009). While the government determines the national minimum wage in Ireland, the minimum wage in Sweden is collectively agreed and differs by industry. These collective agreements may also involve age, tenure, occupation, and region. With regard to the hospitality industry, these are determined by the Hotel and Restaurant Workers' Union (HRF) and the Hotel and Restaurant Employers' Association (SHR) (Skedinger, 2006).

Institutional Actions during the Economic Crises

Despite the main institutional and political focus of Sweden being full employment, during a period of economic crises, both the industrial relations and labour market

regulation concentrate on security and flexibility. Sweden did not concentrate on the public policies of many other EU CME states such as reducing working time (through work-sharing) or engaging in temporary redundancies. Instead, Sweden choose to focus on external numerical flexibility, active labour market policy, and generous income support (Anxo, 2011).

Skill Learning Systems

Vocational training is directly provided by the State in many countries such as Sweden, France and Singapore usually beginning at the second stage of the secondary school system (Crouch, 2005). Despite adequate representation on vocational training committees, employers during the 1990s criticised the response to the changing needs of the system to technological and organisational progress during this period (Crouch, 2005). Employees do not require education above primary school level *(grundskola)* to perform the 'unskilled' tasks such as hotel chambermaid, hotel assistant, and restaurant assistant. Skilled work on the other hand requires high school level training *(gymnasium)* or a long period of practical experience to work in positions such as receptionist, night-porter, cook, chef and waitress (Skedinger, 2006). This is particularly evident in Sweden after the onset of the economic crisis, where action was taken to temporarily increases post-secondary vocational training, adult education, college and university places (Anxo, 2011). This was a targeted strategy that focused on those most affected in Sweden because of the economic crisis, namely the youth and those in low-skill manufacturing positions. While these skill learning systems were based primarily on the large export industries of Sweden, it now seeks to narrow the gap between vocational education and the more general University education (Virolainen and Persson Thunqvist, 2016). These links remain weak and are one of the reasons that uptake has decreased from 50% in 1990 to 27% in 2013 (2013).

Employee Voice in Sweden

Berg et al. (2004) highlight the degree of control Swedish employees have over their working time through collectively negotiated agreements. Government regulations set the laws at the standard and maximum level, while collective agreements, at the industry or local level, establish a structure to facilitate these standards. Berg et al. (2014) also noted that these collective voice measures are significantly related to the use of work-life flexibility practices.

Sweden has the most class-segmented union movement in the world, separated into 'white collar' workers and 'blue collar' workers, which includes hotel and restaurant employees, food workers, nurse assistants and retail employees (Kjellberg, 2013). Swedish workplace employee participation and representation is centred on the functions of trade unions and their co-determination rights, as set out in the 1976 Act on Employee Consultation and Participation in Working Life, the so-called Co-Determination Act (Medbestämmandelagen, MBL) (Berg, 2003). Firstly, the MBL outlines the structure and governance for collective bargaining. Secondly, the MBL outlines the rules for information, representation, and consultation etc. In summary, the MBL allows participation in management decision making, mainly through trade unions mechanisms. There is no workforce-size threshold for the application of these participation rules. Even in a small company, there is almost always a local trade union (fackklubb). In the absence of a local union in the workplace, regional or national-level union organisations have the right to negotiate or receive information on behalf of the trade union members in that workplace (Berg, 2003).

Globalised labour, involving power shift to employers markets have resulted in less opportunity for establishing employee voice (Buren and Greenwood, 2008). This is evident in the hospitality industry, which experiences labour shortages and has resulted in a high migrant workforce (Schlosser, 2002). This is not particularly prominent in Sweden, as many in frontline service positions are required to speak a Scandinavian language, leading to a two-tier hospitality industry, with non-Scandinavian speaking employees being segregated from the frontline positions.

Table 2.1 outlines the main features evident across both LMEs and CMEs and provides further support, especially with the rejuvenated CME

Table 2.1: Features of Liberal Market Economies and Coordinated Market Economies applied to Ireland and Sweden Based on the Hall and Soskice (2001) '*Varieties of Capitalism': Chapter 1* and based on Table 1 (pg. 680) Nölke and Vliegenthart (2009) '*Enlarging the Varieties of Capitalism: The Emergence of….'*

Criteria	LME	CME
Mechanism	Competitive market arrangements and formal contract	Non-market relations
Equilibrium	Demand/supply and Hierarchy	Strategic interaction among firms and other actors
Inter-firm relations	Competitive	Collaborative
Mode of Production	Direct product competition	Differentiated, niche production
Legal system	Complete and formal contracting	Incomplete and informal contracting
Institutions' function	Competitiveness Freer movement of inputs	Monitoring Sanctioning of defectors
Employment	Full-time, General skill Short term, Fluid	Shorter hours, Specific skill Long term, Immobile
Wage bargain	Firm level	Industry level
Training and Education	Formal education from high schools and colleges General skills, high research and development expenditures	Apprenticeship imparting industry-specific skills Company or industry specific skills, vocational training
Industrial Relations	Low Union Membership Pluralist, market based: few collective agreements	High Union Membership Corporatist, consensual: sector-wide or even national agreements
Income Distribution	Unequal (high Gini)	Equal (low Gini)
Innovation	Radical	Incremental
Comparative Advantage	High-tech and service	Manufacturing
Policies	Deregulation, tax-break	Encourages information sharing and collaboration of firms

2.8 Chapter Conclusion

The epistemological entry point from this research stems from the critical analysis of HFLH and its nature as atypical work. This sector's distinctive characteristics and complexity including triangular relationship and emotional labour relate it to a neo-

Marxist, LP perspective (Burawoy, 1979; Edwards, 1979; Friedman, 1977; Braverman, 1974). In the 1960s, Marxist theory received a renewed interest, driven by the 'political radicalisation' of the time, where the state became the focus. However, political sociologists, Ralph Miliband (1977) and Nicos Poulantzas (1969), initially argued on the function of the state in both of their interpretations. They eventually converged, somewhat at odds with the Marxist and Lenin ideal of 'confrontation' to a more 'democratic' shift towards a more social economic system (Callinicos, 2012). LP analysis is based on Marxist (1887) analysis of capitalist production based on control. This analysis was revised by Harry Braverman (1974), who focused on the 'degradation of work'. By expanding these micro processes towards a macro perspective, it allows for the institutional forces that shape the employment relationship to be realised. The institutional comparative political economy framework of VoC used in this thesis provides dimensions of analysis. Here, the more 'conflictual', direct control LME is viewed in comparison to the more 'collaborative' CME distinction (e.g., Hall and Soskice, 2001). A long-term and short-term dichotomy is also evident. LMEs are co-ordinated based on market forces (e.g. short term profits) to co-ordinate, whereas CMEs focus on institutional arrangements (e.g. long-term market share). Originally, LP theory (Braverman, 1974) which developed within the LME context was developed further during the 'second-wave' of literature to encompass the CME autonomy.

This chapter reviewed the atypical nature of HFLH and while understanding its characteristics, the LP perspective emerged as the theoretical lens to inform this research's understanding of the HFLH employment relationship. The chapter explored how flexibility and efficiency changes with the different typologies of hospitality, ranging from fast-food to 'high-end' hospitality. HFLH often commands high levels of flexibility, along with efficiency and high levels of emotional demands also. In addition, LP can understand the 'turnover culture' of HFLH, explained by the 'mobility-power' indeterminacy, which describes the ability of an employee to leave an organisation (Smith, 2006).

Table 2.2: Summary Model of Chapter 2 Analysis of HFLH employment relationship

HFLH LP characteristics / demands	VoC Framework	LP Perspective	HFLH areas of analysis
High emotional-labour demands, (Beal et al. 2013) Unpredictable demand Non-standard worktimes Customer Culture High flexibility demands (along with efficiency) Low wage EWOM / social media controls (McDonald and Thompson, 2016, Baka 2016) Normative Controls	A utility for assessing voice under individual and collective dimensions. Spheres of Employees and Industrial Relations	Voice Mechanisms as scope, responsible autonomy, under conditions appropriate for management	Voice mechanisms (individual and collective)
	Dichotomy of Skills which suggests a specific focus in CMEs and a more general focus in LMEs	Apart from the deskilling thesis within LP dynamics, there is also a disassociation of the skill of the worker from the LP itself.	Skill Learning Systems (specific and general)

VoC explains the macro-institutional differences which shape the employment relationship. This chapter provided a review of the literature, both criticising and supporting the VoC as a CC framework. It concludes that, while CC will have criticisms (e.g. static nature and local differences), VoC provides a durable logic and has survived shifts such as globalisation and the movement to services. It provides a framework based on institutional complementarity, which can explain how the employment relationship is shaped across different institutional arrangements. To capture the micro-processes of the employment relationship, the LP perspective provides a spectrum, based on control, capable of encompassing individual and collective dimensions across different configurations of capitalism. From reviewing LP from the core-theory to how different 'waves' of literature shape the LP

perspective, core themes emerged from the analysis. These were examined, along with the VoC discourse, to identify two main areas for this research to focus on.

Firstly, from reviewing the 'absolute control' from core LP theory, this chapter explored the 'responsible autonomy' proposed by second wave LP literature (Burawoy 1979; Edwards 1979; Friedman 1977a). Responsibility autonomy (also seen as relative autonomy or personal control) is crucial for the discretion and flexibility required in HFLH (Lashley, 1998). From this, **Voice mechanisms,** which are effectively assessed under the different institutional arrangement of VoC (Brewster et al. 2007; Tüselmann et al. 2015; Richbell et al. 2011) are proposed as a means of pursuing such autonomy or scope.

Secondly, Braverman's (1974, 113) core LP theory highlighted the 'dissociation of the LP from the skills of the worker'. This, along with the LP deskilling concept from the technological and standardisation of procedures, provides a suitable theory for HFLH. In exploring asset specificity and the nature of skills required for HFLH, this chapter explored the skill formation dichotomy of **skill learning systems** provided by VoC such as in specific (vocational training and certified apprenticeship) versus general skills.

In conclusion, through examining HFLH's atypical characteristic, along with LP's capability in understanding these micro-processes, it is decided that a macro-institutional framework is required to capture the differences evident in comparative political economy. In critically analysing potential CC frameworks, VoC is chosen for its firm-centred approach, institutional complementariness, and durable logic, amongst other rationale. In using both theoretical frameworks together, areas for analysis, relating to HFLH employment relationships, voice mechanisms and skill learning systems. Further to this, there is growing support (Hauptmeier and Vidal, 2014; Burawoy, 2009; Thompson and Vincent, 2010) for uniting these theories, which cover macro institutional level to micro process level.

CHAPTER 3 LITERATURE REVIEW II – FRONT-LINE HOSPITALITY OUTCOMES OF WORK ENGAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 argued how non-standard work times, customer culture, and emotional labour demands add to the suitability of the LP perspective as a lens for examining HFLH. Other HFLH characteristics and challenges include short-term sales targets, low wages, instability and subjective standards (Riley, 2014). These contribute to the considerable stress and burnout experienced by HFLH workers, when compared with other occupations (Walters and Raybould, 2007; Karatepe, 2011; Lin et al., 2014; Salem, 2015). Chapter 3 proposes outcomes to counteract these negative outcomes within the HFLH LP. To this end, the next section investigates work engagement, particularly noting its importance for this type of work. It then considers employee retention as a second sector-appropriate outcome to be investigated. This also builds on the mobility-power indeterminacy in the LP analysis from chapter 2. Both voice mechanisms and skill learning systems are then examined as antecedents to sector appropriate outcomes of work engagement and employee retention.

3.2 Work Engagement as a proximal outcome

Engaged employees are said to experience meaningfulness and apply their 'preferred self' to their roles (Kahn, 1990). Alienation in general is viewed as 'powerlessness' and 'meaninglessness' together with isolation, normlessness and self-estrangement (Seeman, 1959, 786). Others disagree with this multidimensional construct, defining alienation as: 'the extent to which a person is disengaged from their work' (Hirschfeld and Feild, 2000, 790); 'Control through culture, values and new employee relations policies attempt to generate engagement, not simply coerce the employee' (Smith, 2015, 237).

Frederick Taylor (1911) outlined the specialisation of tasks and the resulting 'systemic soldiering' of the worker (protecting their interests). Roethlisberger and Dickson (2003) suggest work engagement as a contemporary solution to address

this soldiering while congruently increasing productivity. 'Engagement' was originally conceptualised and defined by Kahn (1990, 700) as the:

> simultaneous employment and expression of a person's "preferred self" in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive and emotional), and active, full role performances

Over the latter part of the twenty-six years since engagement was conceptualised, academia began to increasingly focus on the engagement construct and, in particular, on the areas of employee wellbeing (Brauchli et al., 2013) and organisational performance (Rich et al., 2010). Wellbeing is often used as an 'umbrella' term that encompasses constructs such as job satisfaction, engagement, involvement, and positive emotions (Fisher, 2010). The focus of engagement also became part of the wider debate on organisational performance (Huselid, 1995; Guest et al., 2003; Wright et al., 2003) that was emerging during this period (Guest, 2011). Due to the initial surge of popularity of engagement among the practitioner community, academia were forced to catch up quickly, resulting in many different perspectives (Shuck et al., 2013). Apart from work engagement's links with organisational performance, it also importantly focuses on employees and deriving meaningfulness (May et al., 2004; Chalofsky and Krishna, 2009; Kahn, 1990), which might counteract the alienation associated with precarious work.

3.2.1 Work Engagement: A multidimensional construct

Engagement as a 'multi-dimensional' and 'person-role' construct differs from related (e.g. Newman et al., 2010; Wefald, 2009) constructs such as involvement, commitment, satisfaction and flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; 1997; Christian et al., 2011; Saks, 2006a). Before engagement, the focus was on constructs such as attachment, detachment or role distance (Goffman, 1961).

3.2.1.1 Work Engagement - State or Trait

Much of the criticism of engagement stems from the lack of agreement between 'behavioural engagement' and 'work engagement'. This is the result of critics (e.g. Purcell, 2014) categorising it into either mutually exclusive 'trait' and 'state' categories. While this may be a result of management literature distancing itself from psychological literature, similar arguments have also taken place within the arena of work psychology (Dalal et al., 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2012). 'State' relates to a

within-person variation occurring over a period of one week or less (and often, over a period of minutes or hours), while a trait relates to the idea of within-person stability over weeks or months (Watson and Clark, 1984). Trait engagement may be the most suitable for HFLH given the objective of 'delighting the customer', required on a daily basis to ensure repeat business (Lucas, 2004). The other argument to this is that employees have an autotelic personality and perform a task 'for its own sake rather than for specific rewards' (Purcell, 2012, 6), similar to the intrinsic/extrinsic motivation debate. Intrinsic motivation is often explained as the desire to exert effort on a task in the absence of external constraints or contingencies (Deci, 1975; Deci, 1985). Work engagement is closely aligned with task-specific motivation (Christian et al., 2011). Kahn (1990) views engagement as a motivational variable spanning the extrinsic and intrinsic continuum, employing the employee's 'full-self' in their work roles.

3.2.1.2 Work Engagement - Eudaimonic or Hedonic

These differences stem from the argument between philosophical and psychological writers and the resolution of two ancient views. *Eudaimonia* is described as the amount to which activities are 'experienced as engaging and interesting and connected with flow' (Vittersø, 2013). *Hedonia,* on the other hand, is associated more with positive emotions, affect, satisfaction, rewards, and happiness (Ryan and Deci, 2001; Kahneman et al., 1999; Fredrickson, 2001). Although it is argued that engagement and flow represent an orientation to happiness, separate from *eudaimonia* (e.g. Seligman et al., 2005), others treat engagement as an integral part of *eudaimonia* (Huta and Waterman, 2013).

In conclusion, many, including Dalal et al. (2008) and Christian et al. (2011), agree that work engagement should not be referred to as either a state or a trait. This is because of work engagement's inherent trait-like and state-like components. It's level changes with time, along with work-place factors and personal factors.

3.2.2 What is Engagement – Conceptualisations and Definitions

This section now reviews engagement's definitions and conceptualisations. These include:

- Kahn's (1990) 'Preferred Self' Model,

- Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA: The Gallup Organisation 1992-1999, Harter et al. (2002)),
- Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti et al., 2001b), Maslach et al. (2001) - the antithesis of Burnout
- Schaufeli et al. (2002): Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES).

In **Kahn's 'Preferred Self Model'**(1990) engagement is conceptualised as where a person expresses and employs one's 'preferred self' in their role. This 'preferred self' is an identity consistent with the employees' personal 'beliefs and values' (Kahn, 1990). This is affected by three psychological domains: meaningfulness, safety, and availability (Kahn, 1990). Meaningfulness is defined as 'involvement in personally fulfilling goals, the integration of these goals into a coherent self-system, and … broader social system' (Emmons and Kaiser, 1996, 333). Safety is defined as the ability to show one's self 'without fear or negative consequences to self-image, status, or career' (Kahn, 1990, 705). Availability, on the other hand, is defined as the 'sense of possessing the physical, emotional, and psychological resources necessary' (Kahn, 1990, 705).

Kahn (1990) conceptualised engagement while reflecting on literature such as 'central life interest' theory (Dubin, 1956). He also focused on the 'critical psychological states' of Job Characteristics theory, developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976).

While Kahn's theory of engagement has been noted as 'sound' and 'unique' (May et al., 2004; Rothbard, 2001; Salanova et al., 2005b), it has also been criticised. This was primarily due to the difficulty in separating and measuring the components of the cognitive, emotional and physical dimensions (May et al., 2004). However, focus has shifted back to Kahn's (1990) conceptualisation of engagement, where individuals are emotionally connected to others and are cognitively vigilant (May et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010).

The **Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA: The Gallup Organisation 1992-1999, Harter et al. (2002))** is an important example of 'organisational' engagement. Engagement has been the focus of a considerable number of governments, large organisations, and consultancy firms (e.g. Hay Group: Towers Watson Engagement Survey: MacLeod and Clarke (2011)). The most popular consultancy or industry

approach to engagement is the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA: The Gallup Organisation 1992-1999, Harter et al. (2002)). In their large meta-analysis, comprising 7,939 business-units within 36 companies, Harter et al. (2002, 269) posit engagement as the individual's 'involvement and satisfaction as well as enthusiasm for work'.

GWA is criticised (Macey and Schneider, 2008; Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008) as being more like an 'audit' in capturing the 'engagement conditions' that might affect engagement rather than engagement as a distinct variable. Examples include "I know what is expected of me in work" and "At work my opinions seem to count" (Harter et al., 2002, 269). Furthermore, Guest (2014) criticises this as a type of 'organisational engagement', lacking in clear definition, measurement, high-quality evidence and clear policy implications.

The **Job Demands-Resources (JD-R)** model is another important conceptualisation of engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001b; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). JD-R draws on the Demands-Control model (Karasek, 1979) and the Job Characteristics model (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Job Demands (Demerouti et al., 2001b, 501) are viewed as the 'physical, social or organisational parts of the job that require continuous physical or cognitive effort'. Job Resources (Demerouti et al., 2001b, 501), on the other hand, may refer to the 'physical, social, or organisational aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work-related goals'. Utilising a 'dual process', the JD-R is most useful for explaining the conditions of engagement (or exhaustion) where different relationships between demands and resources exist across different contexts and occupations (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Conway et al., 2015).

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) by Schaufeli et al. (2002)

This is the most widely used conceptualisation, where the measure has been replicated and is considered valid. It is important to note that here the construct became known as 'work engagement', as opposed to 'employee engagement' or just 'engagement'. The basis for this conceptualisation stemmed from the burnout construct.

Maslach et al. (2001) developed their concept of engagement as the 'opposite pole' of burnout, known as the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Burnout was originally

explained by Maslach and Jackson (1982) as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among employees who do "people work". Schaufeli et al. (2002) disagreed with the Maslach and Leiter (1997) concept of burnout and the polar opposites thesis (Maslach et al., 2001). Schaufeli et al. (2002), instead, proposed burnout and engagement as separate conditions, with engagement requiring a stand-alone measurement instrument (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

This stand-alone measurement instrument became known as the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) by Schaufeli et al. (2002), a reworking of the dimensions of the MBI approach. Schaufeli et al. (2002, 74) developed a new definition for work engagement, as

> a persistent and positive affect-motivational state of fulfilment in employees characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption.

Firstly, vigour refers to 'high levels of energy, mental resilience and persistence'. Secondly, dedication refers to 'a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge'. Finally, absorption is described as 'being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one' s work, whereby time passes quickly'. Absorption itself is central to the construct of work engagement. Rich et al. (2010) include it along with attention, while Schaufeli et al. (2002, 2006)) include it with vigour and dedication.

The UWES dimensions also align with other conceptualisations of engagement. In applying the JD-R logic to UWES, it can be argued that resources foster work engagement in terms of vigour, dedication and absorption (Truss et al., 2013). However, most importantly, it aligns with the original Kahn (1990) 'preferred-self' model of engagement. These similarities are evident in their definitions below:

> simultaneous employment and expression of a person's "preferred self" in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive and emotional), and active, full role performances (Kahn, 1990, 700)

> a persistent and positive affect-motivational state of fulfilment in employees characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002, 74).

These dimensions relate physically/mentally-energetic (vigour), emotionally (dedication) and cognitively (absorption). Despite their conceptual similarities, the three factors in the UWES (vigour dedication and absorption) perform better than

those in the May et al. (2004) 'physical, cognitive and emotional' based on Kahn's (1990) engagement scale (Viljevac et al., 2012). This is consistent with findings by Halbesleben (2010), who found little difference in interchanging work engagement constructs in their meta-analysis. Guest (2014) disagrees with the construct's conceptual similarity with other conceptual constructs of engagement, despite supporting the validity and construct of work engagement. However, much of the criticism relates to 'organisational' engagement (e.g. Gallup 12) which are not grounded in theoretical frameworks, and which suffer from 'non-definition' and are often conflated considerably with attitudinal constructs such as satisfaction (Guest, 2014).

Measuring Engagement with UWES

From reviewing engagement and its constructs, the UWES (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2002) is concluded to be the most widely used, reliable and valid measure (Truss et al., 2013). This 'work engagement' has been previously used in many studies (e.g. Sonnentag, 2003; Sonnentag et al., 2012) as a 17 item UWES (Appendix B) by Schaufeli et al. (2002). However, following tests (cross-cultural and longitudinally), the construct validity of the 9 item UWES (Appendix B) is recommended over the 17 item scale (Sonnentag, 2003). With regards to the UWES scale, initial testing by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) confirmed the three subscales (vigour, dedication, and absorption) are internally consistent and stable across time. However, previous to this, other researchers have suggested that the factor of vigour has a high correlation with the three factor model of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Work engagement may actually just be a one factor construct (Britt et al., 2007). Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) also established that the UWES measure was invariant across different countries and that work engagement is weakly related to age. They added that work engagement scores differed for men and women (higher scores for men) and for different occupational groups.

Finally, regarding the 'trait or state' debate of engagement (discussed in chapter 3.1.4), Christian et al. (2011) and Dalal et al. (2008) agree that work engagement has elements of both trait and state. Research has shown that the UWES-9 measure (the short version of the questionnaire) is capable of measuring both state and trait engagement (Breevaart et al., 2012).

3.2.3 Work Engagement as a sector specific outcome for HFLH

Work engagement is associated with many outcomes sought across different occupations such as employee productivity (Salanova et al., 2005b), task performance (Rich et al., 2010), and also financial performance (Harter et al., 2002; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). However, engagement is particularly important for HFLH employees. A service employee who is engaged can be characterised as enthusiastic, energetic, motivated, and passionate about his or her work. Contrastingly, a disengaged service worker is one who is apathetic, robotic, depersonalised, and withdrawn from her or his job (Salanova et al., 2005b). Also, particularly important HFLH outcomes associated with engagement include lower burnout, lower turnover intention (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Halbesleben, 2010; Alfes et al., 2013; Saks, 2006b) and lower stress (Britt et al., 2005). A relationship between work engagement and increased customer loyalty has also been found (Salanova et al., 2005b; Harter et al., 2002).

Citizenship Behaviour is also associated with discretion, extra role behaviour or proactive activity where employees go beyond their job description (Organ, 1997). It is argued that because engaged employees may or may not display citizenship behaviour (Bakker and Leiter, 2010) it should not form a constituent of engagement. However, that being said, the service industry and, in particular, HFLH, often require proactive activity and citizenship behaviour (George, 1991). Engagement has been found as an antecedent to citizenship behaviour (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010) and is valued by managers of HFLH employees who are often unable to specify all tasks required in advance to achieve organisational goals.

HFLH work involves satisfying customer requests, performing transactions and providing information without the direct aim of motivating the person to purchase (Korczynski, 2002). Despite this, the importance of the combination of sales and service over the past couple of decades is illustrated in the fast-food employee example "would you like a coke with that" (Leidner, 1996). Jasmand et al. (2012) describe this behaviour as 'ambidexterity', the concurrent employment of 'service and sales'. This idea is indeed informed by Raisch and Birkinshaw (2008), where ambidextrous firms manage the conflicting demands (exploiting competencies while exploring opportunities). This concept was later applied at employee level (Raisch et al., 2009) before being applied to the service industry. Examples of this

'ambidextrous behaviour' in the hospitality area is evident in the restaurant industry, involving the clearing of plates while suggesting or asking regarding dessert, tea/coffee or *digestif* options. In hotels, this often manifests in reception asking if the client would like to book an evening meal or a spa treatment in the hotel. While ambidextrous behaviour may decrease efficiency (by lengthening the service provision), the overall customer-satisfaction and overall performance effect is positive (Jasmand et al., 2012). Conflicting employee demands may result in the exploitation of sales opportunities damaging service performance and relationships (Aksin and Harker, 1999). However, there is research suggesting that service firms integrating cross and up-selling functions into traditional service operations can increase revenue from 10% to as much as 50% (Eichfeld et al., 2006; Murcott, 2007).

The positive relationship between work engagements and customer loyalty (Salanova et al., 2005b; Harter et al., 2002) has considerable implications for the provision of energetic, passionate and enthusiastic employees across HFLH. Furthering this, work engagement was found to be an antecedent to citizenship, extra-role and ambidextrous behaviour, resulting in increased revenue (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010) for service organisations. Whilst work engagement is particularly appropriate for this sector, the next section considers this with regard to the theoretical framework proposed. Here, work engagement counteracts the alienating demands of HFLH in providing meaningfulness in the sector across different institutional frameworks.

3.2.4 Work Engagement with LP and VoC analysis

While Marx (1887), Braverman (1974) and Ollman (1976) consider all employees as alienated under capitalist conditions, others (e.g. Shantz et al., 2012, 784) view alienation as a 'malleable psychological state'. Alienation is viewed as the withdrawal of employee's preferred-self from their role where the employee experiences "meaninglessness" (Seeman, 1959). In contrast to this, engagement is where employees experience meaningfulness and apply their 'preferred self' to their roles (Kahn, 1990).

Work engagement as a psychological construct must be carefully examined across cultures, as many social scientists and anthropologists highlight the importance of

culture on psychological development (Romney and d'Andrade, 1964; Rothmann et al., 2013; Hui and Triandis, 1985; Geisinger, 1994).

3.2.5 Consensus on Engagement

To conclude this section on engagement, in examining the antecedents and outcomes of engagement within the distinctive HFLH space, citizenship behaviour and discretion are important in offering excellent service. Engagement is associated with many key outcomes (e.g. Harter et al., 2002; Christian et al., 2011) but is particularly suitable as a HFLH outcome. Following critical analysis of the various engagement definitions and perspectives, it is concluded that the UWES (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2002) is the most robust conceptualisation and measure of engagement. Firstly, there is agreement between UWES and the original conceptualisation by Kahn (1990); both concepts measure engagement and its dimensions in terms of physical/mental-energy (vigour), emotions (dedication) and cognition (absorption). Similarly, the UWES measure is the most widely used and reliable engagement scale (Truss et al., 2013). The short version (UWES-9) is also capable of measuring both state and trait engagement (Breevaart et al., 2012). However, it is important to understand the different conceptualisations as, while they conflate somewhat, they each provide an insight (e.g. the JD-R model) into the psychological conditions necessary for engagement to exist. The next section revisits 'voice mechanisms' (from chapter 2) and then investigates it as a potential antecedent to HFLH work engagement.

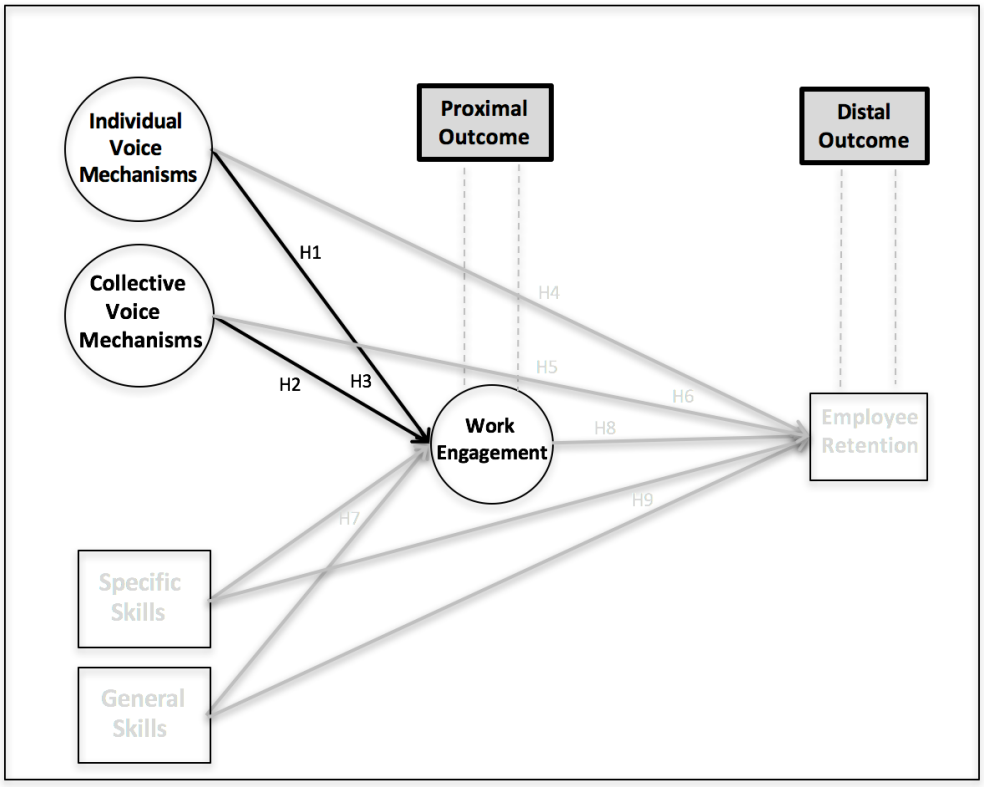


Figure 3.1: Voice Mechanisms as an Antecedent to the HFLH proximal outcome of Work Engagement

3.3 Voice Mechanisms

Chapter 2 considered the nature of voice but identified voice mechanisms as particularly appropriate as a means of 'scope' for HFLH employees under the LP perspective. The idea is that, across a terrain of control, HFLH might benefit from either more direct control or be afforded certain levels of scope and responsible autonomy through these voice mechanisms. This was paralleled with VoC as a utility to assess such voice mechanisms across individual and collective categorisation.

3.3.1 Voice mechanisms: the Individual / Collective Debate

Following on from chapter two, voice mechanisms can take either a collective (some idea of a representative arrangement is involved) or an individual (employees are somehow directly involved) approach. Examples of individual voice mechanisms

include team briefings, suggestion schemes, job enrichment, informal chats with the manager, job design, and formal regular meetings with supervisor or manager. Collective channels for voice include works councils, trade union representation, board representation, EU Information and Consultation representation, quality circles and task forces. Freeman and Medoff (1984) note that through collective voice, workplace differences can be aired and made subject to proper managerial consideration.

It is argued that the collective and individual elements of voice might act as complements rather than substitute (Van Buren and Greenwood, 2008). This differs with regard to institutional configuration and sector however. Despite this, individual and collective voice mechanisms have clear distinct measurements which have been tested cross-culturally (Brewster et al., 2007).

3.3.2 Individual Voice Mechanisms

Individual voice mechanisms provide a more close, personal, direct form of voice which is effective in taking account of a diverse workforce (Bryson, 2004). Individual voice mechanisms are often further characterised as either formal or informal (Townsend et al., 2013). Much of the early literature (e.g. Roland, 1897) describes the 'absence' of formal mechanisms of individual voice. Informal expression is viewed as an 'open door' mechanism (Levenstein, 1962; Kaufman, 2013). Here, the primary objective was is the creation of an informal 'family culture', where employees felt 'emotionally and materially' dedicated in the company's success (Kaufman, 2013). Successful voice is often depicted as 'personal contact' or 'putting yourself in the other persons shoes' (Zahavi, 1988). Brewster et al. (2007) outlines numerous individual voice mechanisms such as team meetings, suggestion schemes, and electronic communication. Some of these, such as electronic communication, have developed rapidly over the past decade due to technological advancements. Others are either constrained or facilitated by the particular sector in question. An example of this is team meetings in which particular professions within the services industry require continuous coverage such as a help-line call centre or indeed certain continuous hospitality service offerings.

While team meetings are an efficient mechanism for management to facilitate employee participation and involvement, often with their immediate supervisor or

management, it also has a collective element. VoC differences regarding voice mechanism is evident when examining the two types of team structure. With regard to team structures, these can be categorised (e.g. Greenwood and Randle, 2007; Gonzalez and Almond, 2012) as 'Socio-technical' team organisation, evident in the Nordic countries, including Sweden, and often featuring job autonomy, long job cycles, functional flexibility and reduced worker hierarchy (Appelbaum, 2000). On the other hand, 'Lean' teams (more typical of Japanese production systems and LMEs) are more concerned with rationalisation. These lean teams are considered a key feature of task enlargement, work intensification, cross-training, maximum workloads and strong management control (Garrahan and Stewart, 1992). These lean teams as a means of voice mechanism are more aligned with the core LP theory (Sewell, 1998). Despite the perception that lean teams portraying positive characteristics such as 'employee participation and problem-solving' (Womack et al., 1990), critics have labelled it 'management by stress' (Hampson, 1999), associated with declines in job autonomy, skill utilisation, and participation in decision making (Parker, 2003).

3.3.3 Collective Voice Mechanisms

Collective Voice Mechanisms have been studied under a VoC framework previously. Brewster et al. (2007) uses the VoC framework in their study, questioning possible voice mechanism convergence towards the individual voice mechanisms. They found limited evidence of such convergences but noticed a concentration of collective voice within larger organisations. The next section considers the different mechanisms of collective voice, namely, trade unions, works councils, European Works Councils, and the EU Information and Consultation Directive.

3.3.3.1 Trade Unions

Trade Unions as a form of collective voice across VoC have changed since the 1970s, mainly due to organisational context and institutional support. However, its distinct modus operandi across VoC remains. While LME union presence declined dramatically from the late 1970s to the late 1990s, this occurred alongside a movement from manufacturing to services. During the 1990s, many governments across Europe signed social partnerships with unions as interest groups. Culpepper and Regan (2014) note that this may have been due to 'weak' governments trying to

win over the support of the working class. These LME/CME differences are particularly evident where Multinational Corporations (MNCs) with multi-plant operations recognise unions in certain sites while recognising non-union arrangements in others (Dundon et al., 2014). Apart from the more prominent presence of MNCs within the European hospitality industry, the sector has challenged the collective bargaining agreements in many CME countries. An example of this is evident in the Netherlands where in mid-2014, following the expiration of collective agreements, the hospitality industry employer association refrained from collective agreements. Instead, they opted for standard employment agreements without the involvement of unions (Dekker et al., 2017).

The channel of union voice is often considered as one of discomfort or as a substitute for the individual exit option (Addison and Belfield, 2004). However, this may be more typical of LME 'conflict' based (market-driven) institutional orientation compared to the more 'co-operative' orientation of CMEs. This is consistent with Freeman and Medoff (1984, 8) and their understanding of union voice as a 'means discussing, with an employer, conditions that have to be changed'.

The strength of the union voice mechanism is evident in the Kim and Kim (2004) study of union and non-union work councils in Korea. This research identified 'structural weaknesses' regarding non-union representation as more apparent than the positive attitudinal outcomes.

3.3.3.2 Works Councils, EWCs and the EU Information & Consultation Directive

Works Councils are generally understood as a form of representation incorporating an 'institutionalised' body where employees can communicate their 'interests' to management (Kim and Kim, 2004). While Nienhüser (2014) highlights the concentration of Works Council research in Germany (e.g. Addison et al., 2004), he also notes their shareholder based focus (e.g. productivity and profits); the employee focus is often ignored. This does not incorporate European Works Councils (EWC), which are from the Directive 94/45/EC. These are more applicable to multinationals operating in Europe that conduct business with over 1,000 employees and have over 150 in two countries. The individual member states have the autonomy to choose the mechanism of selection of employee representatives. The original EWC legislation lacked clear definitions and this resulted in a slow uptake, with c. 30 a year. While clarifying the definitions for 'information' and 'consultation', the recast

EWC directive also enforced the right to training for employee representatives without the loss of wages. Crucially, the recast directive also undertook that trade union voice was clearly heard (Picard, 2010). Rather than voice mechanisms, critics have labelled these as means of control where local managers may force concessions from employees to attract local investments (Tapia et al., 2015; Ferner et al., 2012). Despite this, the effectiveness of this emerging institution as a mechanism for voice depends on whether business operations are focused on a single business, spread equally across borders and having a high degree of interdependence across borders (Marginson et al., 2004). With regard to the EU Information and Consultation Directive, this Directive, 2002/14/EC, was established to set minimum principles, definition and arrangements and to

> establish a general framework setting out minimum requirements for the right to information and consultation of employees in undertakings or establishments within the Community (2002/30).

The directive is restricted to (as chosen by the member states) either undertakings with at least 50 employees or establishments employing at least twenty employees.

Following the rationale, review, and critical analysis of the main individual and collective voice mechanisms, the next section considers these in HFLH as potential antecedents to the proximal dependent variable: work engagement. This begins the first part of the consideration of the primary research question, ***What factors influence work engagement and employee retention in high-end front-line hospitality in Ireland and Sweden?***

3.3.4 Voice Mechanisms as a potential antecedent to HFLH Work Engagement

There are few studies focusing on the relationship between voice and engagement. Beugré (2010, 178) developed a model (see Figure 3.2 below) whereby voice's positive impact on engagement is suggested to be mitigated by four boundary conditions. These include the value of voice, voice that is considered, the extent to which employees expect to have voice, and voice as a cultural norm. The first

empirical research[6] concerning voice and engagement by Rees et al. (2013) sees employee perceptions of voice behaviour to have both a direct impact and indirect influence on engagement.

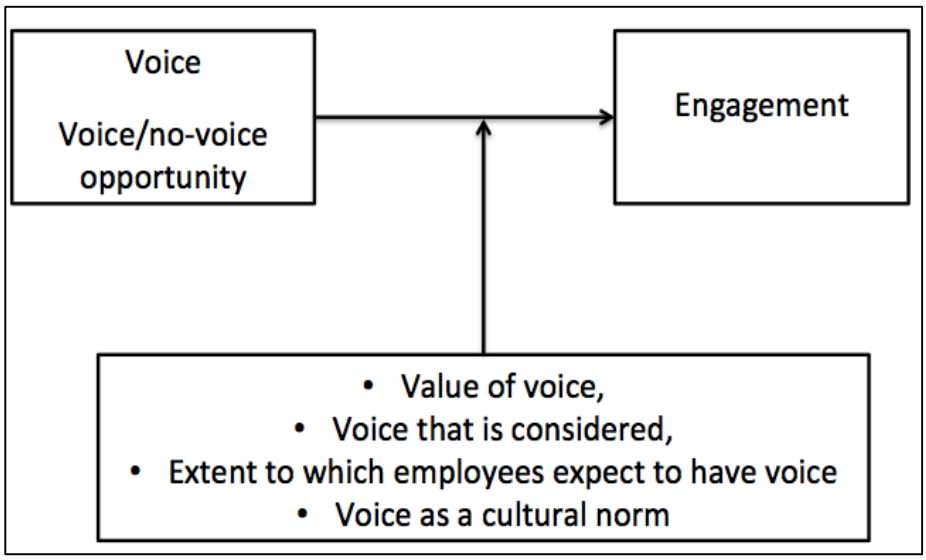


Figure 3.2 Voice and Engagement Model adapted from Beugré, C. D. (2010)

Voice research often features (overlapping) 'indirect vs. direct' (e.g. Lavelle et al., 2010) or 'individual vs. collective' (e.g. Brewster et al., 2007) dimensions. This research concerns the latter, due to the 'individual-collective' differences across the VoC dichotomy. CME's or welfare states have a collective orientation (Jessop, 1999), which authors Hall and Soskice (2001) explain through institutional co-ordination. Union voice within CMEs, where collaboration is frequent among stakeholders, might be the most widely researched of collective voice. On the other hand, in LMEs, stakeholder attitude towards unions is more conflictual. Here, management's concern is that if the depth of individual voice is not sufficient, it may often act as a catalyst for collective mechanisms of voice to replace the void. Others view this choice as an ineffective individual voice being replaced by a more efficient union voice (Kaufman, 2004). There are numerous proxies for individual voice within the literature. Examples, such as 'personal control' and 'personal initiative' (Sonnentag,

[6] A recycling and waste management company (n=2,217) and a business solutions company (n=115)

2003) within the LME context (U.S.), have been found to reduce both job strain and stress (Grandey et al., 2005).

The HFLH LP has been noted for its physical, emotional demands and lack of autonomy (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993). From Karasek's (1979) *Job-Demands Control* model, employees without control or scope, and with high demands, will experience strain rather than challenge (Terry and Jimmieson, 1999). Job demands have been shown to have a direct positive influence on the burnout dimensions (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Maslach et al., 2001). However, job resources are found to be a better predictor of work engagement than job demands, in particular the resource of job control (Mauno et al., 2007). Individual voice mechanisms are considered as a personal resource, scope, responsible autonomy, or job control. This has strong implications for HFLH work engagement and the need for employee scope or autonomy or control through such voice mechanisms. This leads to the first Hypothesis*:*

H1: The use of individual voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies

With regard to collective voice and HFLH work engagement, the argument arises whether collective voice is an effective means to minimise the adverse aspects of emotional labour (Korczynski, 2002). While it does provide a means to tackle the low pay of the industry, it also provides a 'status shield' against the dark side of the customer (Hochschild, 1983; 1996; Leidner, 1993). CMEs are more disposed to using collective and (often complimentary) representational forms of voice (Willman et al., 2007). However, voice mechanisms might not always be desired in many LME hospitality organisations for the purposes of exploiting employees for short-term high shareholder returns (Marchington, 2007). Indeed, HFLH, as an atypical and competitive sector, with low wages and high turnover, may not even follow the typical institutional arrangements of CMEs and LMEs. This possible 'dualisation' of the low-waged service sector is argued by authors Jaehrling and Méhaut (2013), who suggest 'varieties of capital avoidance' rather than deregulation policies. However, where collective voice mechanisms do exist, it allows employees to have a say without victimisation (Appelbaum, 2000). This is particularly important within the fragmented and transient area of HFLH work.

Despite this, research[7] has shown that the strongest reason for union membership is *"support if I have a problem at work"* than the collective bargaining function of "pay" (Waddington, 2015). Marchington et al. (2004) caution that insecure or short-term contract workers might have little enticement to make their voice heard. HFLH employees are afforded protection to exercise collective voice through mechanisms in the more highly regulated CME collective voice climate. In addition, voice provided by the long-term institutional orientation of CMEs may 'regulate' and provide a 'status shield' for HFLH employees (Korczynski, 2002). This supports both the safety and availability psychological conditions of engagement (Kahn, 1990) leading to the below Hypothesis.

H2: The use of collective voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies

Similarly, in the psychological arena 'demands' and 'resources' are often referred to as 'challenges' and 'skills', leading to optimal experience or work engagement. Here, personal control, personal resources, supervisory support, and feedback are more aligned with individual voice than collective voice. Rich et al. (2010) found engagement as a mediator in relationships between value congruence, perceived organisational support, core self-evaluations, and the two aspects of job performance (task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour). Furthermore, Korczynski (2002) supports the effectiveness of individual voice mechanisms over collective voice for HFLH employees in preventing customer disillusionment. On the basis of these points, individual voice mechanisms may be more important with regard to HFLH work engagement than collective mechanisms, leading to Hypothesis 3.

H3: The use of individual voice mechanisms has a greater influence on HFLH work engagement than the use of collective voice mechanisms across different market economies.

Following these Hypotheses, the chapter now focuses on the second area for analysis identified in chapter two: skill learning systems.

[7] Research comprised 14 union organisations across 11 CMEs and 1 LME (U.K.).

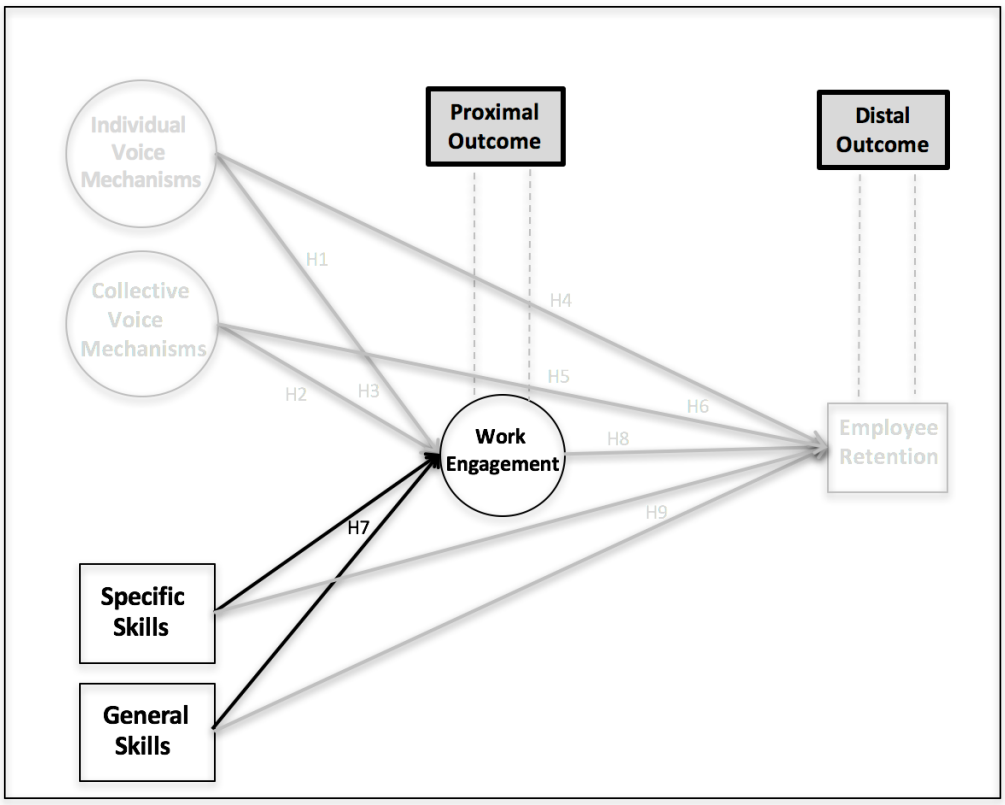


Figure 3.3: Skill Learning Systems as an Antecedent to the HFLH outcome of Work Engagement

3.4 Skill Learning Systems

VoC dichotomy proposes either specific training (which encompasses vocational training and certified apprenticeship) and general education (often supplemented with on-the-job training and work-experience in a different company). The specific skills of CMEs and general skills of LMEs are investigated with regard to HFLH work engagement. In the LME context, 'the dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers' (Braverman 1974, 113) is particularly applicable with regard to the prevailing low-skill perception attributed to HFLH in society. Hospitality organisations seek to lower costs, and minimise government intervention whilst maintaining flexibility (Lucio, 2013). It is not just employers within LMEs that are central to this dissociation, it also appears to pervade the public attitude and

perception of HFLH workers in most CMEs also. The question arises whether CMEs with more organised and practical institutional skills framework, supporting high-skill development, are perceived accordingly within the HFLH sector. The next section seeks to establish whether differences in skill learning systems across VoC may influence HFLH work engagement. Firstly, we examine the CME typology and its institutional focus on specific skills.

3.4.1 Specific Skills

Specific skills are defined as 'employable in a particular firm, industry or occupation' (Cusack et al., 2006, 367). This skill system associated with CMEs is institutionally co-ordinated and implemented through apprenticeship or vocational training systems. This allows workers to avoid accepting other jobs unrelated to their skills during recessionary periods through appropriate social welfare systems (Mares, 2001; Tåhlin, 2008). The VoC literature, which focuses on skill specificity, is mainly founded on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88). The ISCO-88 employs a hierarchical structure which groups comparable skills. Skill specificity is calculated by dividing the absolute skill specialisation by the ISCO measure of the skill level (Cusack et al., 2006). Estevez-Abe et al. (2001) in Hall and Soskice (2001) note that 'specific skills' are usually authoritatively endorsed whether apprenticeship based or vocational education training. The 'specific' category of CMEs encompasses three different skill regimes. Busemeyer (2009) categorises these as the segmentalist (firm-based) of Japan, the integrationist (school-based) of Sweden, and the differentiated (work-place based occupational) of Germany.

Germany employs a work-based apprenticeship system that is drawn up by employer associations, employers, and other stakeholders. However, as the industrial sector shrinks and the service sector expands rapidly, Culpepper et al. (2008) have noticed that there is increasing levels of shirking. In 2004, the German government suggested a compulsory training levy on companies who were not hiring enough apprenticeship trainees. In Scandinavia, the specific skills terrain differs considerably also; Norway and Finland have distinct skill systems and Denmark's system is more aligned with Germany. The latter involves a strong focus on employer influenced apprenticeship programmes (Dobbins and Busemeyer, 2014). This compares with the more 'statist' orientated skill system strategies of

Sweden, where strong union and social government policies minimise employer influence (Busemeyer, 2009).

With regard to HFLH, it must be noted that while CME countries such as Denmark, Sweden and Japan do not have widespread general hospitality and tourism management courses, they do concentrate more specifically on vocational skills training for both sectors (Lucas, 2004). HFLH skills under the tourism umbrella are often supported through state agencies viewing them as strategic for a developed economy (Baum and Szivas, 2008). The CME example of Switzerland, which is esteemed for its quality of HFLH, decentralised vocational training law in the 1930s, providing educational responsibility to each canton. From this, it has created 'centres of excellence' where Swiss hospitality schools now offer accreditation and alliances with similar institutions in LME economies such as Australia and the UK.

The main danger (firms exploiting the training investments of other firms by poaching their employees) is mitigated by CME control by employer associations and trade unions. The German example of CME institutional supervision, requirements, intra-industry collaboration, training strategies, protocols and apprenticeships while limiting free-riding is often used to illustrate this (Hall and Soskice, 2001; Whitley, 1999). The next section focuses on general education more prominent in LMEs and which, at high levels, acts to lower the amount of further training required.

3.4.2 General Skills

As Crouch (2005) summarises, skill creation depends on institutions and a high level of skills in the work place will lead to high quality employment in wealthy nations. The state often encourages vocational training as up-skilling the labour force and a means of improving the economy of a country (Lucas, 2004). However, without the institutional support present in CMEs, LMEs are not incentivised to invest in training and instead aim to lower costs in poaching trained employees. This results in a low skill, low cost, and low productivity environment. This is contrasted with the high-wage, high skill, and high productivity of CME firms. Within LMEs, McLaughlin (2013) questions the prospects of 'productivity coalitions' (co-operative alliances) to encourage vocational training. Many LME countries such as the US, UK, Ireland, and Australia operate mainly voluntarist, uncoordinated strategies, despite attempts at implementing robust specific vocational training systems.

An example of an LME 'specific training' effort is the 'National Vocational Qualifications' (NVQ) in the UK. NVQ was largely criticised, where 'ambitious' targets', even if achieved, would result in significant gaps in training (Lucas, 2004). Similarly, in Ireland, the short-term shareholder approach where profits are often paid out as dividends ensure LMEs almost 'lock-in' institutional factors such as low-wage, low skill labour (Kemp and Loorbach, 2006; Evans and Stroud, 2014). LME/CME comparisons of Ireland and Denmark demonstrate that LME (Irish) efforts of non-market co-ordination (Skillnets) (even during years of economic prosperity) lacked institutional support to ensure success (McLaughlin, 2013).

3.4.3 Skills Systems as potential antecedent to HFLH Work Engagement

Hospitality, despite being central to many 'high skill' economies, is often loosely described as an industry with 'low skill' jobs (Baum, 2002). The argument that 'low-skill' services are more suited to general training has been argued by Martin and Knudsen (2010). This argument, however, omits the complex tacit knowledge required by emotional labour, where 'people skills' are greatly underestimated or not recognised as a skill (Hochschild, 1983; Hochschild, 1979). Even though the LME 'general' skills versus the CME 'specific' skills debate may be pre-determined by the respective institutional complementariness (Hall and Soskice, 2001), the effect on HFLH work engagement is complex. Research has indicated that, in the HFLH context, rewards and training may moderate the influence of job-demand on attitudinal constructs such as satisfaction (Chiang et al., 2014). Crouch et al. (2001) view vocational training's static concept of the occupation as being at odds with the flexibility required in dynamic service organisations. Another argument favouring 'specific' skill orientation as most suitable for HFLH concerns the areas of continuous training and coaching. In their study (using a JD-R engagement model) of fast-food employees (n=42), Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) were able to predict day level work engagement from day coaching. Within the VoC context, Germany shares the CME emphasis on initial vocational training with the Nordic countries. Germany, however, lags behind the Nordic countries with regard to continuous training (Gallie, 2007). Apart from the specific/general debate, it can be seen that HFLH requires skills such as cultural intelligence (Crowne, 2008; Alon and Higgins, 2005). This is often developed through experience within the industry, work-placement abroad, or

multi-cultural learning environments. The next section discusses how specific skills may provide 'social cohesion', 'identity', and 'meaningfulness' required for HFLH work engagement.

3.4.4 HFLH social cohesion, identity and meaningfulness from Specific Skills

Durkheim (1956) previously emphasised the values and beliefs instilled through the 'socialisation' inherent in the process of education. The idea that specific vocational training may provide increased 'social cohesion' and the ability to work together with 'self-respect' is also explored by Gingell and Winch (2002, 222). HFLH employees might benefit from such 'social cohesion' (Heraty et al., 2000) and 'identity' that vocational training provides against the industry's low skill social stigma prominent in western cultures (Duncan et al., 2013). An example is the high 'social recognition' that a vocational training / apprenticeship (*Breuf*) commands in the German context, particularly due to occupational socialisation (Brockmann, 2013). Vocational training programmes, even in LMEs, provide similar social cohesion (Heraty et al., 2000). This is consistent with the engagement's psychological conditions of 'availability' and 'meaningfulness' (Kahn, 1990). Kahn (1990, 705) also describes 'availability' as 'levels of confidence … about fit with social systems'. LMEs also, albeit in their limited scope, provide these conditions through vocational skills. Therefore, across the VoC context of LMEs and CMEs, specific training may provide much needed meaningfulness, social cohesion (Heraty et al., 2000), and identity (e.g. Sosteric, 1996) for HFLH workers.

Against this, there is the argument that general skills may be more suitable for HFLH due to the social and communication skills gained from high quality general educational institutions. Secondly, general skills allow for the acquisition of broad-based skills suitable for progression and mobility and can be combined with firm specific 'on-the-job' training (Martin and Knudsen, 2010; Thelen, 2012). Notwithstanding these arguments, within HFLH, it is possible that the 'dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers' (Smith, 2015; Elger, 1982; Braverman, 1974) may be more prominent within the market driven context of LMEs. Gingell and Winch (2002) adds that there may exist an incompatibility of potential 'social cohesion' with 'individualism' in LMEs such as the U.K. and the U.S. Across these countries, the LP seeks to remove any such form of control (e.g. social cohesion) from

employees. On the contrary, the institutional arrangements of CMEs ensure that specific skills are protected (e.g. from poaching), recognised, and endorsed. However, much of the foundations of this research relate to specific skills of the manufacturing industry and services and, in particular, HFLH may prove to be an exceptional sector. Overall, it can be argued that specific skills (manifested as either vocational training or apprenticeships) appear to satisfy the psychological conditions necessary for work engagement. By connecting the LP with the skills of the workers through institutionally supported vocational training, CMEs might foster both meaningfulness from the low skill stigma and safety from the social cohesion.

Table 3.1: Source and Outcomes of HFLH Job Skills

Skill Specificity	HFLH Sources	HFLH Outcomes
Specific	• Vocational Education • Apprenticeship	• Potential social cohesion • Authoritatively endorsed
	• Work Experience in a different company • On the job training	• Provides a focus for existing general skills • Provides a considerable signal if from a highly respected and recognised organisation. • Flexibility (albeit 'on the job training' has organisational-specific components)
General	• General Education (e.g. Degree in Business, History etc.)	• Provides general interpersonal skills • Allows flexibility to change career • Often provides cross-cultural communication skills important for hospitality.

However, given the transient nature and low-skill perception of HFLH, the value of 'on-the-job' training for HFLH employees is questionable. This stems from the fact that it is not authoritatively endorsed and any skills acquired are to be taken at 'face-

value' (in the absence of references) from the word of the employee. The argument against this is that 'work experience' in a different company may provide an indicator as to the employee skill. However, this is contingent on the company in question having a respected standard and providing a reference to support this training and ability. The status and recognition provided by certified apprenticeship or vocational training may be more important than 'on the job training' regarding work engagement. Related to this, is work engagement's psychological condition of 'safety', which Kahn (1990, 705) describes as 'the sense of being able to employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career'.

In addition to this psychological dimension of 'safety', vocational training may also satisfy the 'meaningfulness' dimension of work engagement; 'formal positions that offer more or less attractive identities, through fit with a preferred self-image and status' (Kahn, 1990, 705).

From this, the below Hypothesis is proposed.

H7: HFLH employees with specific training skills are more engaged than HFLH employees with general training skills

From questioning the potential of voice mechanisms and skill learning systems, as antecedents for work engagement, the chapter now moves to examine the potential of work engagement, voice mechanisms and skill learning systems as potential antecedents to employee retention. Employee retention builds on the 'mobility-power' discussion (chapter 2) as a key facet of the LP, and one which is exercised at high levels in HFLH work.

3.5 Employee Retention as a distal HFLH outcome

Chapter 2 outlines the high levels of 'mobility power' as a LP indeterminacy being exercised by HFLH employees. In certain parts of hospitality, voluntary turnover exceeds 100% leading to operational challenges for firms (Eberly et al., 2009). As discussed, certain hospitality organisations embrace turnover and plan for it, even going so far as to encourage this within employee personal development. Notwithstanding this, chapter 2 also stresses the considerable recruitment costs, supervision costs, and knowledge-base implications associated with high levels of turnover. This is unrelenting, given the competitive nature of the hospitality sector,

where profit margins are often relatively low and where seasonal liquidity issues are common (Hua et al., 2013). With turnover estimates from LME industry examples (U.S.) industry being up to two thirds, annually, the focus on employee retention may be key for survival (Eberly et al., 2009).

Earlier literature on voluntary employee turnover comprised the work of 'organisational equilibrium' by March and Simon (1958) and the balance of inducement utilities over contribution utilities. As research continued, many theoretical models were developed including the 'employee withdrawal decision process', by Mobley (1977). This model was proposed in response to the moderate relationship between satisfaction and turnover (Locke, 1976). There are various influences on an employee's intention to leave, including: compensation level, age, gender, education, union presence, (Cotton and Tuttle, 1986), and perceptions of organisational culture (Sheridan, 1992). Also linked to the March and Simon (1958) research is the role of alternative opportunities or ease of opportunities. While employee turnover is usually measured as perceived alternatives based on employee perception, 'alternative opportunities' may explain the stronger relationship between objective measures of economic opportunities (e.g. employment rate) (Kirschenbaum and Mano-Negrin, 1999; Boswell et al., 2008).

Griffeth et al. (2000) updated the original (Griffeth and Hom, 1995) meta-study and reconfirmed previously suggested proximal precursors of turnover. These include job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job search, alternative comparison, withdrawal cognitions, and quit intentions (e.g. Griffeth and Hom, 1995; Price and Mueller, 1986; Mowday et al., 1982). Their findings, with regard to the distal determinants, are more applicable to management. These comprise features of the work environment such as job content, stress, work-group cohesion, autonomy, leadership and, to a lesser extent, distributive justice and promotional prospects (Griffeth, 2000). Management of turnover becomes more complex when applied to the transient HFLH industry with its distinct characteristics.

The next section considers employee retention as a distant outcome and investigates voice mechanisms, skill learning systems and the proximal outcome work engagement as potential antecedents.

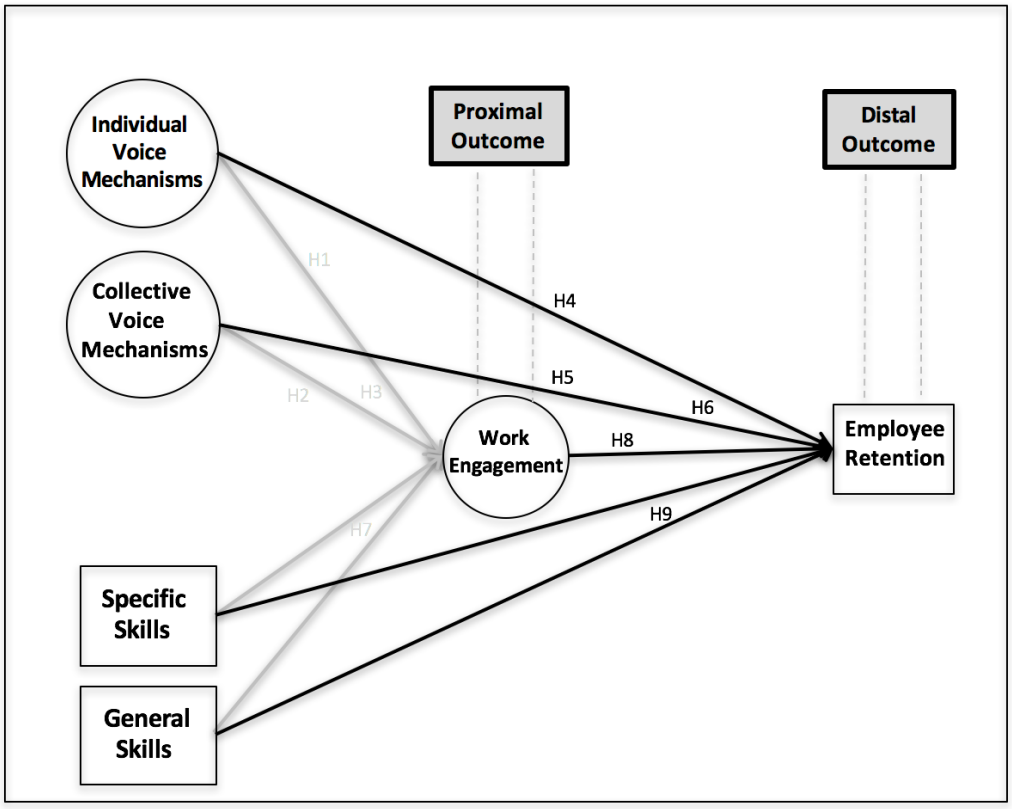


Figure 3.4: Voice Mechanisms, Skill Learning Systems and Work engagement as potential antecedents to the HFLH distal outcome Employee Retention

3.5.1 Work Engagement as an antecedent to Employee Retention

HFLH is generally perceived publically as a low skill, low status profession. A weaker relationship has been found between organisational commitment and turnover for low-status occupations compared with higher status occupations (Cohen and Hudecek, 1993). This methodology involves the division of 36 independent samples into blue-collar and white-collar categories and, within these occupational categories, no significant difference was found between clerical employees and managers etc. (Cohen and Hudecek, 1993). However, these occupational differences emerge (Basford et al., 2012) in high-status occupations, where levels of management support (paralleled with personal resources) have a stronger impact on intent to stay.

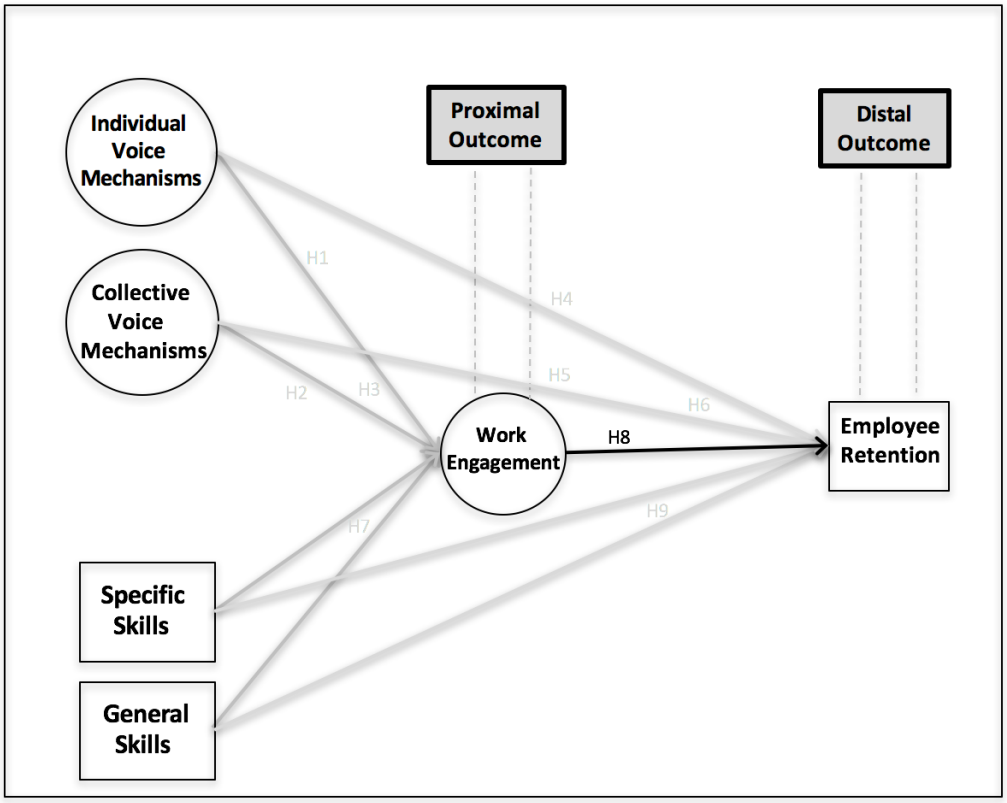


Figure 3.5: Work engagement (proximal outcome) as a potential antecedent to the HFLH distal outcome Employee Retention

This research examines voluntary turnover or 'exercised' mobility-power, as explained in chapter 1, as opposed to layoffs and redundancies. Nonetheless, it is necessary to explain the general turnover differences across the VoC dichotomy. Through institutional co-ordination, CMEs are more likely to make use of numerical flexibility without engaging in employee layoffs (Johnson et al., 2009; Hunt, 2000). In addition, CME's employment protection is well documented (Streeck, 1984; Hall and Soskice, 2001). This can be further expanded into three distinct areas such as legal employment protection, social protection and active labour market policy (Amable, 2016). While these may not impact directly on voluntary employee turnover, it may influence the portions of part-time and flexitime work within HFLH.

Despite research (e.g. Hersch, 1995) that demonstrates that over-educated employees have greater intention to leave, over-educated employees have other advantages. At such high levels, these highly educated (from general education) employees require less 'on-the-job' training and benefit from greater promotional

prospects. Despite these organisational benefits, their mobility prospects appear less certain. Longitudinal research in the LME context of Australia by McGuinness and Wooden (2009) confirm this mobility intention amongst 'over-skilled' employees but warn that the majority of moves do not produce enhanced skill matches. They also note that, while highly educated employees are more likely to want to leave an organisation, their confidence of finding an improved job match is relatively low (McGuinness and Wooden, 2009). This has important implications for HFLH, where much of the focus remains on the retention of highly educated employees (Blomme et al., 2010).

It has been found that work engagement is positively related to lower turnover intention (Harter et al., 2002; Halbesleben, 2010; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Shuck et al., 2011). Nevertheless, this might not be the case within HFLH due to the difficultly in generating meaningfulness and voice in the 'transient labour'. Despite its subjective nature, turnover intention is considered the strongest proxy of actual turnover (Griffeth and Hom, 1995). Improving on this, this thesis is focusing on actual employee turnover (its antipode: employee retention) rather than its proxy - turnover intention. Given HFLH's precarious nature and turnover culture (Iverson and Deery, 1997; Dawson et al., 2011), this research seeks to test work engagement's possible influence on the distal outcome of employee retention.

H8: HFLH work engagement is positively related to the employee retention across different market economies.

3.5.2 Voice Mechanisms and Skill Learning Systems as antecedents to Employee Retention

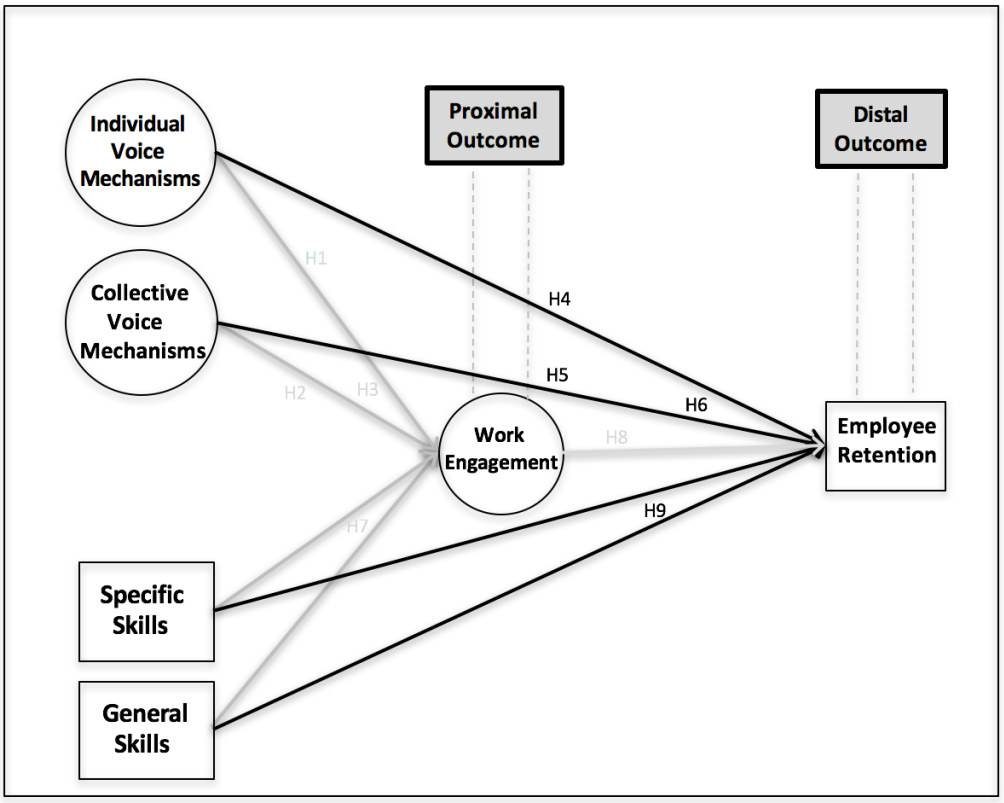


Figure 3.6 Voice Mechanisms and Skill Learning Systems as antecedents to HFLH employee retention

A deeper understanding about the dynamics of employee turnover within the HFLH sector across different modes of capitalism will allow for hospitality organisations to retain high quality HFLH employees. It will also help to reduce the ongoing recruitment, training, and supervision costs associated with high turnover. The organisation's knowledge base will also be afforded more protection while the morale of existing employees will not suffer from constantly retraining and watching colleagues exercising their mobility power on a frequent basis.

3.5.2.1 Voice Mechanisms as potential antecedents to Employee Retention

While Budd (2014: 478-479) criticises the over-reliance of Hirshman's (1970) approach to voice, he does call for further research into the type of voice and how these can act as a 'counterweight against exit'. Instead of the option of voice or exit,

this research proposes voice mechanisms as a means of scope and, therefore, as a potential antecedent to employee retention

H4: HFLH individual voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across market economies

With regard to collective voice, organisations (in CMEs) are often faced with a 'make or buy' decision (Harcourt et al., 2004). This decision involves whether to buy in representation through a union (including its transaction costs and third-party risk) or 'make' its own representative channel. The latter often incurs its own costs and possible conflict of interests regarding employees. While this usually can be criticised as simplistic, a combination of mechanisms may be used. Furthermore, it demonstrates how the firm may mitigate the risks of employees utilising their trump card of collectively withdrawing labour completely. This leads to the below Hypotheses 5 and 6:

> ***H5: HFLH collective voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across different market economies***
>
> ***H6: HFLH collective voice mechanisms have a greater influence on employee retention than individual voice mechanisms***

The next section examines skill learning systems as a potential antecedent to HFLH employee retention.

3.5.2.2 Skill Learning Systems as a potential antecedent to Employee Retention

Busemeyer (2009) notes that VoC could focus more on the significance of authoritative certification mechanisms regarding skills. This is particularly evident in 'on-the-job' training which lies outside the skill system. It is firm specific and is usually required at higher levels in the more 'general' skill orientated LMEs. Similarly, while 'work-experience in a different company' may not have the legitimacy of either certified apprenticeship or vocational training, it does provide an important signal or endorsement depending on the previous organisation. It is only realised when an employee exercises their mobility power and leaves for a similar organisation. On-the-job training, however, lies within the firm, and may involve formal 'training programs' or indeed the 'informal processes of experience' (Mincer, 1962, 50). Gary Becker (1964) argues that skills may be described as 'specific' if of value to the

particular firm. The more it increases employee productivity equally in more firms, the more it would move towards the 'general' category. Based on this, and the need to supplement such 'general skills' with signalling from specific 'on-the-job' specific training from different companies, the following *Hypothesis* is proposed:

> ***H9: HFLH employees with specific training are less likely to exercise their mobility power compared with HFLH employees with general skills.***

3.6 Chapter 3 Conclusion

This chapter began by revisiting chapter 2, and developing further, the distinct characteristics of HFLH, which make it suitable for analysis through the LP perspective. In addition, by examining these alienating features of HFLH such as low-skill perception, erosion of identity, high emotional demands, and non-standard work-times, a sector-appropriate outcome is chosen. This proximal outcome, work engagement, is chosen for its potential to counteract these alienating characterises and for its ability to promote citizenship behaviour (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010) and customer loyalty (Salanova et al., 2005b). These are summarised in table 3.2, below.

Table 3.2: Sectoral specific outcomes for analysis of HFLH employment relationship

Sectoral Outcomes	LP	Sectoral specific benefits
Work Engagement	To counteract the 'alienating' characteristics and demands of HFLH	- Citizenship behaviour important considering the importance of ambidexterity within HFLH (Eichfeld et al., 2006; Murcott, 2007) - Customer Loyalty (Salanova et al., 2005b) - Reduce the stress and emotional demands of HFLH (Britt et al, 2005)
Employee Retention	'mobility power' is considerably exercised within HFLH	Lower level of erosion of organisational knowledge base Lower training, supervision and recruitment costs

3.7 Literature Review Conclusion

From determining the most suitable dependent variable, engagement, this chapter revisits chapter 2, where the results from the VoC/LP analysis are examined as potential antecedents to work engagement. Firstly, voice is critically analysed and examined as an antecedent to engagement based on the dimensions of individual and collective mechanisms. Secondly, skill learning systems are examined through the dichotomy of specific and general skills as potential antecedents to engagement. Finally, the chapter revisits 'mobility power' from chapter 2, where it examines employee retention as a second or distal outcome by investigating if skill learning systems, voice mechanisms and engagement as potential antecedents to retention. Hypotheses are proposed to help answer the research questions and the next chapter outlines the proposed research methodology to both test these Hypotheses and answer the research questions.

Following critical analysis, it proposed VoC as the most suitable CC tool for this research. From a synergy point of view, the LP perspective is seen as a lens for VoC theory. From identifying parallels between both VoC theory and the LP perspective, the variables of voice and skill learning systems were chosen as the most suitable to examine HFLH. Chapter 3 focuses on the HFLH outcomes. The first outcome, work engagement, is particularly suitable for HFLH.

Work engagement is associated with citizenship behaviour, discretion, and increased sales from upselling (Eichfeld et al., 2006; Murcott, 2007) necessary for effective HFLH. Work engagement may also reduce both the stress and emotional demands of HFLH (Britt et al., 2005). Engagement as a construct has had considerable popularity both in academia and industry. This has led to numerous conceptualisations and definitions for the construct. Despite this, the most used and valid scale used is the UWES scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003), which refers to the construct as 'work engagement'. Both its conceptualisation and scale align with other conceptualisations and measures of engagement.

Chapter 3 investigates voice mechanisms and skill learning systems as potential antecedents for HFLH work engagement. From this, Hypotheses are proposed. Firstly, regarding individual (formal and informal) and collective voice mechanisms and HFLH work engagement are proposed. Secondly, different skills systems in

HFLH across the VoC economies are investigated as antecedents for HFLH work engagement.

Chapter 3 then examines the role of employee retention in the context of LP theory. From chapter 2, employee 'mobility power' was described as an indeterminacy within the LP, where employees have the power to leave an organisation. This mobility-power is exercised considerably within HFLH, leading to employee retention becoming a key outcome in the HFLH literature (Nadiri and Tanova, 2010; Felps et al., 2009; Deery, 2008; Cho et al., 2006; Carbery et al., 2003). HFLH employees often use these jobs as a 'stop-gap' while pursuing academic studies or job search (Iverson and Deery, 1997) Notwithstanding this, employee retention among the remaining employees may signal an engaged workforce. Chris Smith (2006) notes differences in this 'mobility-effort' in sectors, industries, and forms of capitalism. From this, Hypotheses are proposed to examine voice mechanisms, skill learning systems, and engagement as antecedents for HFLH retention. In summary, this chapter concludes by restating the primary research question of this thesis:

What factors influence work engagement and employee retention in high-end front-line hospitality in Ireland and Sweden?

From this, the two supplementary research questions are as follows:

1. **How does a variety of voice mechanisms utilised in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**

    H1: The use of individual voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies

    H2: The use of collective voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies

    H3: The use of individual voice mechanisms has a greater influence on HFLH work engagement than the use of collective voice mechanisms across different market economies.

    H4: HFLH individual voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across market economies

    H5: HFLH collective voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across different market economies

    H6: HFLH collective voice mechanisms have a greater influence on employee retention than individual voice mechanisms

2. **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**

H7: HFLH employees with specific skills are more engaged than HFLH employees with general skills across different market economies.

H8: HFLH work engagement is positively related to employee retention across market economies.

H9: HFLH employees with specific training are less likely to exercise their mobility power compared with HFLH employees with general skills.

The below conceptual framework (figure 3.7) summarises how these Hypotheses will help answer the primary and supplementary research questions. It also demonstrates the literature review structure and how chapter 2 provides the basis for chapter 3, which focused on the key performance drivers for the sector: work engagement and employee retention. This theoretically-derived model is presented below in its most fundamental form. It will need to be developed further with control variables, which will be discussed in the following chapters.

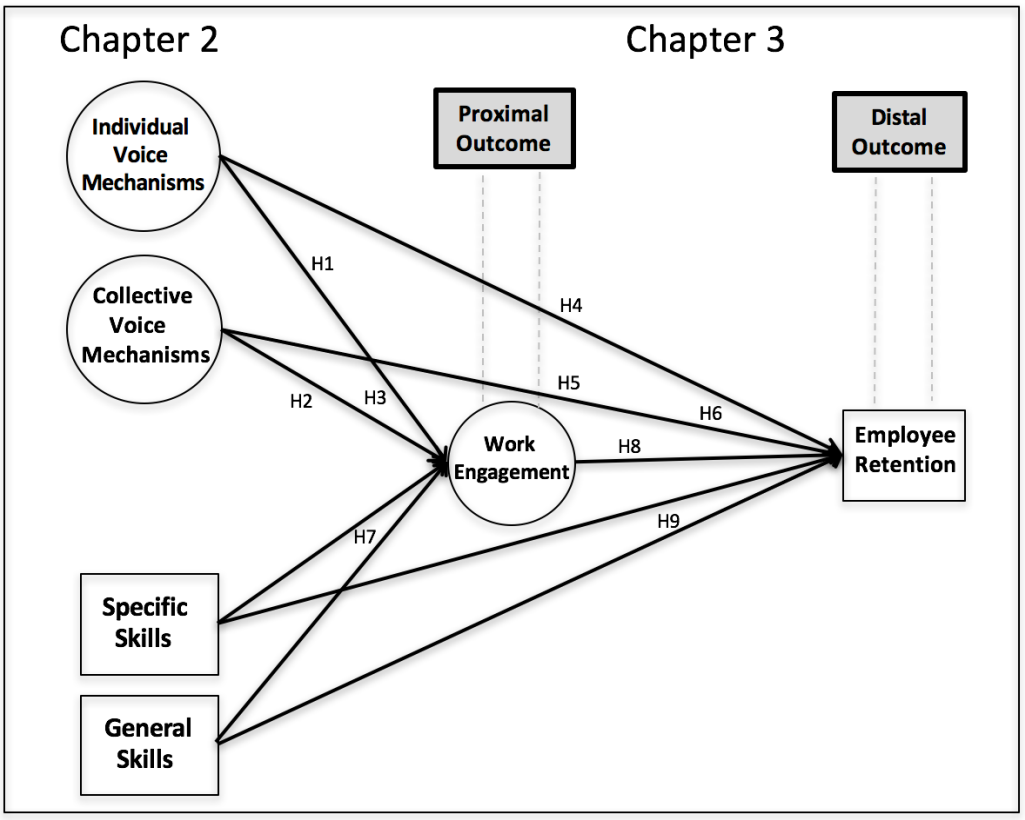


Figure 3.7 Conceptual model based on Literature Review for answering research question and supplementary research questions

Table 3.3: Theoretical Lacunae and Contributions to Literature

Theoretical Lacuna	Contribution to literature
Connective tissue called for by Thompson and Vincent (2010) and Hauptmeier and Vidal (2014) between the micro processes of the LP perspective and broader macro comparative political economy.	This research provides a conceptual model to contribute to such connective tissue by identifying **commonalities and parallels** such as: Dissociation of LP from worker skills, skill learning systems, responsible autonomy and scope as voice mechanisms.
Sector' studies have been neglected in comparative employee and industrial relations due to a 'national' focus. This is despite most co-ordination taking place at sectoral level (Bechter et al. 2012).	This research builds a **sector-specific conceptual model** based on theoretical frameworks most suitable for **analysis** of HFLH with sector-suitable **outcomes** of work engagement and employee retention.
There is no research comparing differences in **skill system formation** (general and specific) and their influence on **work engagement**. HFLH among its characteristics suffers from a low skill perception from both public and management.	This research empirically examines whether **vocational training** may provide **work engagement** in HFLH compared with general skills. It does so with reference to LP dynamics and, in particular, the 'dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers' (Braverman 1974).
There are still relatively few studies concerning **voice and work engagement**. Rees et al. (2013) voice behaviour, trust and engagement across two organisations, while Cheng et al. (2013) surveyed managers and subordinates in examining voice behaviour, leader-member exchange and engagement organisations in Taiwan.	This research considers **voice mechanisms** and work engagement. It also considers voice as 'mechanisms' congruent to 'scope' or 'responsible autonomy' necessary within the HFLH LP. The only cross-cultural study Kwon et al. (2016), focused on was a conceptual model for direct and indirect voice, calling for research regarding **collective voice** and work engagement.
From examining the Brewster et al. (2007) voice mechanisms, there is a gap and indeed opportunity to explore **sector specific voice mechanisms and skill formation practices** appropriate for managers of 'high-end' hospitality organisations management and their HFLH employees.	This research identifies **new innovative voice mechanisms and skill formation practices** in 'high-end' hospitality organisations across different market contexts. These are identified through multi-stakeholder semi-structured interviews, carried out with reference to the outcomes of work engagement and employee retention.

The next chapter seeks to outline the research design and methodology undertaken

to answer these Hypotheses and research questions. These contribute knowledge to the theoretical lacunae in the above table (Table 3.3).

CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH DESIGN & METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This aim of this thesis is to investigate the impact of voice mechanisms and skill learning systems on HFLH work engagement and retention across market economies. Nine Hypotheses are proposed to help answer the following supplementary research questions:

1. **How does a variety of voice mechanisms utilised in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**
2. **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**

This chapter describes the research design and methodology in eight stages.

Firstly, this chapter begins with a summary of the theoretical framework, research questions, and Hypotheses. Secondly, the epistemological and theoretical perspectives are summarised, particularly those suitable to the use of LP theory across the VoC framework. Thirdly, research paradigms and philosophical perspectives are explored with regard to the most suitable for this research. Fourthly, the methodological strategy describes the post-positivist nature of the research and the appropriateness for using a mixed methods strategy in addressing the research questions. The fifth section concerns the research design and the rationale for choosing each of the comparative capitalism examples: Ireland and Sweden. Both countries are then examined under their institutional arrangements surrounding voice mechanisms and skill systems. Following this, the chapter examines the HFLH populations of Ireland and Sweden and the basis for stratification and clustering for the samples. Finally, the chapter outlines the data collection instrument and construct measurements. This involves using existing metrics such as the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES – 9: Appendix B) and Collective and Individual Voice Measures (adapted from Brewster et al. (2007): Appendix A).

4.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses

This aim of this study is to investigate the impact of voice mechanisms and skill learning systems on HFLH work engagement and employee retention. Nine main Hypotheses are used to help answer the first three of the following supplementary research questions:

Main Research Question

What factors influence work engagement and employee retention in high-end front-line hospitality in Ireland and Sweden?

Supplementary Research Questions

1. **How does a variety of voice mechanisms utilised in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**

   H1: The use of individual voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies

   H2: The use of collective voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies

   H3: The use of individual voice mechanisms has a greater influence on HFLH work engagement than the use of collective voice mechanisms across different market economies.

   H4: HFLH individual voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across market economies

   H5: HFLH collective voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across different market economies

   H6: HFLH collective voice mechanisms have a greater influence on employee retention than individual voice mechanisms

2. **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**

   H7: HFLH employees with specific skills are more engaged than HFLH employees with general skills across different market economies.

   H8: HFLH work engagement is positively related to the employee retention across market economies.

H9: HFLH employees with specific training are less likely to exercise their mobility power compared with HFLH employees with general skills.

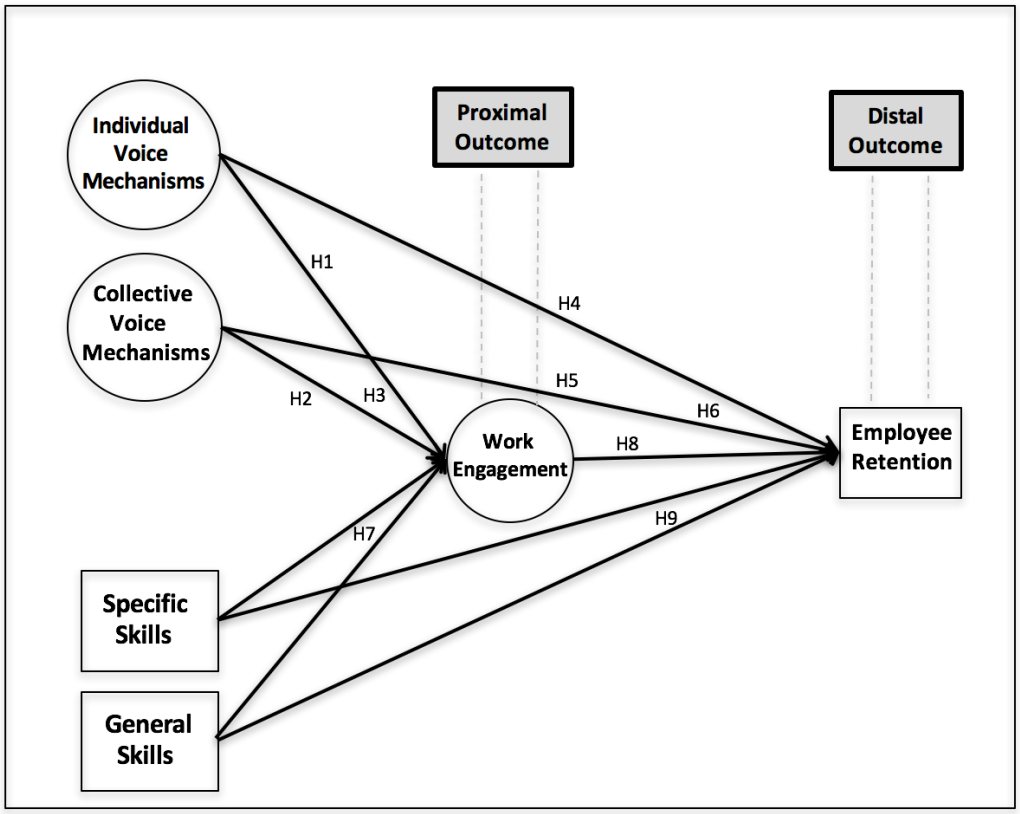


Figure 4.1: Voice Mechanisms and Skill Learning Systems as Antecedents to HFLH Work Engagement and Employee Retention

4.3 Epistemology and Theoretical Perspective

This section explores the foundations of micro-macro agency (namely, the LP perspective and comparative institutional analysis) used in this thesis to inform the understanding of the HFLH employment relationship. It examines possible antecedents of work engagement and employee retention in HFLH.

In doing so, there is a contribution to theory in providing 'connective tissue'. This conceptual model contribution of this thesis is twofold. Firstly, the LP perspective, which provides a suitable means of examining the HFLH employment relationship, is viewed under a comparative capitalism theoretical umbrella through the use of voice mechanisms and skills systems. Secondly, the model seeks to extend the VoC perspective towards the employment relationship using the LP perspective as a lens.

4.3.1 Labour Process Analysis and Comparative Capitalism

The terms 'micro and macro' is often referred to as 'individual and collective'; this research will refer to them as the former to avoid conflation with constructs for employee voice and employee relations. The difference between micro and macro has often been suggested to relate to a 'difference of scale' (Bouvier, 2011). French philosopher and sociologist, Emile Durkheim (1893), initially highlighted the importance of structure, before explaining (1895) the significance of '*social facts*' in understanding the behaviour of human beings. These were described as general ways of acting in society (independent of individual expressions). The collective action of individuals is closer to the macro level than the micro; this can be exemplified in the power of a trade union negotiating, rather than the individual employee (Münch and Smelser, 1987). While viewing this under a lens of conflict theory, it can be argued that the individuals are often required to acquire power through collective means. Sociologist, Erving Goffman (1955), argued that universal human nature is not a very human thing. With regard to capitalism, some authors (Miliband, 1977; Callinicos, 2012) argue that the combination with Marxist theories (such as LP) and politics is not a straightforward relationship. VoC utilises institutions which regulate human actions to understand differences in comparative political economy and capitalism. This theory, which explains the, shaping of society through institutions, is known as the neo-institutional theory. The strength of the VoC model lies in its understandings of power and distributional justice, allowing it to both consider stability and change (Thelen, 2010).

Rubery (2010, 449) summarises that 'in order to comprehend differences in the form and function of the employment relationship it is essential to analyse the employment relationship embedded in its societal environment'.

4.3.2 Proximal Outcome - Work Engagement in HFLH

Much of this research is consistent with the separate paradigm of positive psychology, where the construct of work engagement emanates from (Kahneman et al., 1999; Kahn, 1992; Kahn, 1990). The primary outcome is that work engagement may reduce the fatigue and erosion of identity associated with HFLH's emotional demands (Beal et al., 2013). In Western Cultures, the pursuit of positive emotions often led to an out-casting of those who display negative emotions or who are on a

quest to increase self-esteem. The goals of positive emotions are not as prominent in collectivist cultures, with Japan being an example where self-appraisals are taken as a path to self-improvement (Youssef-Morgan et al., 2013). The use of Western standards and theories for the investigation of human behaviour (assuming that any finding can be generalized to all humans regardless of culture) has been labelled the 'etic' approach (Berry, 1989; Berry, 1969). The mainstream approach of the 'universalistic' or 'derived etic' perspective focuses more on the detection of psychological differences related to cultural traits. The 'emic' approach relates more to each individual culture and how local people think (Kottak, 1996). An example of such culture-specific studies is 'indigenous psychologies', focusing on human behaviour that is native and not transported from other regions (Kim and Berry, 1993). Authors (e.g. Mathews, 2012) have stressed that a combined etic and emic approach is preferable to the analysis of subjective wellbeing (including work engagement) to enhance cultural understanding.

4.3.3 Distal Outcome –Employee Retention in HFLH

Examining employee retention within a particular focus across two contrasting market economies requires careful analysis. While existing VoC logic focused on manufacturing examples, where CME Germany, the services sector and, in particular, HFLH differ considerably. The meta-analysis of Hancock et al. (2011) on the correlation between employee turnover and performance indicated various individual, organisational and sectoral level proxies as moderating factors.

4.4 Research Paradigms and Philosophical Perspectives

The first part of this research is grounded firmly in the post-positivist view, where Hypotheses are tested primarily through questionnaires. This is achieved using a set of variables, which are strongly controlled through research design and statistical analysis. Here, one seeks to make inferences about characteristics, and attitudes of behaviours with regard to a population (Babbie, 2015).

Supporting this post-positive view is an interpretivist methodology, which entails semi-structured interviews with various stakeholders. Firstly, it is used to explore the quantitative results further in particular to understand the control dynamics relating to both voice mechanisms and skill learning systems at play within different

types of 'high-end' organisations, within the hospitality sector and potential national differences also. Secondly, these semi-structured interviews are pressed into supporting the quantitative results. Examples of this qualitative support include responses from, HFLH employees, HFLH trade unions, skill institutions, and management.

4.4.1 Post-positivism view as scientific method

Social scientists such as Max Weber sought out similarities in human behaviour and how these could be changed by the physical world. Social science has always had an 'inferiority complex' (Douglas, 2014, 162) compared to natural science. This is based on this position, where post-positivism challenges the notions about the truth of knowledge but recognising that research on human behaviour does not always allow us to be "positive" (Phillips and Burbules, 2000; Creswell, 2013). Authors, Phillips and Burbules (2000, 7) summarise these as 'conjectural' knowledge where evidence 'is always imperfect or fallible'. They also underscore that the quantitative methodology seeks to advance relationships among variables and position these in terms of Hypotheses. Finally, they refer to the importance of objectivity in post-positivist quantitative research, where one seeks to ensure a high standard of reliability and validity (Phillips and Burbules, 2000). This is also known as 'post empiricism'. With regard to social science, there is also the difficulty (and often ethical issues) in generating controlled settings and reliability (Douglas, 2014). This is where judgements or inferences about available evidence in the face of uncertainty are as crucial for social science as they are for the natural sciences.

While Hume was one of the founders of the empirical research tradition, it was the movement of logical positivism (e.g. Moritz Shlick, Otto Neurath, Rudolph Carnap) that led to the 'verification principle'. This meant that statements had to be analytic or empirically testable. Karl Popper developed this by using the "falsification" principle (Popper, 1959), which was criticised by Hume's "Problem of Induction". Hempel (1942) noted the importance of 'general laws' in scientific prediction and criticised the use of metaphysics and the Vienna Circle and Berlin Group for their reference to same. These authors' influence was not realised until the popularity of behavioural science in the 1960s. Popper focused on Hypotheses derived from theory and then tested the null Hypothesis empirically (i.e. where the expected would expect to be rejected). The philosophy of positivism can be defined as:

> working with an observable social reality and that the end product of such research can be law-like generalisations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientists (Remenyi et al., 1998, 32).

This research and its axiology are consistent with positive research in that it is 'value-free', where the researcher is 'independent of the data and maintains an objective stance' (Saunders et al., 2012, 119).

4.4.2 Interpretivist view as scientific method

The 'social-constructivist' view, also described as an 'interpretivist' view, relates more to qualitative data. This is based on works from Lincoln and Guba (1985) where meanings are constructed by humans as they engage in the world they are trying to understand (based on historical and social perspectives) (Crotty, 1998). Examples of such research would be interviews and case studies, where there are open-ended questions. The interpretivist perspective is the application of the scientific model to the study of the social world. It is the 'necessity to understanding contrasts between humans in their role as social actors' (Saunders et al., 2011).

Sociology based LP analysis has typically relied on qualitative analysis. Comparative political economy on the other hand is driven by institutional analysis and political science, focusing more on statistical analysis. The mathematics input facilitates deriving theory from theoretical principles and enables reasoning where natural language is too complex (Knuuttila and Kuorikoski, 2011). Hayek (1943, 43) was one of the first to explore the connection of the 'observation of a number of instances' to wider societies, economies, capitalisms, nations, and legal systems. These ideas from Hayek (1943) were later 'dismissed' as more sociology based and not consistent with his focus - economics (Knuuttila and Kuorikoski, 2011). Although there is a common misbelief that models are suited more towards quantitative data, rather than a qualitative analysis, social science, in particular, suits qualitative methodologies (Knuuttila and Kuorikoski, 2011). Others (e.g. Bryman, 2003) explain that the main obstacle to quantitative and qualitative research working together is that they contain different epistemological stances.

4.4.3 Resolving the two scientific paradigms through Pragmatic sequential design

There exists an argument that each research strategy (quantitative or qualitative) is embedded in their respective epistemological and ontological commitments (Bryman, 2012). While quantitative research is objectivist where reality is seen to 'exist independently of the researcher', qualitative is more constructivist, where truth and meaning are interpreted by the individual (Gray, 2013, 201). From the initial questioning of the compatibility of quantitative and qualitative as incommensurable paradigms (Kuhn, 1970), numerous debates ensued during the 1980s (e.g. Bryman, 1988). Howe (1988) highlights the incompatibility of the quantitative and qualitative methodology; taking a pragmatic view of the research allows for the research methods to use both paradigms without settling on either extreme. These debates started the focus on the logic for combining both traditions (Bryman, 1988) and led to potential designs being proposed (Morgan, 1998). This led eventually to its expansion as a method (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Now viewed as the third major research approach (Johnson et al., 2007), mixed methods is defined as quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures either at the same time (parallel) or one after the other (sequential) (van de Schoot et al., 2012)

This research follows a sequential design (Figure 4.2). This involves the use of quantitative (SEM, cross-tabulation and other descriptive and statistical techniques) followed by semi-structured interviews, analysed to look for themes and patterns. However, this research takes a 'technical version' position where it gives greater weight to the data-collection and data-analysis techniques. This is where one research method is capable of being 'pressed' into the service of another (Bryman, 2012, 631). This research assigns weight to the quantitative results and the mixing of data, where the initial qualitative results 'informs' the qualitative data collection (Creswell, 2013). Following the completion of qualitative data analysis, both the quantitative and qualitative results are interpreted in their entirety. This research's ontological foundations relate to an advocacy/participatory view where it focuses on potential antecedents for providing work engagement for HFLH. However, this research also examines the effect of this on a more distal organisational outcome (employee retention) and this provides a dual contribution to both management and policy makers. In addition to this, the theoretical contribution for cross-cultural

management is significant, given the concentration of much of management literature on LME countries.

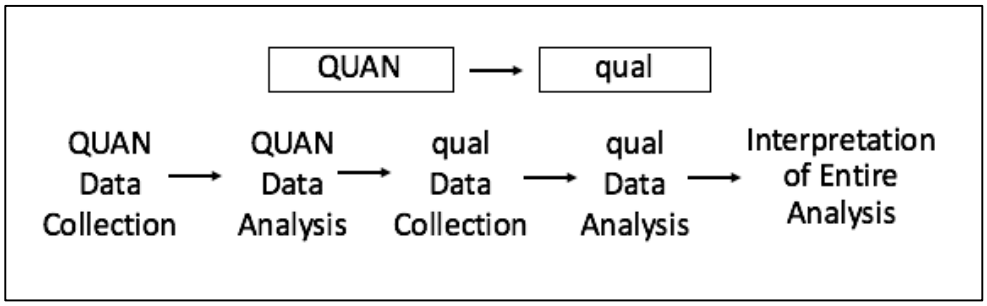


Figure 4.2 adapted from Creswell (2013, 209) - Sequential Explanatory Design

4.5 Research Design

4.5.1 Sampling Method

Sampling procedures involve non-probability sampling including *convenience* sampling, where a sample is chosen due to its accessibility to the researcher. Another procedure involves a *judgement* sample, where a sample is judged to be representative of the population. In addition, part of the non-probability method is a *quota* sample, where sampling units are chosen until each characteristics of the population is equally represented. The researcher uses these non-probability methods of *quota* sampling together with *stratified* sampling. Other forms of probability sampling include *simple random, cluster, and multi-stage* sampling. Other forms of probability sampling were not possible, given access requirements where sensitive information such as turnover details were required. Following analysis in the population (Appendix E and F), the populations were stratified based on organisational type, size, ownership, and geographical location.

4.5.2 Research Strategy

Table 4.1 outlines the research strategy through phases, methodology, and output.

Table 4.1: Research Strategy: Phases, Methodology and Output

Phase	Research Method Used	Output
Phase 1	**Quantitative Methods:** • **Questionnaires** HFLH questionnaires examining voice mechanisms, skill learning systems, work engagement and various control variables. 50 high-end hospitality organisations with stratification efforts: geographically, organisational size, ownership and type across Ireland and Sweden.	272 fully completed questionnaires, representing a satisfactory 80% response rate due to the strong access gained.
Phase 2	**Quantitative Methods:** • **Questionnaire** From the 50 identified organisations from where the Phase 1 was conducted, Front-line managers were asked regarding the total fulltime employees working for them and the number that had left the organisation in the previous year.	From the 50 organisations, such sensitive information was only provided by 40 of the 50 organisations provided such information when asked. Notwithstanding this, sufficient data was collected to conduct the necessary analysis.
Phase 3	**Qualitative Methodology:** • **Semi-Structured interviews** • **Documentary Analysis**	Semi structured interviews carried out with various stakeholders such as HFLH employees, Managers, HFLH Trade Union in Sweden and Skills Institutions across both countries. Additional documentary analysis was conducted following material such as trade union initiatives, skill institution curriculum etc.

4.5.3 Research Instrument

The research selected self-administered questionnaires as the most suitable method for data collection but recorded company size and turnover information from managers and supervisors separately. It was decided to undertake this research on a cross-sectional basis; due to the turnover culture of hospitality and often seasonal requirements, longitudinal analysis would be problematic. Due to the busy nature of hospitality and in order to secure high response rates, the questionnaires were designed so that all relevant information could be obtained in about three minutes.

The research chose to utilise existing measurements to reduce measurement error in examining samples of two populations across the comparative capitalism contexts of Ireland and Sweden. These populations relate to HFLH employees and are sampled using questionnaires based on existing validated and reliable measurements. This population, HFLH, not only has the emotional labour demands, but also has considerable flexibility and customisation demands driven by customer expectations. These include the construct (and measurement): Work engagement (UWES-9 Schaufeli et al. (2006)) skill learning systems and control questions (Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS) 1998-2011) and Collective and Individual Voice Measures (CRANET, Brewster et al. (2007)).

4.5.4 Ethical Considerations

This research throughout its design and conduct ensured careful consideration of ethical issues such as the following which as outlined by Saunders et al. (2012, 185): the privacy of possibly and actual participants. The voluntary nature of participation was outlined, along with this confidential and anonymous nature of the questionnaire. Managers were contacted to ensure that the most suitable time was chosen to facilitate employees to complete without pressure. Organisational names and locations are not mentioned in the research and geographic location is provided at national level only to ensure organisations cannot be identified.

4.6 Rationale for Comparative Examples: Ireland (LME) / Sweden (CME)

From the literature review, it was concluded that Sweden provides an important comparative study regarding skill learning systems. Sweden provides an important

example of vocational training which, within hospitality, comprises three years of initial training (Virolainen and Persson Thunqvist, 2016). Sweden also provides an important comparative example in the second area for analysis, where despite recent decline, collective voice remains relatively high, with a 67.3% national trade union membership (2014, OECD).

Rationale for 'High-End' Hospitality Establishments

The hotels, restaurants, cafes, and bars were selected at the high-level emotional labour incorporating 4-star and 5-star hotels, fine-dining restaurants and similar cafes and bars. It was important to get a geographic spread, as many studies (comparing countries) focused on particular regions not reflecting the typical characteristics of a country. An example of this is the study of US and French emotional labour, where Grandey et al. (2005) admitted to focusing on the eastern United States and southern France, which are not a typical representations of their respective countries. The size of the establishment was also considered, as hospitality is an industry comprised of sizeable multinational organisations along with small indigenous establishments, which are 'geographically isolated' (Wood, 1992)

This is to focus on the considerable flexibility and emotional labour demands in such extremes. Similar studies focusing on such an extreme include Karatepe et al. (2006) (Frontline employees in 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels in Northern Cyprus) who identified difficulty in gaining access to many hospitality establishments with regard to such a study. With its high level of face-to-face contact with customers, Frontline Hospitality (HFLH) is different from other types of work, since it contains emotional demands (Sandiford & Seymour 2007). These emotional demands are evident in other service work occupations, such as teaching, nursing, flight attendants and doctors (Hochschild, 1983; Morris and Feldman, 1996) and yet are almost non-existent in other occupations. In the service industry the addition of the customer to the traditional employer-employee relationship complicates the labour process (Leidner, 1993). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), drawing on the 10 dimensions (Zeithaml et al., 1990) (SERVQUAL) of service quality note the 'clear expectations' of this 'social encounter'. These dimensions are reliability, responsiveness, competence, access, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, understanding the customer, and tangibles (Zeithaml et al., 1990). It must be noted that, while HFLH is focused on

in many studies (e.g. Peccei and Rosenthal, 2000), it is still only a part of the service offering. The importance of the quality of indirect service workers is evident in examples where inferior standard food and rooms cannot be compensated by a high standard of direct service delivery (Lucas, 2004). While chain-operated restaurants have more bureaucratic organisational culture, with formal policies and procedures, hierarchical reporting relationships, scripted interactions between service staff and job specialisation, family-operations are less bureaucratic (Stamper and Dyne, 2001)

4.7 Quantitative Research

This section outlines the quantitative research details, and the estimation calculations of HFLH in both countries, which shaped the stratification sampling of such organisation. Following this, it discusses the research instrument (questionnaire) and the pilot study that was undertaken. It then considers the measurement instruments such as then UWES-9 scale used and control variables required in the questionnaire.

4.7.1 Research Details

The managers were firstly asked for turnover figures for the past year to the date of being asked. Due to the high turnover in hospitality, focusing on a year was the most accurate and reliable data that could be collected.

With regard to the questionnaires, permission was sought before-hand for the researcher to distribute the questionnaires to all HFLH employees working on a particular shift. It was important to time the distribution of the questionnaires according to the hospitality's organisation type. For example, hotel reception employees were usually very busy during the times of 10am to 12 noon, where check-ins were at their busiest. In the case of restaurants, timing the visit just after lunch was important so as to get a maximum response and also to avoid missing the employees who might be working on split shifts who would leave after the 'lunch rush'. Where candidates were identified, the researcher established if they would like to participate in the questionnaire. Before being asked this, they were first informed of confidentiality and anonymity by the researcher and after filling out the survey were given an envelope to insert the survey into which was then sealed. Restaurant managers or hotel managers were contacted in advance and asked to

participate, where the confidentiality of the research was reinforced. This was achieved by advising them that the organisations are only identifiable from the 'restaurant type' (e.g. hotel, restaurant, café or bar). Managers were asked to identify the total number of employees in each establishment, together with the turnover level for the past 12 months, to the date of the survey. Where possible, supervisors were also asked regarding the turnover levels to confirm these figures provided by managers. It is important to ask multiple respondents about the same issue but from a different stakeholder perspective (Cascio, 2012).

4.7.2 HFLH Population Estimates

Existing HFLH research, such as Shahril et al. (2012), on 4 and 5-star hotels calculated an average of 10 front desk employees and a total food and beverage department of 15. This equates to an average of 25 front–line employees which is applied to the 'high-end' organisation totals below.

314 (4&5 Star Hotels in Ireland) x 25 (average frontline employees) = 7,850

206 (4&5 Star Hotels in Sweden) x 25 (average frontline employees) = 5,150

The sampling strategy involved the sampling of participants across these high-end categories of the industry. Using the above proportions, samples were chosen on the basis of these populations. Despite differences in populations of Sweden: 9.793 million (SCB, 2015) and Ireland: 4.588 million (CSO, 2014), the number of hotels (N=507) in Sweden is considerably less than Ireland (N=798). While the total hotel numbers in Ireland and Sweden, with regard to hotels is 798 and 507, respectively, this does not account for room numbers and occupancy rates. Ireland has a total of 798 hotels (56,240 rooms), of which 279 (26,330 rooms) are 4 star and 35 (3,980) are 5 star (Fáilte Ireland, 2015).

However, within these figures, the portion of 4 and 5 star hotels within this is quite similar (39.34% and 40.4%, respectively). This is due in part to the number of the holiday home culture in Sweden, where there are 570,257 Swedish owned holiday homes, with 36,761 foreign owned holiday homes (SCB, 2014). Previous findings indicate that 54% of all employed Swedes have access to a second home (SCB, 2004) This culture of second home ownership is common in other Nordic countries such as Finland and Norway. Secondly, there are a large number of camping facilities and camping facilities that provide support services for campers.

In Ireland, the total sample of restaurants, bars [including hotel bars] can be estimated through the Revenue Renewed Liquor License Register (2015) bars. The estimated employment in bars in Ireland is 50k, estimated by Fáilte Ireland (2011). This indicates an average employment of 6 persons per establishment. This methodology can be applied to the calculation to the bar portion of FLH based on the current license figures. By deducting the licensed restaurants (2,163) and hotels (507) (assuming that there is at least one license per hotel) from the total 7,762 licences, this indicates c. 5,000 pubs in the country of Ireland. With regard to restaurants from the total 2,163, there are 1,752 restaurants with wine licenses and 411 restaurants with full licenses (Revenue 2013). With regard to restaurants, it can be estimated that the 340 'high end' restaurants comprise 26.1% of the total restaurants in Ireland c. 2,163. From the 536 cafes in Ireland, the major chains 'Insomnia' (92 cafes) 'Starbucks' (25 cafes) and 'Butlers Café' (12 cafes) total 129.

From searches in directories on the word "café", there appears to be 1,583 cafes in Sweden. From these estimates, major chains include 'Wayne's Coffee' (88 cafes May 2015) and 'Espresso House' (162 cafes) while 'Coffee House by George' (29 cafes) contribute 279. It is difficult to establish an estimate of the population of cafes in both countries, as there is not a clear divide between the food retail, service courts and café facilities provided by the 'Seven Eleven' and similar in Sweden.

From this and the analysis summarised in Appendix E and F, this research estimates that there are 12,800 fulltime front-line employees working in the 'high-end' and 'luxury' service in Sweden compared to 7,900 in Ireland. Whilst this does not reflect proportionate differences in the national populations of these countries, it can partially be explained by Sweden's holiday home culture.

4.7.3 Research Instrument: Questionnaire Design and Content

It is important to ensure that the questionnaire as a research instrument is capable of providing the necessary data to test the Hypotheses. In doing so, it must be as clear, concise and straightforward to avoid the respondent becoming overwhelmed. This research involves a questionnaire comprising two sections on three A4 sheets (including one cover-page for further confidentiality). The first consists primarily of category questions, with one open question with regard to training type. The second section relates both behavioural measures and this incorporates rating questions on

a Likert scale. With regard to the UWES 9, the respondent is asked how strongly they agree with a sequence of questions by circling the most appropriate score. The second part, section 2 involves a frequency rating of the use of voice mechanism, as proposed by Chris Brewster in the CRANET survey.

4.7.4 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in February 2015 before the questionnaire was distributed. This was necessary to ensure that participants were clear with regard to the instructions provided. It also helped to minimise problems in answering the questions, to determine 'face validity' or if the questionnaire appears to 'make sense' (Saunders et al., 2012). I also invited an 'expert group' comprising a hospitality school to comment on the questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2012). Following discussions with Mark Saunders regarding the language, he advised having conducted and consulted on various research projects in Sweden to leave the questionnaire items in the English language. The pilot was undertaken in January and February 2015 and was undertaken in all geographic areas of both Sweden and Ireland and included hospitality employees, with very little educational qualifications, and in the case of Sweden, hospitality workers with 'low' English language skills; to ensure that all terms were understood. The pilot was also important for estimating how long the questionnaire would take to complete.

4.7.5 Measuring Work Engagement and Employee Voice Mechanisms

Apart from reliability and construct validity, the UWES scale is replicated cross-culturally (Rothmann et al., 2013), which is important for this comparative capitalism research. A five point Likert-type scale was used, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). From the discussion in section 3.2.3, the shortened 9-item version (UWES-9) was used instead of the 17-item scale. Similarly, with regard to the vigour, dedication, and absorption, due to the high inter-correlation, particularly in the UWES-9, a one-factor model was used. This UWES-9 (for both the three-factor and the one-factor) has been tested as relatively invariant across nine countries and has acceptable psychometric properties (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003).

Ng and Feldman (2012) found that 20 per cent of the studies they examined used scales proposed by Rusbult and Collegues for the exit, voice, loyalty and neglect framework and modified by Hagedoorn et al. (1999). As the theoretical basis for Voice within this research was from VoC as a utility to assess the individual and collective differences of voice across market economies, a measure suitable for this was required. Such a measure, which has been rigorously tested, is Brewster et al. (2007) Collective and Individual Voice Measures (see Appendix A). This was tested on data from CRANET. CRANET is the Cranfield Network on International Human Resource Management and launched in 1989 and is coordinated by Cranfield School of Management. They conduct surveys every four years to provide data on comparative HRM.

4.7.6 Control Variables

Control variables such as age, tenure, education, occupation & work status (e.g. full-time part-time: and contract) were included in the questionnaires, with guidance from the UWES manual and existing work engagement studies. As the variable being studied are HFLH employees, both full time and part-time can be studied, as they are subject to the same NSWT. Furthermore, even though part-time employees demonstrate less citizenship behaviour than full-time employees, there is no difference regarding voice. In both family-owned and chain-operated restaurants, employees performed the same job duties as full-time employees (Stamper and Dyne, 2001).

Firstly, it was important to ensure that the questionnaire was not cramped. There is considerable evidence to suggest that an appealing layout will enhance response rates and strategies to ensure that the questionnaire appears easier to complete than it actually is (Bryman, 2012; Dillman, 2009). Again, shading was used as a tactic to increase accuracy in the Likert scales and to make the layout easy on the eye. In addition, both vertical and horizontal closed answers were employed to add to the interesting layout and to ensure all questions were answered. The questionnaire questions, apart from those measuring Engagement and Voice, were based primarily on the Workplace Employment Relations Study and CRANET

The Workplace Employment Relations Study (WERS) is a national survey of employees in the U.K. It is the most comprehensive survey of employee relations

questioning employers, employee representatives, and employees in a representative sample of workplaces. Employee questionnaires in 2011: N=21,881 (Wanrooy et al., 2013). WERS has been conducted on six occasions: 1980, 1984, 1990, 1998, 2004 and 2011. Fieldwork for the 2011 WERS (the sixth study) was finished in June 2012. The control questions are particularly useful for work engagement, training and 'individual and collective representation at work' are examined in the WERS. The control questions were piloted and tested and any ambiguous words or questions were translated to Swedish to ensure they were fully understandable in a Swedish context.

4.8 Qualitative Research

Semi-structured interviews were chosen as the most suitable research strategy to further explain the quantitative results.

4.8.1 Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews are unstructured, in-depth and qualitative interviews and differ from the pre-determined questions of structured interviews (Saunders et al., 2012). This allows for different ordering of questions and themes regarding the research question, to maintain the flow of an interview. It also facilitates the research in exploring questions further, in addition to explaining the existing quantitative results.

The interviews were carried out between October 2016 and March 2017 and resulted in 40 in-depth interviews across Ireland and Sweden. These were carried out with HFLH employees, HFLH managers, collective voice institutions, skills institutions. These ranged in length depending on the stakeholder interviewed. Interviews with trade union officials were almost two hours long. The interviews involved considerable travel time and often the interviewees cancelled last minute. Certain interviewees such as the HFLH trade union in Sweden could put me in contact with the contact employer association responsible for skills etc. The researcher was aware of interviewer bias and was careful not to influence or impose their own beliefs on the interviewee. Similarly, the researcher was particularly aware of response bias and the researcher asked for consent before each interview began and asked if they could be recorded, explaining the anonymous and

confidential nature of the research and how the interviewee would be referred to if quotations were being used (e.g. 'high-end' hospitality manager from Ireland). A technique the researcher utilised over the course of the interviews was critical incident technique. This encourages the description of an activity or event, key to the research question, where the participant has a clear idea of the effects and consequences (Keaveney, 1995).

4.9 Qualitative Data Analysis

The author chose to use both manual analysis and NVivo to conduct analysis of the data. Firstly, all the data was transcribed by the researcher, which was found to be very useful in identifying strands and themes, given it was done over a relatively short period of time. Secondly, this data was printed and then manually coded with different colour highlighters into skill learning systems, voice mechanisms, work engagement and employee retention. It was further broken down by different themes and similarities and differences across different countries, organisations, geographic locations In doing so within a short period of time, the author could identify themes regarding the research questions and the conceptual framework. Following this, all themes were coded into Nvivo software, which allowed for the use of queries and word-trees in comparing both the LME and CME clusters within the sample.

This analysis involved 'data triangulation' methods, with responses from different stakeholders within groups and indeed with regard to data from the quantitative (e.g. Trade Union membership). Not only does the qualitative data help inform the understanding of the micro-processes of the HFLH employment relationship, it also aids in understanding the quantitative results further. Table 4.2 outlines the details of the interviewees, their titles, gender and organisation they work for. This encompasses employers and employees from different organisation sizes types and ownership categories. Examples of such involved MNCs, family owned business, family owned business and those business units owned by shareholders or funds. With regard to the collective voice and its investigation, predominantly within the Swedish context, the researcher to ensure a representative regional response by conducting institutional interviews.

Table 4.2: Details of HFLH stakeholder interviews across Sweden and Ireland

	Title	Gender	Type
1.	CME Employee 1	Male	Restaurant
2	CME Employee 2	Female	Restaurant and Bar
3.	CME Employee 3	Male	Hotel and Catering Group
4.	CME Employee 4	Male	Restaurant
5.	CME Institution 1	Female	Employers Association
6.	CME Manager 1	Male	Hotel MNC
7.	CME Manager 2	Male	Hotel Family owned (not run)
8.	CME Manager 3	Male	Restaurant Group
9.	CME Manager 4	Male	Restaurant Hotel Group
10.	CME Employee 5	Male	Restaurant / Catering
11.	CME Manager 5	Female	MNC – HFLH Manager
12.	CME Manager 6	Male	Restaurant / Winebar
13.	CME Manager 7 -	Male	Restaurant Group
14.	CME Manager 8	Male	Restaurant Catering Group
15.	CME Institution 2	Female	Vocational College
16.	CME Institution 3	Female	Trade Union HRF
17.	CME Employee 6	Male	Restaurants (30 years' experience)
18.	CME Institution 4	Male	Trade Union HRF
19.	CME Institution 5	Female	Trade Union HRF
20.	CME Employee 7	Female	Restaurant
21.	LME Employee 1	Female	Restaurant and Hotel (current)
22.	LME Employee 2	Male	Hotel MNC
23.	LME Employee 3	Male	Restaurant
24.	LME Employee 4	Male	Bar and Restaurant
25.	LME Employee 5	Female	Restaurant
26.	LME Employee 6	Female	Restaurant
27.	LME Institution 1	Male	SOLAS
28.	LME Manager 1	Male	Bar
29.	LME Manager 2	Female	Restaurant Group – Restaurant Mgr.
30.	LME Manager 3	Female	MNC - HFLH Manager
31.	LME Manager 4	Female	Restaurant
32.	LME Manager 5	Male	Restaurant
33.	LME Manager 6	Male	Hotel 5-star
34	LME Manager 7	Male	Restaurant
35.	LME Manager 8	Female	Cafe
36.	LME Institution 2	Female	Regional Skills
37.	LME Employee 7	Male	Hotel MNC
38	LME Institution 3	Male	Financial Institution re Hospitality
39.	LME Institution 4	Female	3rd Level General Hospitality Institution
40	LME Manager 9	Male	1950s to 1980s Apprenticeship

Across both Ireland and Sweden a range of HFLH employees were chosen from Michelin Restaurants, 4-star and 5-star hotels, regional organisations and with various skills. Similarly, with regard to management, there were managers chosen from family-run, hospitality groups and MNCs. Certain interviewees in both high-end hospitality contexts with considerable experience were chosen with regard to different skill learning systems and voice mechanisms have developed over time in Ireland and Sweden.

4.10 Reflecting on the Research Methodology Process

This section provides a reflection on the research methodology process and here the researcher uses this personal reflection and the term "I' to provide a deeper analysis into the process of this quantitative and qualitative data collection. The delicate nature of fieldwork is captured appropriately by the phrase "carrying the egg" (Calveley, 2005 76). For this research, this, very appropriately captured the process of gaining and maintaining access across two countries. It also explains access occasions where considerable travel to an regional organisation would often result (despite strong access) in "cracks" due to sensitivities of timing and unpredictable demand of HFLH. This was often reflected in a reduction in the number of questionnaires returned or access being removed completely ("dropped the egg") or rescheduled. With regard to HFLH, two to three visits were often required to each organisation with employees often completely changing over throughout the day to provide coverage for the night. To document the most suitable times to visit and to maintain a strong momentum, I kept a research diary. This also allowed for me to document availability, gatekeepers, referrals and interview details.

In general, interviewees were initially wary of the recording device but relaxed as the interviews developed. Many interviewees who started talking and in the absence of time constraints did not want to stop. On one occasion, during an interview, the interviewee asked me not to record the interview. However, they were content with me documenting the interview and kept a close eye on the notes I was taking throughout. This was not ideal (as information is lost) but it was better outcome than no interview at all.

The interviews had an initial plan but as it progressed certain interviewees provided much more depth beyond the scope of questions outlined. Overall the interviewees

were receptive across both countries and many referred to their enjoyment in outlining the process. It was important to give them enough information about the research, while minimising the risk of providing any information that might influence their responses to the questions. Furthermore, many interviewees provided me with introductions to gatekeepers or indeed further interviewees when interviews were concluding. An example of this was the Trade Union who emailed a contact in the Employers Association to arrange access with the most appropriate person for the following week.

In attaining a representative sample of interviewees across both countries, it involved considerable travel, both between cities and to regional areas in order to ensure that the most representative responses could be attained. There were times where more convenient interviewees and organisations presented themselves but it was important to stick to the plan in order to ensure representative capturing the diverse HFLH landscape across both countries as best as possible. I did not explain my background in hospitality or the hospitality establishment that I worked in previously. This was to ensure that I minimised bias. If such conversations took place, these were often confined to after the interviews or when completed questionnaires were collected.

4.11 Conclusion

This chapter began with a summary of the research questions, conceptual framework, and Hypotheses. From this summary, it began by examining the epistemology and theoretical perspectives that provide the foundations of this research. To this end, it considers agency between the labour process analysis and comparative political economy. Following this, the chapter considered the most suitable research paradigms and philosophical perspectives for this thesis. It described the post-positivist paradigm and then focused on the interpretivist or social construction philosophy. It then described how, by taking a pragmatist approach and indeed a sequential explanatory design benefits, synergies could be derived in addressing the research questions posed. Following this, it outlined the methodological strategy for the research and how the research is designed. This included the sampling method, research instrument, and ethical considerations. The comparative samples of Ireland and Sweden were then assessed for their suitability in addressing these research questions. This involved considering the rationale for

choosing each as VoC examples by detailing each country's predominant skill, voice, and economic landscape. The rationale for choosing 'high-end' service offering within hospitality was then revisited, along with the most suitable sampling strategy, research instrument design, and interview strategy. The chapter concluded by listing the details of forty semi-structured interviewees undertaken within these various stakeholders associated with HFLH across Ireland and Sweden.

The next chapter begins the initial data analysis providing descriptive statistics of the HFLH populations sampled in both Ireland and Sweden. It considers how well the theoretical model fits the data collected and measurements used. Finally, it explains how Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is best suited to test the theoretical framework and Hypotheses proposed.

CHAPTER 5 INITIAL DATA ANALYSIS, DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND MODEL FIT

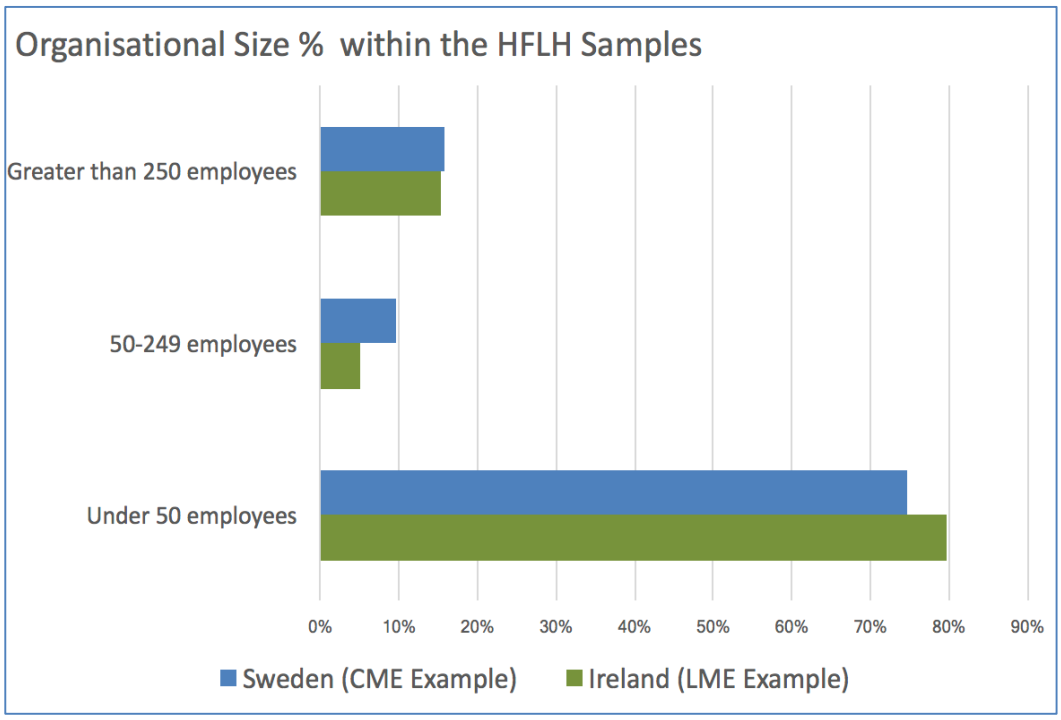
5.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the preliminary findings from the questionnaire, which uncovers the HFLH landscape across both countries. To achieve this, it conducts cross-tabulation analysis and provides descriptive statistics comparing Ireland and Sweden. In doing so, it also provides further evidence of the homogeneity of the HFLH sector samples across both countries and identifies important differences, further justifying the selection of each country as examples of contrasting market economies. From examining the sub-sectors within hospitality, gender, age, work-status, and career expectations for employees within these HFLH samples, it informs the analysis of voice mechanisms and skill learning systems undertaken in chapters 6 and 7.

The second part of this chapter begins with Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), where identification and reliability analysis, normality and collinearity analysis, along with Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), are undertaken. Following this, goodness-of-fit tests are examined and the ability of the model to test the research Hypotheses is confirmed. The chapter then concludes with a summary of the descriptive statistics regarding each HFLH sample and similarities and differences.

5.2 Demographic Characteristics of Sample:

The sampling methodology carefully stratified hotels, restaurants, and cafes to ensure organisational types consistent with their populations (Appendix F) were being represented. Also stratified were representative organisational sizes, organisational ownership, and geographic locations.



Organisational Size	Ireland	Sweden
Under 50 employees	80%	75%
50-249 employees	5%	10%
Greater than 250 employees	15%	16%

Figure 5.1: Organisational Size Proportions of HFLH samples % (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

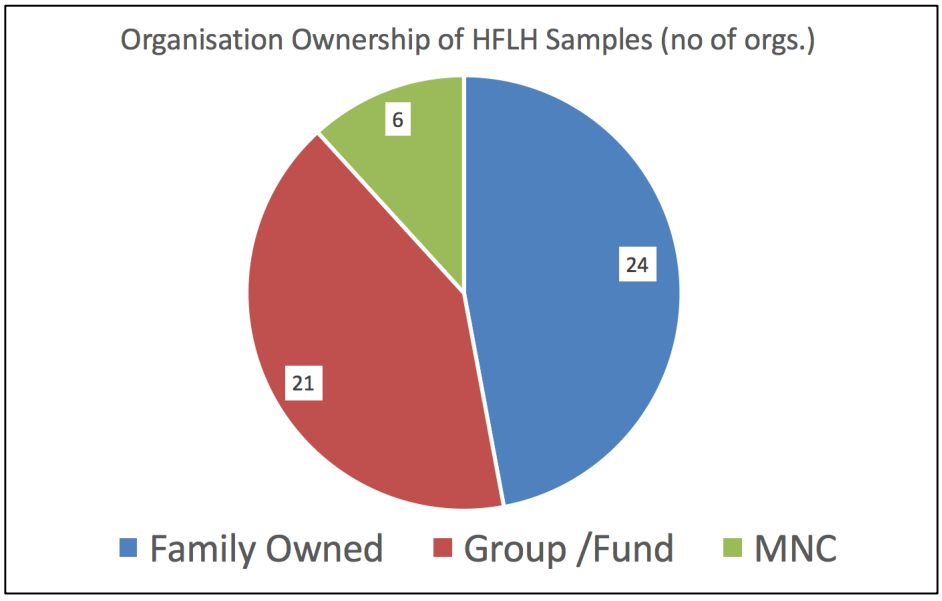
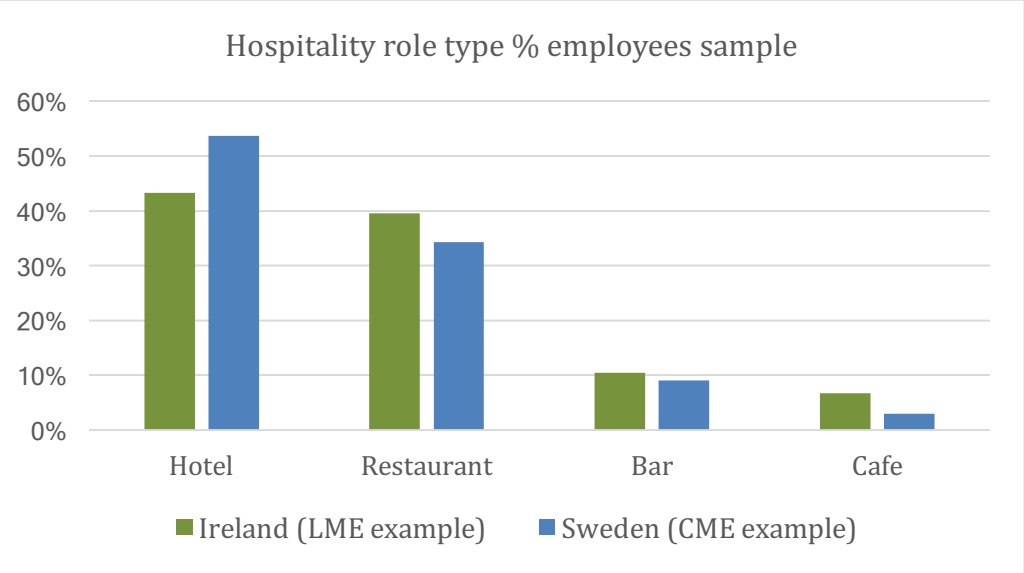


Figure 5.2 Ownership Structure of HFLH samples

Figure 5.2 above reflects the total number of organisations examined, there were 24 family-owned organisations selected with regard to their geographic location (12 size each in Ireland and Sweden). With regard to 'Group' and 'MNC', there was less similarity with regard to ownership / organisational structures across Ireland and Sweden but this was reflective of the greater prominence of MNCs in Sweden.



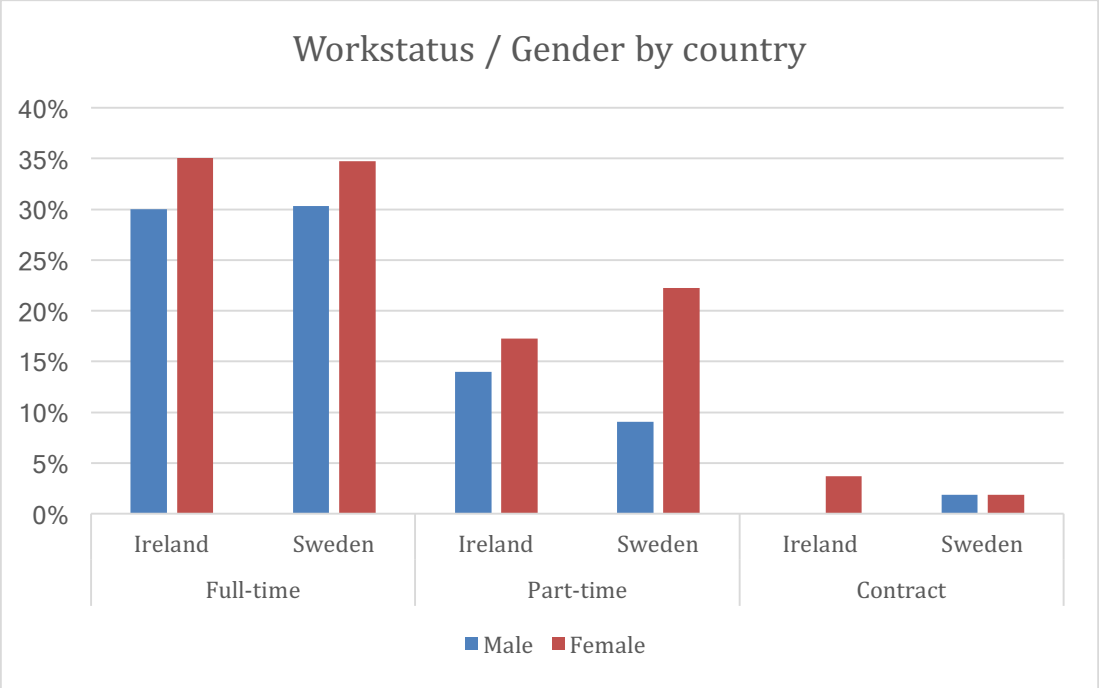
	Hotel	Restaurant	Bar	Cafe
Ireland (LME example)	43.30%	39.60%	10.40%	6.70%
Sweden (CME example)	53.70%	34.30%	9.00%	3.00%

Figure 5.3: HFLH role % (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

From Figure 5.3, there was a similar split of hospitality type across both contexts among hotels (Ireland 43.3%, Sweden, 53.7%), restaurant (Ireland 39.6%, Sweden 34.3%), bar (Ireland 10.4%, Sweden 9%) and Café (Ireland 6.7%, Sweden 3%). Minor differences in the samples regarding roles were due to the distribution of surveys within the organisation. When surveys were distributed within hotels for example, or in restaurants that contained bars, these were often categorised in accordance to the specific role. A restaurant employee in a hotel might categorise themselves as either restaurant or hotel. These were not recoded or amended to preserve the integrity of the questionnaires.

Regarding gender (Figure 5.4), the Swedish sample of HFLH employees comprises slightly more female employees 58.2%, compared to the Irish sample (55.1% female). However, within the part-time portion of the samples, Swedish females

accounted for 71.1%, compared to 54.3% females in Ireland. This may be attributable to the more flexible work scheduling in Sweden. Within the CME context of Sweden, this might be attributable to the institutional support provided by collective voice mechanisms and works council representation. The full-time gender breakdown of both country samples is also quite similar: Ireland (47.7% male 52.3% female) and Sweden (46.6% male and 53.4% female).



Work Status / Gender	Country	Male	Female
Full-time	**Ireland**	30%	35%
	Sweden	30%	35%
Part-time	**Ireland**	14%	17%
	Sweden	9%	22%
Contract	**Ireland**	0%	4%
	Sweden	2%	2%

Figure 5.4 HFLH employee work status and gender by country (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

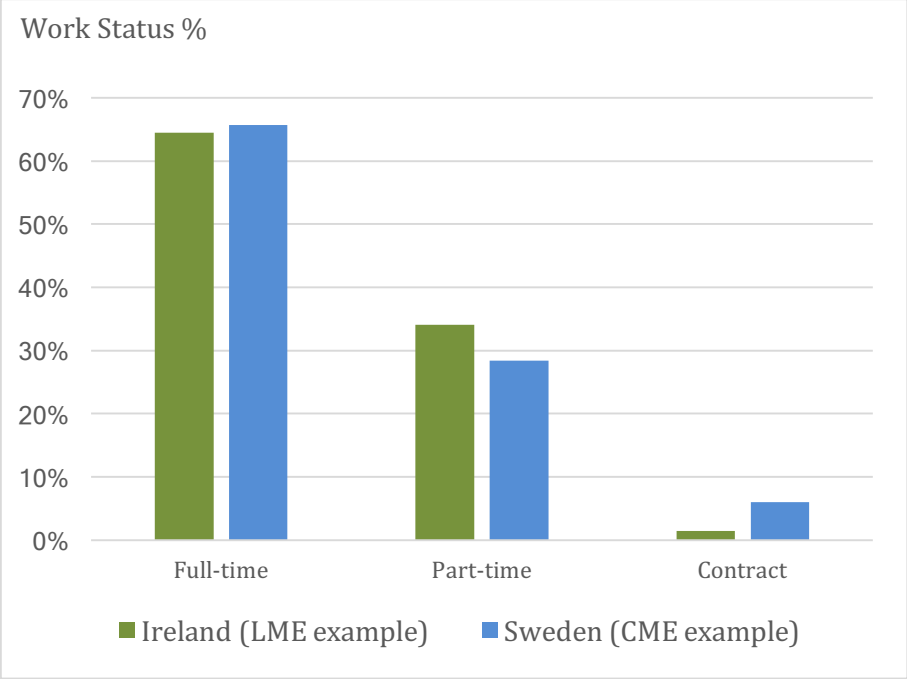


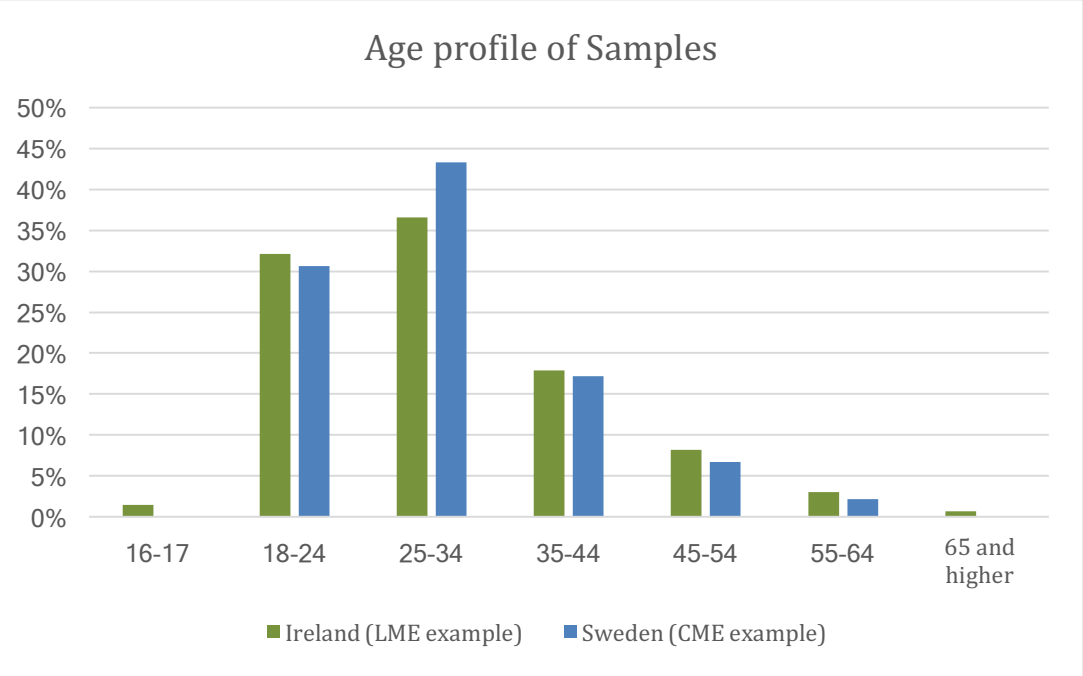
Figure 5.5: HFLH employee work status across Ireland (n=138) and Sweden (n=134)

Regarding work status differences in both countries, full-time workers comprised the most HFLH samples with similar proportions (Ireland 64.5%, compared with Sweden 65.7%). Differences did exist with regard to part-time workers. Here, Ireland's sample contained 34.1% part-time workers, 5.7% higher than Sweden's 28.4%. However, differences did exist with regard to contract workers, with 6% of the Swedish sample, compared to 1.4% of the Irish sample. There may be possible ambiguity in respondents selecting part-time compared with contract on the questionnaires; the researcher expected these to overlap somewhat.

5.3 Full-time and part-time Demographics - age

Similarities in the age profile between Sweden and Ireland existed within the samples. However, the largest difference of 43.3% and 36.6%, respectively, was evident in the 25-34 age bracket. Smaller proportions of the samples were found in the 35-44 age bracket, 25% and 23.3%, of the Sweden and Ireland samples, respectively. Regarding the age bracket for part-time workers in Ireland, the 18-24

age bracket comprised 56.5% (compared to 47.4% Sweden). This is reflected in figure 5.6 below.



Country / Age	16-17	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 +
Ireland (LME example)	1.50%	32.10%	36.60%	17.90%	8.20%	3.00%	0.70%
Sweden (CME example)	0.00%	30.60%	43.30%	17.20%	6.70%	2.20%	0.00%

Figure 5.6: HFLH employee age profile across Ireland (n=138) and Sweden (n=134)

5.4 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) Analysis

This research uses Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). SEM is a family of related techniques which involves the integration of measurement (factor analysis) and structural (path analysis), a technique which began in the 1970s. In the 1980s and 1990s, computer programs advanced this to include latent variables and the use of estimation for interactive and curvilinear effects of same. Such programs include EQS, LISREL, and Mplus. This research uses the latter, Mplus, due to its unique use of both continuous and categorical latent variables. SEM analysis also contains the potential to differentiate observed and latent variables. In Mplus diagrams (e.g. output in Appendix I), circles represent latent variables, while rectangles represent

observed variables. For unordered categorical outcomes, multinomial logistic regression models are used.

5.4.1 Identification and Reliability Analysis

The two fundamental rules for identifying an SEM model are that:

1. The model degrees of freedom must be at least zero ($df_M \geq 0$).
2. Every latent variable (including the residual terms) must be assigned a scale (metric).

The Mplus model in this research undertook clustering of the whole sample to incorporate the country differences. In addition to this, the model also undertook stratification to take account of the similarities in hospitality type (e.g. hotel, restaurant, bar and café) across both countries. Cronbach's α results, which are a measure of (internal consistency) reliability and commonly used for Likert scales in questionnaires, are provided below.

Table 5.1: Reliability of Measures – Work Engagement and Voice Mechanisms

Work Engagement (UWES 9-item Schaufeli et al. (2006))

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.876	.879	9

Voice Mechanisms (10-item based on Brewster et al, 2007)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.717	.727	10

From Table 5.4, the Cronbachs α of .876 for work engagement is considered 'good', while the Cronbachs α of .717 for voice mechanisms is considered 'acceptable' (George and Mallery, 2003).

5.4.2 Assessing Normality and Collinearity

Normality is the assumption that all the individual univariate distributions are normal, that all joint distributions of any pair of variables is bivariate normal, and that all bivariate scatterplots are linear with homoscedastic residuals (Kline, 2016, 74). The Skewness indicates the lack of symmetry of a univariate distribution. while the Kurtosis examines the peakedness relative to a corresponding normal distribution (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2012). The Sattora-Bentler (Bentler, 2004) robust method of parameter estimation is based on corrected statistics obtainable within the ML method. Research has also suggested that. with five or more response categories, the distribution could resemble normal, especially with the robust ML approach which is used in Mplus (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2012). Regarding Skewness, variables with absolute values of SI > 3.0 are described as "extremely" skewed. While there is less agreement regarding Kurtosis, values of between 8.0 to over 20.0 of this index are described as "extreme". Whilst Appendix H displays the distribution of the questionnaire items, most of these scores are in line, except for collective voice mechanisms. The distribution of these questions still falls within the guidelines indicated above.

For collinearity, Mplus proposes Modification Indices where independent variables covariance is indexed. Whilst this was assessed with respect to the theory, the author was careful to examine each one independently. Examples of such collinearity were found within the work engagement construct, where a couple of the Absorption and Dedication items and where Vigour are explained by a couple of the dedication items also. These factor correlations are indicated in the UWES manual and, along with a high Cronbachs α, support the argument for the three factor UWES 9 to be collapsed into a one-factor score. The causal indicators for the latent variable, work engagement, can correlate freely, following this advice from the construct's manual (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003).

Table 5.2 Modification Indices Mplus Output (excluding work-engagement's causal indicators)

Modification Indices Mplus Output	M.I.	E.P.C.	Std E.P.C.	StdYX E.P.C.
BY Statements				
Collective Voice Mechanisms BY Senior Manager	8.827	-0.414	-0.230	-0.199
Work Engagement BY Senior Manager	14.279	0.520	0.306	0.264
Work Engagement BY Informal Chats	2.275	-0.258	-0.152	-0.108
Work Engagement BY Team Briefings	2.793	0.229	0.135	0.109
Work Engagement BY E-Communication	4.709	-0.337	-0.198	-0.150
ON Statements				
Collective Voice Mechanisms ON Retention	4.617	-5.072	-9.127	-4.751
Collective Voice ON Main Skill Source	4.649	0.064	0.115	0.140
Individual Voice ON Hospitality Future	6.172	0.155	0.352	0.165
Individual Voice ON Studying for Different Industry	5.809	-0.160	-0.362	-0.160

Whilst this SEM analysis is undertaken in a confirmatory approach based on the theoretical model, Modification Indices (MI) are useful to provide insight into what would happen if the theoretical constraints were relaxed. These include the un-standardised expected parameter change (EPC) and the fully standardised expected parameter change loading (StdYX. E.P.C). No modifications were made to the theoretical model based on this due to its CFA approach. However, the above MI table can be interpreted that, by loading Senior Management (Individual Voice causal indicator) directly on work engagement, the χ^2 would reduce by 14.279; the standardised parameter from adding the path would increase by .52. Any M.I of 3.84 or greater would reduce χ^2 by a statistically significant amount. This shows the importance of the extent to which HFLH employees communicating with management through the mechanism of senior manager on work engagement.

5.4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a primary technique for the measurement of related studies (Kline, 2016). The latent variables of individual voice mechanisms, collective voice

mechanisms, and work engagement and their causal indicators are detailed below in the standardised output from Mplus.

Table 5.3: Latent Variables –Standardised Results (Mplus STDYX output)

Variables	Est	SE	Est / SE	*P*
Collective Voice measured by				
Trade Union Representative	0.817	0.028	29.260	0.000
Works Council	0.659	0.121	5.445	0.000
EU Information and Consultation	0.789	0.031	25.872	0.000
Individual Voice measured by				
Senior Manager	0.381	0.023	16.819	0.000
Informal Chat	0.287	0.141	2.031	0.042
Formal meeting	0.819	0.070	11.630	0.000
Team Briefing	0.713	0.038	18.543	0.000
Electronic Communication	0.416	0.083	4.994	0.000
Work Engagement measured by				
Vigour1	0.680	0.040	16.921	0.000
Vigour 2	0.724	0.024	30.032	0.000
Dedication 1	0.820	0.010	85.382	0.000
Dedication 2	0.732	0.026	27.708	0.000
Vigour 3	0.665	0.021	31.555	0.000
Absorption 1	0.587	0.014	40.838	0.000
Dedication 3	0.596	0.066	9.065	0.000
Absorption 2	0.520	0.045	11.450	0.000
Absorption 3	0.515	0.082	6.260	0.000

5.4.4 Goodness of Fit

The MLR estimator in Mplus is an option for maximum likelihood estimation, with robust standard errors that are computed using a sandwich estimator. The model that is being tested has been theoretically derived but it requires global fit testing. The Chi Squared measure is not used here due to difficulties in measuring same with MLR analysis. More reliable Goodness of fit scores include the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). MacCallum et al. (1996) suggested that an RMSEA

of less than 0.08 indicates a good fit, however, this level was later reduced to less than 0.07 (Steiger, 2007) and 0.05 by van de Schoot et al. (2012). The RMSEA is sensitive to model complexity but not to sample size. Below, is the Mplus output which shows the RMSEA estimate of 0.042 and the probability of the RMSEA <=.05 is 88.7%. The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) is also called the measure of the Normed-fit index (Bentler and Bonett, 1980) and it equates to 0.92. Similarly, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI: Bentler, 1990), a more rigorous version of the TLI, with the benefit of including sample size also, is 0.934.

The CFI measure is one of the most popular measures of fit indices and is included in all SEM programs. It produces a statistic range between 0.0 and 1.0, where values over 0.9 indicate an acceptable or adequate fit (van de Schoot et al., 2012). Figure 5.7 presents the Mplus 'Model Fit Information' output with the above indices.

Figure 5.7: Mplus output: Model Fit Information

```
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation)

          Estimate                            0.042
          90 Percent C.I.                     0.032  0.053
          Probability RMSEA <= .05            0.887

CFI/TLI

          CFI                                 0.934
          TLI                                 0.920

Chi-Square Test of Model Fit for the Baseline Model

          Value                           1594.658
          Degrees of Freedom                   225
          P-Value                           0.0000

SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual)

          Value                               0.063
```

5.4.5 Scaled Chi-Square Difference Tests

In comparing whether there is measurement invariance (MI) between both countries it is necessary to conduct Chi-square difference on each separately. While this is directly sought in the research questions, it does confirm whether the measurement instruments are measuring the same thing across groups. Although this research does set out the landscapes, it is not a comparative study and uses the

methodology of two countries to encompass the VoC institutional configurations of skill learning system differences and individual and collective voice differences. Sattora and Bentler (2012) note how their Sattora-Bentler (SB) scaled difference chi-squared tests depend on the calculation of the model's scaling correction factor (*c*). The computation of this is contingent on the software used. They note that Mplus users (similar to EQS users) should divide the model's ML chi-square by its SC chi-square to recover (*c*). The first author to describe such equivalence or parallels factor structures was Jöreskog (1971), whose work developed into the concept of MI by Byrne et al. (1989). Authors such as van de Schoot et al. (2012) outline the steps for comparing the latent means and correlations across groups. Here, factor loadings and intercepts should be equal across groups. This is known as scalar invariance. This thesis set out to answer two research questions, encompassing distinct skills systems and voice mechanisms. This required it to sample two market economies, allowing it to examine individual collective and the specific general dimensions of these. However it does not, apart from this descriptive statistics, undertake comparative analysis with regard to the variables being investigated. The next section introduces the testing of the research Hypotheses.

5.5 Test of Research Hypotheses

The model (n=274) is clustered by country to take account of differences within the two samples. The model (see Syntax in Appendix K of Mplus version 7.4 (Mac) input) is also stratified by sector to take account of similarities within the HFLH service offerings such as restaurant, hotel, bar, and cafes. Control variables of gender, whether the respondent expects to be working in hospitality within five years, and whether the respondent is studying a different occupation while working within hospitality, were further control variables included; these were discounted or not considered significant in previous research such as the UWES manual (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). These results are presented in the following chapters, categorised by voice mechanisms (chapter 6) and skill learning systems (chapter 7).

5.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter began with analysing the demographics of the surveyed sample responses and how these corresponded to the HFLH population analysis undertaken in the research. Initial analysis suggests that both populations have disparate

characteristics regarding the areas of analysis, collective voice, and skill learning systems, albeit not as distinctive as those in other sectors across LME and CME context (e.g. manufacturing).

The first part of this chapter outlined the descriptive statistics with regard to hospitality role type, which was one of the stratification criteria set out in the methodology. A similar number of fully completed questionnaire respondents, comprising an 80% response rate, was achieved. Whilst small differences existed between the samples with regard to gender, these were more pronounced when work status and age were taken into account. Within the part-time category, the Irish and Swedish HFLH samples comprised 14% and 9% male and 17% and 22% female, respectfully. Within the fulltime category the samples were comprised of 35% female in both countries, compared to 30% male. Ireland had a younger HFLH workforce in general and this is particularly reflected in part-time workers. Within this category in Ireland, this 18-24 age bracket comprises 56.5% (compared to 47.4% Sweden).

The second part of this chapter undertook the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis. SEM is undertaken to answer the Hypotheses proposed. In doing so, it examined the identification and reliability of the measures, along with assessing the normality and collinearity. This research was undertaken using confirmatory factor analysis. This CFA was conducted on all latent variables separately before examining the goodness of fit for the model based on the conceptual theoretical model (based on LP and VoC analysis) proposed. This involved identification and reliability analysis, normality and collinearity analysis, along with confirmatory factor analysis. Following this, goodness-of-fit tests were examined and the ability of the model to test the research Hypotheses was confirmed. Finally, the chapter described how this thesis tested the research Hypotheses using SEM analysis.

CHAPTER 6 VOICE MECHANISMS OF HFLH IN SWEDEN AND IRELAND

6.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter is the first of the three results chapters. These three chapters are structured as follows: 'Voice Mechanisms', 'Skill Learning Systems', and 'Integration of results'. This chapter focuses on the 'Voice Mechanisms' which addresses the following supplementary research question.

1. **How does a variety of voice mechanisms used in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**

   H1: The use of individual voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies.

   H2: The use of collective voice mechanisms is positively related to HFLH work engagement across different market economies.

   H3: The use of individual voice mechanisms has a greater influence on HFLH work engagement than the use of collective voice mechanisms across different market economies.

   H4: HFLH individual voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across different market economies.

   H5: HFLH collective voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH employee retention across different market economies.

   H6: HFLH collective voice mechanisms have a greater influence on employee retention than individual voice mechanisms across different market economies.

This chapter begins by examining the results obtained from the questionnaire data collected across the HFLH samples in Ireland and Sweden. This presents the descriptive statistics of both the individual and collective voice mechanism evident in both samples. Following this, the chapter continues its quantitative analysis in employing SEM techniques in addressing Hypotheses (1 - 6). These Hypotheses examine voice mechanisms as antecedents to HFLH work engagement and employee retention. Finally, the chapter considers, develops, and seeks to understand these

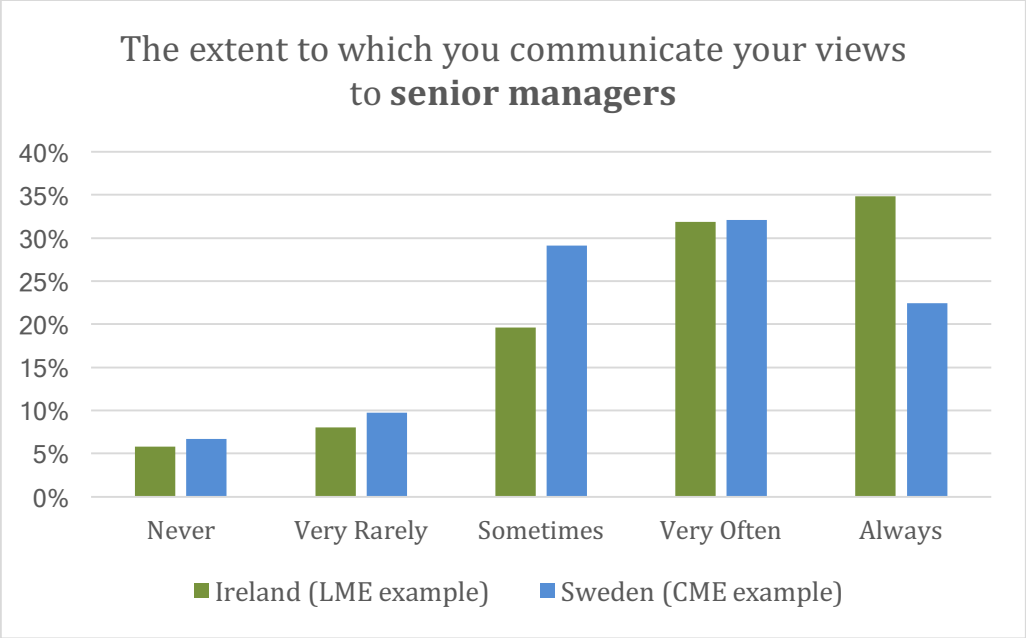
results through qualitative analysis. Results from the quantitative analysis is developed through semi-structured interviews, where stakeholders are asked to consider voice as a source of autonomy or scope within HFLH that may lead to work engagement. Through these semi-structured interviews, and in examining effective voice mechanisms that may lead to work engagement among HFLH employees, new voice mechanisms are identified across both contexts. Finally, the chapter continues by examining dimensions of work engagement and what management and HFLH employees consider to be effective, particularly with regard to safety and meaningfulness in work.

6.2 Voice Mechanisms

The next section considers individual voice mechanisms across Sweden and Ireland. In doing so, it seeks to understand differences in the 'extent' to which HFLH employees communicate their views to management. Individual voice mechanisms of senior management, immediate supervisors, informal chats, formal meetings, suggestion schemes, electronic communication and team briefings are analysed first. Collective voice mechanisms, such as trade unions, works council and the EU Information and Consultation directive, are then analysed across both countries. Finally, these voice mechanisms are examined as antecedents to work engagement and employee retention.

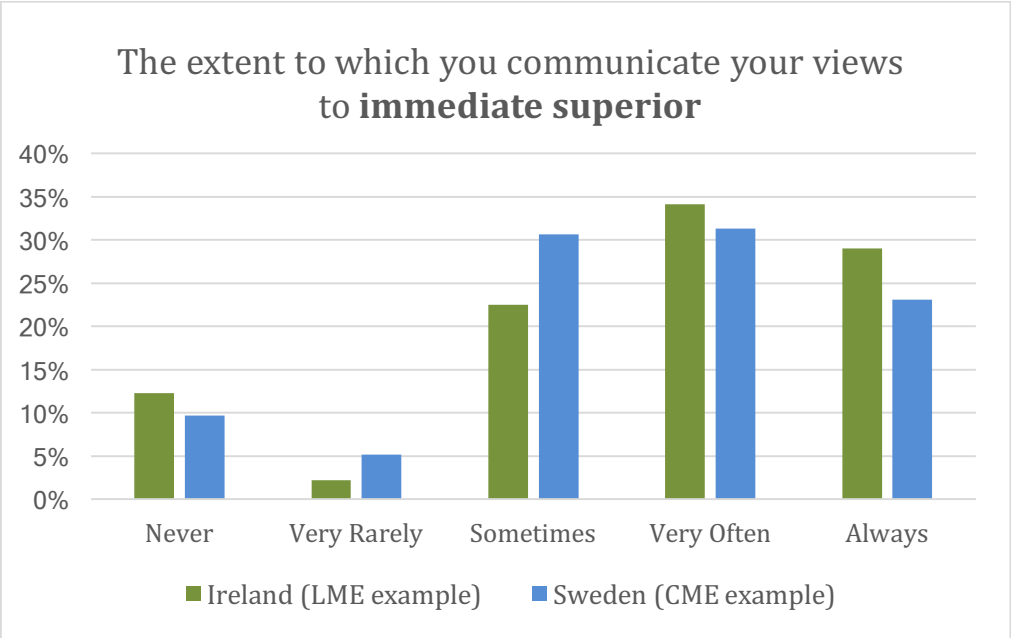
6.2.1 Individual Voice Mechanisms

From Figure 6.1, below, Ireland's sample reflects 66.7% of HFLH employees communicating their views 'very often' or 'always' with senior management. This was considerably higher than the 54.5% for the Sweden sample. Ireland's HFLH sample showed more respondents frequently communicating their views to management via immediate superior (Figure 6.2), with 63.1%, compared to 54.4% in Sweden.



	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	5.80%	8.00%	19.60%	31.90%	34.80%
Sweden	6.70%	9.70%	29.10%	32.10%	22.40%

Figure 6.1: Extent to which HFLH employees communicate views through senior managers (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

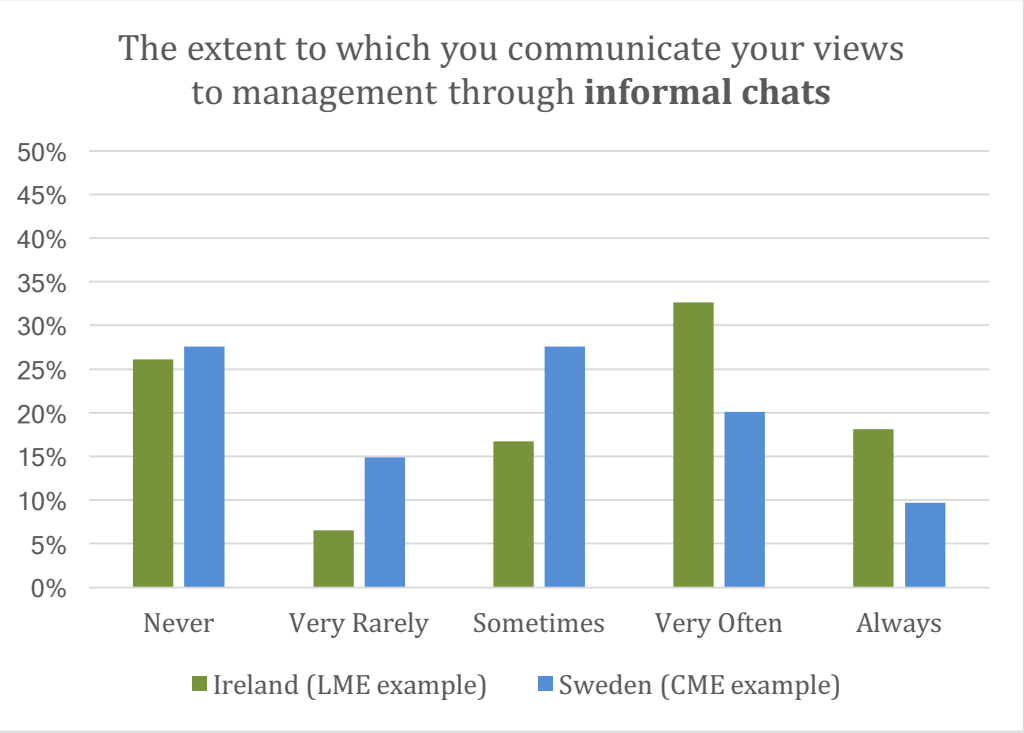


	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	12.30%	2.20%	22.50%	34.10%	29.00%
Sweden	9.70%	5.20%	30.60%	31.30%	23.10%

Figure 6.2: Extent to which HFLH employees communicate views through immediate superior (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

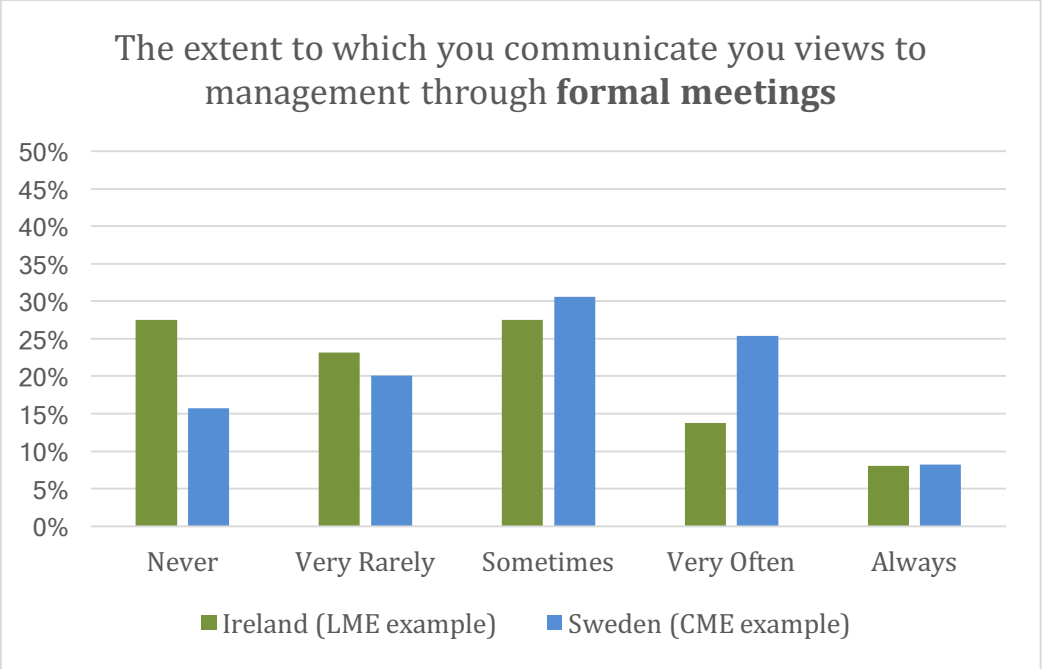
6.2.1.1 Formal Informal Voice Mechanism Differences

Considerable differences emerged between the countries with regard to informal and formal voice mechanisms and these are evident in Figures 6.3 and 6.4. Whilst there was a similar portion in the samples of HFLH employees in Ireland and Sweden (26.1% and 27.6%) that 'never' communicated their views to management through 'informal chats', differences emerged with regard to those HFLH employees who did communicate. Relatively large differences became evident with regard to this across the countries, however, over 50% (52.3% fulltime) of HFLH employees from the Irish sample communicated either 'very often' or 'always' through the medium of 'informal chats', compared to 29.8% (27.3% of full-time employees) in Sweden.



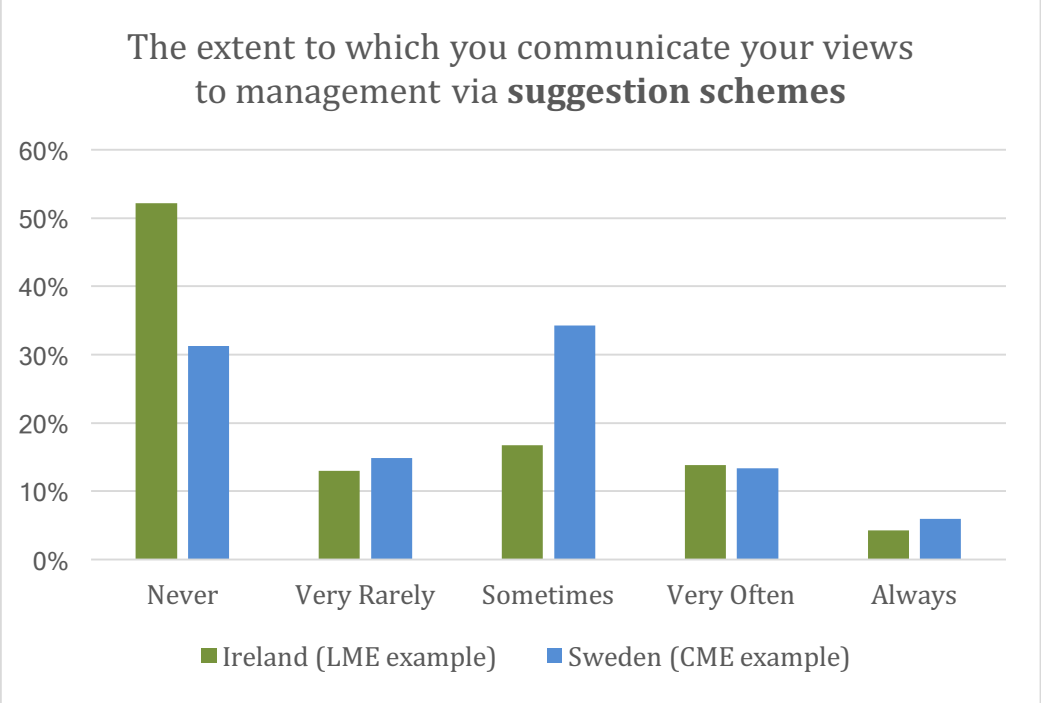
	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	26.10%	6.50%	16.70%	32.60%	18.10%
Sweden	27.60%	14.90%	27.60%	20.10%	9.70%

Figure 6.3 Extent to which HFLH employees communicate views to management through informal chats (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))



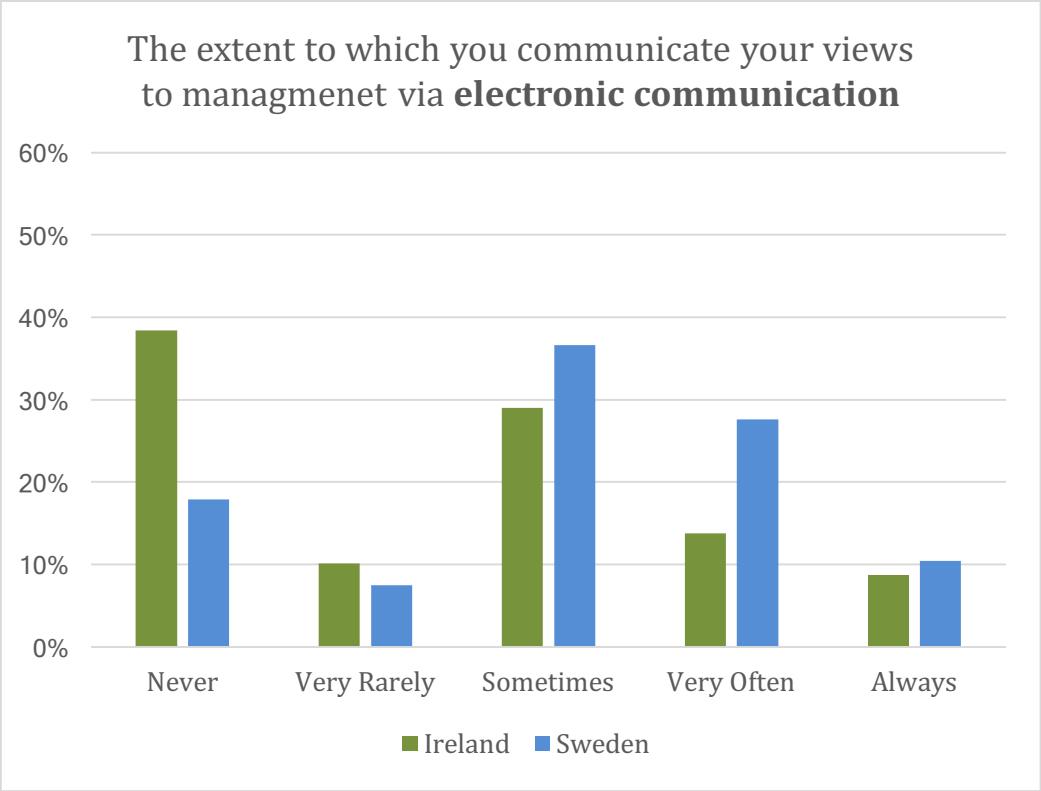
	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	27.50%	23.20%	27.50%	13.80%	8.00%
Sweden	15.70%	20.10%	30.60%	25.40%	8.20%

Figure 6.4: Extent to which HFLH employees communicate views to management through formal meetings (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))



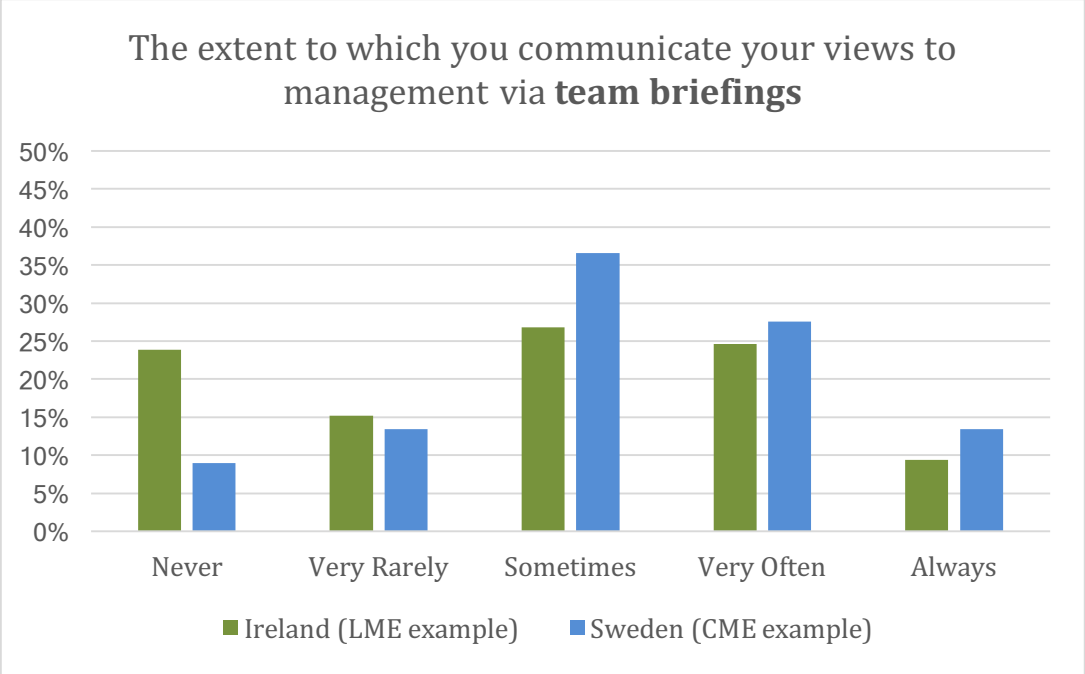
	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	52.20%	13.00%	16.70%	13.80%	4.30%
Sweden	31.30%	14.90%	34.30%	13.40%	6.00%

Figure 6.5: Extent to which HFLH employees communicate views to management through suggestion schemes (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))



	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	38.40%	10.10%	29.00%	13.80%	8.70%
Sweden	17.90%	7.50%	36.60%	27.60%	10.40%

Figure 6.6: Extent to which HFLH employees communicate views to management through electronic communication (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))



	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	23.90%	15.20%	26.80%	24.60%	9.40%
Sweden	9.00%	13.40%	36.60%	27.60%	13.40%

Figure 6.7: Extent to which HFLH employees communicate views to management through team briefings (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

6.2.2 Collective Voice Mechanisms

Regarding the questionnaire question on trade union presence within the workplace, 3% of Ireland's sample said that there was a trade union at the workplace. Ireland's survey results revealed just 3.7% trade union membership within the HFLH sample. These results possibly reflect high-end organisations such as the long-established, Dublin bar/ public house HFLH workers (Dublin bar workers are usually encompassed under Mandate (previously Irish National Union of Vintners). Sweden's sample, on the other hand, comprised 29.1% trade union members. This is significantly below the national average trade union membership level in Sweden. Even when this is adjusted for full-time HFLH employees in Sweden, this only increases to 36.4% which is still significantly lower than the 67.3% national trade union membership (OECD 2014).

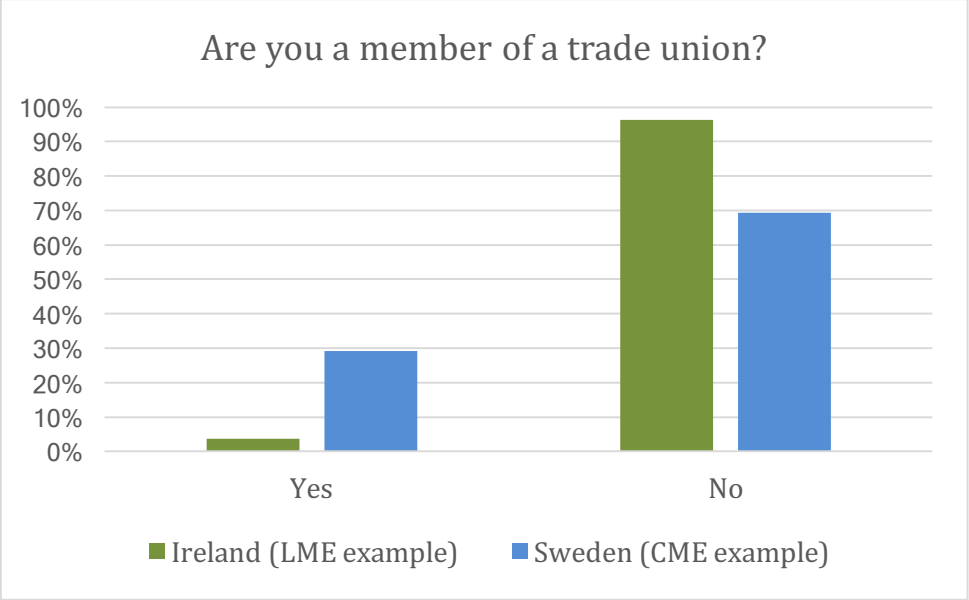


Figure 6.8: HFLH employee Trade Union Membership (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

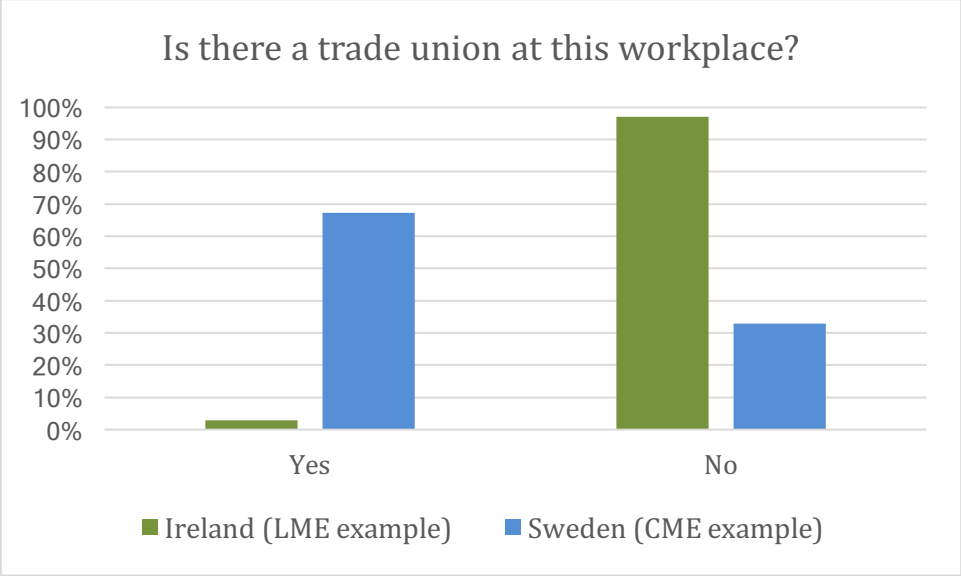
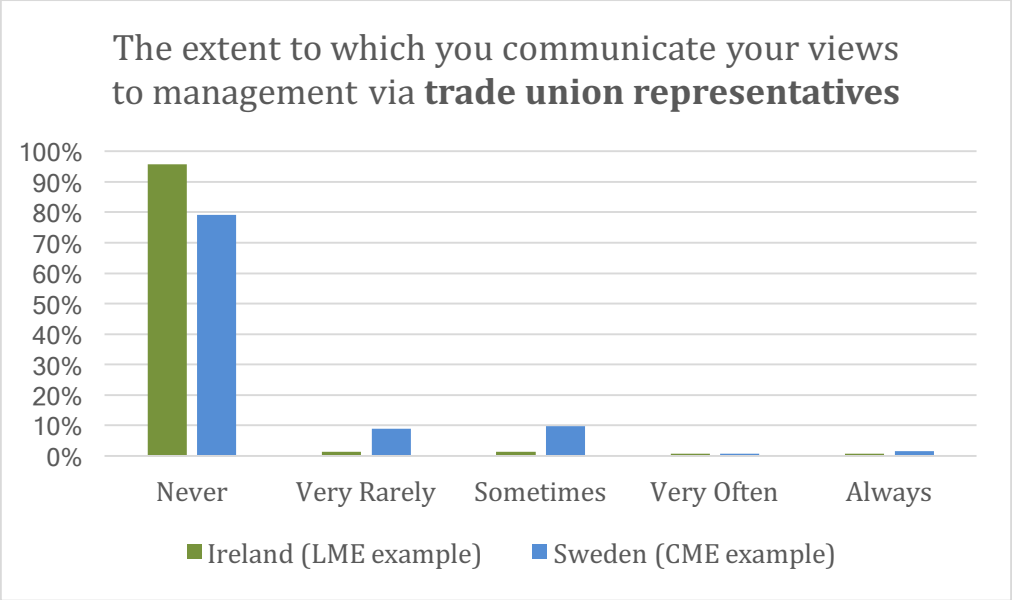


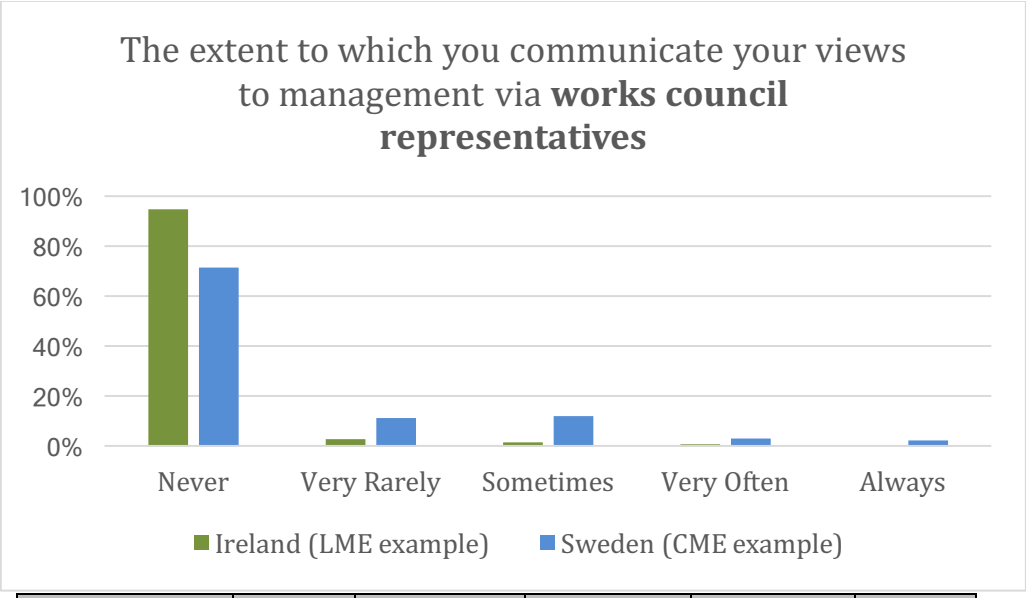
Figure 6.9: HFLH employee Trade Union Presence (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

Figure 6.10 illustrates the extent and frequency of communication with management through the medium of Work Council. This represents a very small percentage of HFLH workers within Sweden, with those responding 'sometimes', 'very often' and 'always' totalling 17.10%.



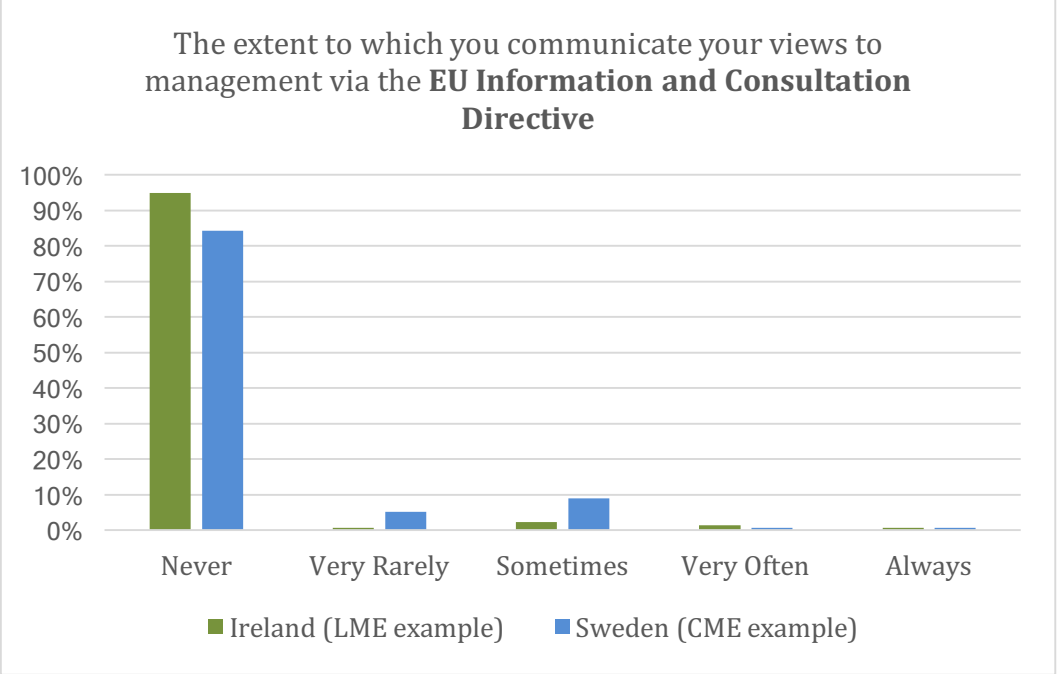
	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	95.70%	1.40%	1.40%	0.70%	0.70%
Sweden	79.10%	9.00%	9.70%	0.70%	1.50%

Figure 6.10: Extent to which HFLH employee communicates views via trade union representatives (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))



	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	94.90%	2.90%	1.40%	0.70%	0.00%
Sweden	71.60%	11.20%	11.90%	3.00%	2.20%

Figure 6.11: Extent to which HFLH employee communicates views via works council representatives (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))



	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Ireland	94.90%	0.70%	2.20%	1.40%	0.70%
Sweden	84.30%	5.20%	9.00%	0.70%	0.70%

Figure 6.12: Extent to which HFLH employee communicates views via EU Information and Consultation Directive (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

Firm size is defined as small (fewer than 50 employees), medium (between 50 and 249 employees), and large (over 250 employees) (OECD, 2016).

6.3 Voice Mechanisms as an antecedent to Work Engagement

Standardised model results are presented below, where P < 0.05 is denoted by * and P < 0.01 by ** and P<0.001 by ***

Table 6.1: Standardised Results: Work Engagement regressed on Voice Mechanisms (Mplus STDYX output)

Variables	Est	SE	Est / SE	*P*
Work Engagement regressed on:				
Collective Voice	-0.088	0.027	-3.247	0.001
Individual Voice	0.434	0.044	9.937	0.000
Individual Voice correlated with Collective Voice	0.276	0.074	3.707	0.000

The above results support Hypothesis 1: individual voice mechanisms are positively correlated with work engagement (0.434, p<.001). Collective voice mechanisms were found to be negatively correlated with work engagement (Hypothesis 2). While this was statistically significant, the effect was relatively small (-0.088, p<.01). This also provides support for Hypothesis 3 (that individual voice mechanisms are more important than collective voice mechanisms with regard to work engagement). Furthermore, the model indicates an inter correlation between individual voice mechanisms and collective voice mechanisms (0.276, p<.001).

6.4 Voice Mechanisms, Work Engagement and Employee Retention

Table 6.2, below, summarises potential antecedents to employee retention based on the theoretical model proposed. It provides standardised results regressing employee retention on work engagement, individual voice, and collective voice mechanisms.

Table 6.2 Standardised Results: Employee Retention regressed on Work Engagement and Voice Mechanisms (Mplus STDYX output)

Variables	Est	SE	Est / SE	*P*
Employee Retention regressed on:				
Work Engagement	0.006	0.018	0.348	0.728
Individual Voice Mechanisms	0.063	0.027	2.380	0.017
Collective Voice Mechanisms	0.165	0.034	4.882	0.000

The observed data regarding employee retention from the sampled organisations was provided from 80% of the organisations. This was due to the sensitivity of this question and the willingness of managers to share such information. This response rate was nonetheless satisfactory and, notwithstanding this missing data, both individual voice mechanisms (Hypothesis 4) (0.063, p<0.05) and collective voice mechanisms (Hypothesis 5) (0.165, p<.001) were both found to be positively related to employee retention. There is no support for Hypothesis 8 positing work engagement as an antecedent to employee retention despite the overall difference in employee retention across the different market economies of 10.2%, with Ireland's 74.9% retention rate lower than Sweden's 85.1% employee retention rate.

This was calculated as the average number of employees that left the organisation in the past year, divided by the total number of full-time employees in the organisation.

6.5 Voice Mechanisms

The previous sections in this chapter explored differences between voice mechanisms across Ireland and Sweden. Various Hypotheses, positing voice mechanisms as antecedents to the HFLH outcomes of work engagement and employee retention relation, were then tested. This next section furthers this analysis of voice mechanisms and comprises three main parts. Firstly, it considers the voice mechanism differences more deeply through qualitative analysis. Here, the market economy differences and quantitative results from the Hypotheses are explored further, particularly with regard to LP dynamics. Secondly, new voice mechanisms that emerged through interviews with HFLH employees and their managers across Ireland and Sweden were considered. These were identified through questioning stakeholders regarding voice mechanisms being used to promote work engagement and employee retention. Finally, the quantitative results are explored further through the findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews with HFLH employees, managers, skill institutions, and voice institutions across Ireland and Sweden.

6.5.1 Voice Mechanism Landscape

Interviewees from larger hospitality organisations in both countries noted daily operations meetings. Whilst these were frequent, with many occurring twice a day, they were brief, predominantly 'one-way' voice and usually took place during shift changes. The nature of HFLH requires adequate 'cover' always, to maintain the customer experience, so absentees are common at these meetings.

Within the context of Sweden, in a large 'high-end' hotel group, an HFLH manager interviewee spoke about his employees as his hotel group as one where "*free speech*" exists. Apart from this "free speech", their HFLH employees could also use of suggestion board where people could have a say anonymously; "I don't believe in formal meetings". While involving HFLH employees in high level meetings with management, senior management revealed that, while this voice is heard, it is not considered.

6.5.1.1 Formal and Informal Individual Voice

Although collective voice is relatively strong within the CME context of Sweden, within HFLH it is weak due to low trade union membership, predominantly small organisations, and a transient workforce. However, much of the co-ordination, which is inherent within the institutional arrangements in Sweden, permeates the culture at the organisational level. This is particularly evident with regard to formal voice, which was found, from the quantitative analysis, to be higher in Sweden than in Ireland. This was reflected also in interviews where small organisations displayed individual voice mechanisms such as formal meetings including HFLH employees within strategy discussions for organisations:

> *"We have strategy meetings four to five times a year… twice a year we have this with everybody in the organisation where we look back and look forward. We have a flat organisation and everybody has a say"*
>
> (HFLH management interviewee 2 - Sweden)

In Sweden, interviewees noted both formal team and individual meetings, where the team meetings were more of a management mechanisms to *"communicate timeliness" and to ensure the "effectiveness and functioning of the team",* while the individual monthly meetings provide a *"space for them to open up".* He noted that it is important to understand the personal lives of HFLH employees:

> *"I am just the one who provides the salary, but these individual meetings show that I care about them".*
>
> (HFLH management interviewee 7 - Sweden)

However, regarding voice in both contexts, it appears that the main form of voice, team meetings, concerns 'operational' issues. More strategic meetings, more common in the Swedish context, often occurred just twice a year, with more of a concentration within the upper scale of small (10-99 employees) high-end organisations. What also became evident is that, even within small organisations, there was considerable difficulty with regard to HFLH voice on a one-to-one basis with senior management. This was particular to both Sweden and Ireland and is illustrated in the following quote:

> *"There are always seniors that will talk to you but the juniors often come up through the ranks to talk to you"*
>
> (HFLH management interviewee 4 - Ireland)

6.5.2 Voice Mechanisms – New Mechanisms

Throughout the interviews examining voice mechanisms in HFLH across Ireland and Sweden, mechanisms particular to this atypical sector were identified. These are outlined in this section. The first of these are voluntary workshops.

6.5.2.1 Workshops as informal voice mechanism

Many organisations across Ireland and Sweden used hybrid mechanism of voice which entailed skill development and training. These included mindfulness workshops, educational walks around the locality to enhance guest experience. Such workshops were utilised as voice for employees to 'have a say' in how best they felt things could be done in each organisation.

> *"This (wellness forum) creates a safe place. Sometimes the things that are not said are the things that cause the problems … it is voluntary, people can come along to a workshop and it is a safe place for people to have a say"*
>
> (HFLH management interviewee 8 - Ireland)

Whilst most team meetings, especially in the larger organisations, were very much focused on operations, an interview in Ireland with a manager of a small hospitality organisation (10 full time employees but up to 30 part-time workers) revealed their concern over the quasi-collective nature of formal team meetings. Their view was that the use of a more informal medium such as chats at a wine-tasting event would be much more effective.

> *"find if you put a roomful of people together to bounce ideas off each other you can actually create problems that mightn't have been there"*
>
> (HFLH management interviewee 4 – Ireland)

Similar animosity for team meetings was expressed among HFLH employees in Ireland, in terms of how they often manifest into mechanisms for conflict instead of co-ordination.

> *"I don't like confrontation and I feel like if you have something to say it should be said. That has always been the way I have approached things: if I have something to say, I say it. I kind of have expected that from the people I have worked with. Team meetings are a nightmare"*

(HFLH employee interviewee 6 - Sweden)

Workshops provide a space where trust can be fostered between employees and management. In HFLH and the continuous service nature of hospitality, it also allows an alternative and a more relaxed mechanism (particularly if these workshops concern mindfulness and meditation) compared to the conflict and pressure-filled formal individual voice mechanisms held within work hours.

6.5.2.2 Business-unit focused Direct Voice – Senior Management working as HFLH employees

Another issue for management interviewees was the difficulty in instilling the required organisation's culture, through business units that require it, using a direct voice mechanism. Here, senior management would prioritise the most urgent meetings, business unit or department and work alongside the HFLH employees both providing a mechanism and a resource to call on if necessary; *"I see myself as a tool"* to facilitate department or business unit meetings just when required, "I just come in from the side or from below". One example involved a hotel manager working a night a week with the night manager on reception. Another hotel group manager noticed turnover issues in one hotel. This prompted the manager to work both at reception and on the restaurant floor until things improved.

> *"We have a better understanding of the day to day stresses they are going through"*
> (HFLH management interviewee 4 - Sweden).

6.5.2.3 *NSWT Voice* – Out-of-hours Voice Mechanisms

One of HFLH's atypical characteristics is non-standard work time (NSWT); this often see employees working outside senior management's schedule leaving them without this important voice mechanism. Other CME managers spoke of the difficulty in providing such a voice to certain HFLH employees that are often ignored in the prevailing business-hour mechanisms. To facilitate such an opportunity, one manager recounted the need to work late into the night on Mondays to facilitate a direct voice mechanism with night managers who would rotate on a weekly basis.

> *"so I can go through routines and issues with them directly"*
> (HFLH management interviewee 2 - Sweden)

Regarding engagement and voice, one area that was related by HFLH employee and employer interviewees across both Ireland and Sweden is the creation of an "atmosphere" or "environment" to encourage voice. There were differing examples of this, ranging from the body language of the HFLH managers among HFLH employees, to the dress-code policy being eliminated to allow each employee to "feel themselves". Other high-end hospitality managers in Sweden and Ireland spoke of the need to create suitable mechanisms for voice outside work premises or outside standard work hours (e.g. NSWT). These examples ranged from optional workshops, (e.g. masterclasses from baristas) to research trips around the local area (of a hotel) to better provide an experience for guests. Both examples involved a subsequent dinner or gathering which was chaired as a voice mechanism: *"How can we improve things?"*

6.5.2.4 Changes in Electronic Voice Mechanisms

In high-end hospitality organisations in Sweden, the use of SMS groups and similar *WhatsApp* groups are used as operational voice mechanisms for management to communicate with HFLH employees either as a team or as individuals. These primarily involved communicating and agreeing changes in work-time arrangements. Management interviewees in Sweden did note that these were only secondary or supplementary mechanisms of voice, to the face-to-face mechanisms. Other examples in Ireland included the use of a work specific voice application. This electronic voice mechanism called 'Asana', allowed for a separate channel for work voice, separate to mechanisms for communicating in the non-work domain. This could be interpreted as an effort, given the levels of NSWT in HFLH to create a separation. With regard to work engagement, it might facilitate recovery in the non-work domain, which has been shown as an antecedent to work engagement (Sonnentag et al., 2012; Zijlstra and Sonnentag, 2006; Sonnentag, 2003). Such technological mechanisms were supported by company policies such as email breaks. Apart from examples for HFLH employees, management examples also emerged from interviews. Even though the organisation was trading during the weekend, management would not check or respond to emails during this time.

6.5.2.5 Job Rotation

To facilitate voice in many HFLH organisations across both Sweden and Ireland, management used job rotation. This primarily facilitated horizontal voice, which is

very important in hospitality operations. However, it also provided HFLH employees with a greater understanding of task conception rather than just task execution. This provided HFLH employees with more autonomy and understanding of the business itself. Examples include a receptionist working room service, waiting staff working in the bar, or a barista working for a day in the kitchen. It also created a sense of autonomy and personal control. Examples were evident within HFLH in Ireland, where employees found this particularly engaging. They described it as very challenging but very worthwhile in that a sense of respect for other departments and for the organisation was fostered. Critical incident examples include an employee who, from the use of this mechanisms, built up the courage to establish his own café following a conversation with a previous employer.

6.5.3 Voice Mechanisms and Work Engagement

Most managers and employees across Sweden and Ireland agreed that while voice can often be negative, a key facet of engagement within the area is the use of positive voice when HFLH employees do the 'right thing' and when the work is satisfactory. Similarly, the presentation of negative voice from management within hospitality, while important for improvement and the creating of excellent service, needs to be managed. Both employees and managers spoke of the need to balance such feedback with the positive, to maintain engagement within their job.

> "*If you did something good you want to hear about it*"
>
> (HFLH employee interviewee 2 - Sweden)

6.5.3.1 Voice Mechanisms as Autonomy in HFLH

In both Ireland and Sweden, there were instances in high-end hospitality organisations where autonomy was encouraged. Predominantly, the examples involved senior managers who would delegate considerable amounts of autonomy to middle management. Between middle management and HFLH though control often took on a more direct approach, consistent with core LP theory. This is particularly evident when speaking to the skill development institution within Ireland. Here, the interviewee, when conducting labour market research within HFLH, found evidence of considerable turnover across middle management within such 'high-end' organisations. The interviewee when conducting research on labour market movements noticed that many 'high-end' hospitality middle-managers left

the industry completely, as the demands and responsibility became unbearable. Examples of alternative industries such as retail were pursued as a career, instead. Similar examples of middle management burnout emerged in Swedish HFLH also.

Voice mechanisms play a particularly important role in the customer service in redressing the customer power balance. In redressing the customer's balance of power, many HFLH managers were aware of the need for HFLH employees to exercise voice to redress the imbalance of power between the customer. HFLH employee interviewees responded that they feel 'safe' and 'appreciated' with regards to the organisation, when management provided a fair voice mechanism opportunity in the wake of customer complaints. Similarly, management across both countries shared views on the provision of autonomy as important in situations to 'deal' with customer problems themselves albeit up to a certain level. They also agreed on the need to do so while being aware of each HFLH employee's unique individual desire for such autonomy. They noted that some HFLH employees prefer different levels of autonomy than others. This has important management implications for the provision of 'responsible autonomy' and 'scope', often considered collectively for employees. Theoretically, it also provides support for both the demands and resources of the JD-R (Conway et al., 2015; Tims et al., 2013; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007) of engagement.

6.5.3.2 Collective Voice Mechanisms and Work Engagement

HFLH trade union interviewees in Sweden agreed that the use and effectiveness of collective voice depends very much on the type and size or high-end hospitality organisation. They also suggested that the most effective mechanism is where there are works councils within the organisation. They said that voice is particularly effective and "easier" here due to management and employees being on the "same level". They did note the relatively low level of union membership within 'high-end' hospitality in Sweden as being around 30%. This was consistent with the survey findings of high-end organisations, which equated to 30%. The difference in hospitality membership was suggested by the interviewee as being due to the transient nature of hospitality; the main hospitality union suggested that almost 40% of employees are on short-term contracts. They did note that this relatively low membership level is there despite the positive views and tradition of unions within

Sweden and that people are generally in favour of them. However, it is the young, short-term nature, combined with the low wages that does not see hospitality workers signing up to become union members. They are also satisfied with unions as organisations that are there to help anyway, even if they are not members. They did mention long established high-end chains within Sweden that would have collective voice and representation on a "high level" with management with regards to company. Other chains did not have such structures in place.

According to FLH trade union interviewees, the presence of collective voice amongst hospitality remains concentrated in the 'big chains'. They noted that as you go down in organisational size towards smaller organisations which comprises, the majority of hospitality collective voice becomes more informal - *"over a coffee".* They claimed that the problem arises when the trade union is not informed about arrangements or amendments to arrangements. They added that members often called the union directly asking whether employers are *"allowed to do this ... or that"* because small organisations *"do not know about the system*" (HFLH trade union employee interviewee 2 - Sweden).

The need for trade union representation and information was reinforced by the interviewee who noted that many of the *"young people"* who enter hospitality do not know their rights. The trade union employees often visit schools throughout Sweden to inform potential HFLH employees of their rights and that they may exercise collective voice within their role. The trade union also noted that due to the nature of contracts, which are structured 'outside the law' and not as part of an agreement, HFLH employees are often afraid to exercise collective voice. An example was provided regarding 'housekeepers' who are a *"very silent"* group, as they are afraid that *"they will not get called in the next day"*. They noted that, as part of creating awareness of this precarious group of quasi-frontline hospitality employees, they encourage the fair housekeeping campaign in Sweden as part of the global campaign. They (Swedish FLH trade union employee 2 and 3) confirmed that this practice of minimising contracted hours and creating an *"extra hours"* system is common in HFLH positions. They added that, in addition to this, due to the loose demarcation of roles, housekeeping roles are often combined with breakfast and conference preparation roles.

6.5.3.3 Demarcation of Tasks

The collective voice institutions in Sweden, in their pursuit of clearly defined roles and responsibility, means *"you are either a worker or management"* (HFLH trade union employee interviewee 2 - Sweden).

The HFLH employee trade unions viewed this responsible autonomy as a somewhat *"grey area"* due to management duties often being performed by employees who were accounted for within the salaries of management. The employee union attributed the employee's rationale to pursue this 'grey area' to attain the education and experience necessary to challenge and develop themselves and to increase prospects for progression to management positions. They also attributed it to the amount of people with *"bad degrees"* that choose hospitality as a fall back.

6.5.3.4 Competitive Pressures acting on HFLH

Swedish HFLH trade union interviewees, along with 'high-end' hospitality organisation managers, noted the shift in economic pressures shaping CME hospitality. One regional high-end hospitality organisation highlighted the increasing salaries among Swedish HFLH workers. This is despite the relatively stable room and food prices across Western Sweden (Trade Union Interviewee Sweden). These changes in ownership has created a domino effect and forced more long-term focused hotels to shift their strategy. Other examples of this were noted in interviews, particularly within Sweden, in the corporate governance sphere, where patient capital has shifted to focus on short term profits. Here, the investment in labour skills and even customer service has reduced in priority, with both the HFLH employee trade union and certain HFLH managers (hotel and restaurant group) noticing the trend. This has been exacerbated by technological advances such as booking platforms (e.g. hotels.com and booking.com) and the prominence and customer influence of EWOM reviews (e.g. TripAdvisor) creating a downward pressure on prices for both restaurants and hotels.

6.5.3.5 Individual Voice Mechanisms and Work Engagement

Despite these instances from trade union and skills institution interviewees, management interviewees provided more positive instances of autonomy and, in particular, the provision of individual direct voice mechanisms. Examples of this autonomy emerged from interviews when senior management would place

themselves in the business unit or section requiring most attention; *"I see myself as a tool"* to facilitate department or business unit meetings just when required, "I just come in from the side or from below". Regarding managing HFLH employees, examples of considerable autonomy emerged where it was *"important to respect that they are in charge and that I am just a resource for them" (HFLH Management Interviewee 8 - Sweden).*

One hospitality manager in Sweden, responsible for multiple high-end restaurants and hotels, pursued a strategy of visiting the business unit which demanded the most urgent attention. This would facilitate direct voice with top management and provide a strong individual means of voice with HFLH employees. While many Swedish and Irish hospitality manager interviewees spoke of the autonomy provided to middle-management employees, they noted that this was facilitated by appropriate direct voice mechanisms. Some managers noted that this might not necessarily have been to discuss urgent matters but more of a form of *"support"* or *"back-up"; "the problem that day might be that they are out of lemons and they do not have time to pick up lemons"* (HFLH Management Interviewee 6 - Sweden).

While this was given as an answer my many respondents across both countries, when pushed further, they said that most strive for formal meetings but HFLH managers' time demands did not permit such desired voice mechanisms.

> "I *wish I had an eight-day week so I could have a day to meet my employees and talk about what we could improve and what we could do better and to educate them about new drinks and new food. It is a lack of time*"
>
> (HFLH Management interviewee 4 - Sweden)

Other Swedish managers spoke of the difficulty in providing such voice to certain HFLH employees that are often ignored in the prevailing business-hour mechanisms. To facilitate such an opportunity, one manager recounted their need to work late into the night on Mondays to facilitate a direct voice mechanism with night managers who would rotate on a weekly basis; *"so I can go through routines and issues with them directly"* (HFLH management interviewee 2 - Sweden).

Another manager in Sweden spoke of the difficulty in in the *"weakness"* in voice between HFLH managers and this resulted in the voice being diluted on its way to the HFLH employees.

"weekly meeting faded out… the managers of the frontline areas did not talk together, they did not have meetings… they spoke to the owners. *They communicated everyday with SMS and had weak communication and the inspirational meetings did not work….You have to bring the passion down to the floor"*

(HFLH Management interviewee 4 - Sweden)

"I always like them to feel part of everything from the action of services to the economics of why we do the things we do".

(HFLH Management interviewee 1 - Sweden)

There were clear examples from HFLH manager interviewees in high-end hospitality organisations, particularly in Ireland, regarding voice mechanisms as a means of motivation. Three common examples emerged. The first involved employees voluntarily seeking additional duties and responsibility in pursuit of work engagement. Secondly, management across both countries in different organisations referred examples in which they chose to work alongside HFLH employees under different circumstances. The third example involved HFLH employees partaking in job rotation which, apart from generating horizontal voice in the organisation, was mentioned in interviews as being important for their work engagement.

6.5.3.6 Nature of Voice within HFLH Voice Mechanisms and Work Engagement

From the employee's point of view, interviewees noted that to be an engaged employee requires more positive voice than what usually takes place in the voice exchange between employees and management. Across both contexts, Ireland and Sweden, HFLH interviewees noted that voice is often solely negative. This became apparent from interviewing HFLH managers, with one noting *"What gets back to me are always the problems".* This is important to generate improvement and to correct. One Swedish HFLH employee, when asked how to increases engagement within a HFLH, responded that that if you achieved *"something good you want to hear about it*" and suggested "*more positive reactions from management*". Simple examples include a *"hand on the shoulder, good job and a thank you"* after a busy night in a high-end establishment where the employee was on a split shift and working two stations and where revenue was high.

6.5.3.7 Personality and Cultural differences regarding voice mechanisms

Many HFLH managers spoke of how the mechanisms, extent, frequency, and effectiveness of voice would depend on individual differences of HFLH employees. This was evident in interviews across both Irish and Swedish contexts. Both HFLH manager interviewees in Ireland and Sweden spoke of the need for awareness, with regard to individual HFLH employees. Notwithstanding the institutional arrangements (and predominantly the market) that shape the LME example of Ireland, a number of HFLH employees spoke of the Irish cultural trait of 'staying quiet':

> "*norm is to ignore, ignore, ignore and then chat*" where "*we have a problem with being upfront with each other in this country and that causes frustrations…".*
>
> (HFLH management interviewee 2 - Ireland)

This was also raised by HFLH managers in their description of the various voice mechanism that are used. One of these managers quotes "*the un-said is always the worst thing*" in their justification for creating a "safe" environment as a voice mechanism for such a cultural trait.

6.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter on voice mechanisms sought to address the following supplementary research question:

1. **How does a variety of voice mechanisms used in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**

This chapter addressed this supplementary research questions in three parts. The first supplementary research question was addressed partly by the literature review, questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The first area addressed in this chapter was the different voice (individual and collective) landscapes across the different market economy examples: Ireland and Sweden. With regard to individual voice mechanisms, differences were found with regard to formal and informal voice across both countries. With regard to collective voice mechanisms, the atypical nature of the sector was further supported. This was particularly evident in the level

of HFLH trade union voice within the HFLH sample in Sweden. This was more than half the national average (OECD 2014) and did not increase when adjusted for the work status of full-time employees.

Following this, the chapter tested the Hypotheses with regard to voice mechanisms as potential antecedents to work engagement and employee retention. Whilst individual voice positively related to work engagement, collective voice was negatively related to work engagement. However, the effect size of this relationship was much greater with regard to individual voice. Individual and collective voice mechanisms were both found to be positively related to employee retention; there was no support for work engagement as an antecedent to employee retention.

Qualitative analysis explored these results further and interviews with HFLH noted that, due to the smaller nature of hospitality organisations, compared to other industries, formal representative mechanisms were difficult to enforce. Instead, collective voice mechanisms were often used solely as a channel for negative voice and dissent. This might explain the negative relationship between collective voice and work engagement. Furthermore, sectoral competitive pressures were acting against VoC, where HFLH workers were actively seeking to take on management tasks, despite strict demarcation. HFLH employees viewed this as potential for progression but the HFLH employee trade union noted that, without the required experience or education or indeed pay for carrying out such tasks, it was denoted as a 'grey area'. Whilst not explicitly explored in this research, evidence emerged from various stakeholders across both countries of middle management being overworked within HFLH. Such competitive pressures acting upon this sector might be as a result of 'financialisation', which became evident in interviews across Ireland and Sweden.

With regard to individual voice and work engagement, interviewees (both employees and management) spoke of the 'negative' voice within HFLH. Whilst critical voice was required to maintain service quality, it may be best placed amongst positive voice also. Furthermore, there was a need to tailor voice mechanisms appropriately to each individual HFLH employee. It was noted that certain employees did not seek autonomy, scope, or personal control and from JD-R literature, might be at their optimum level of work engagement.

Finally, new voice mechanisms appropriate to the sector emerged also as workshops, business unit focused direct voice, NSWT voice mechanisms, new forms of electronic voice mechanisms, along with job rotation. The next chapter will consider skill learning systems.

CHAPTER 7 SKILL LEARNING SYSTEMS OF HFLH IN SWEDEN AND IRELAND

7.1 Chapter Introduction

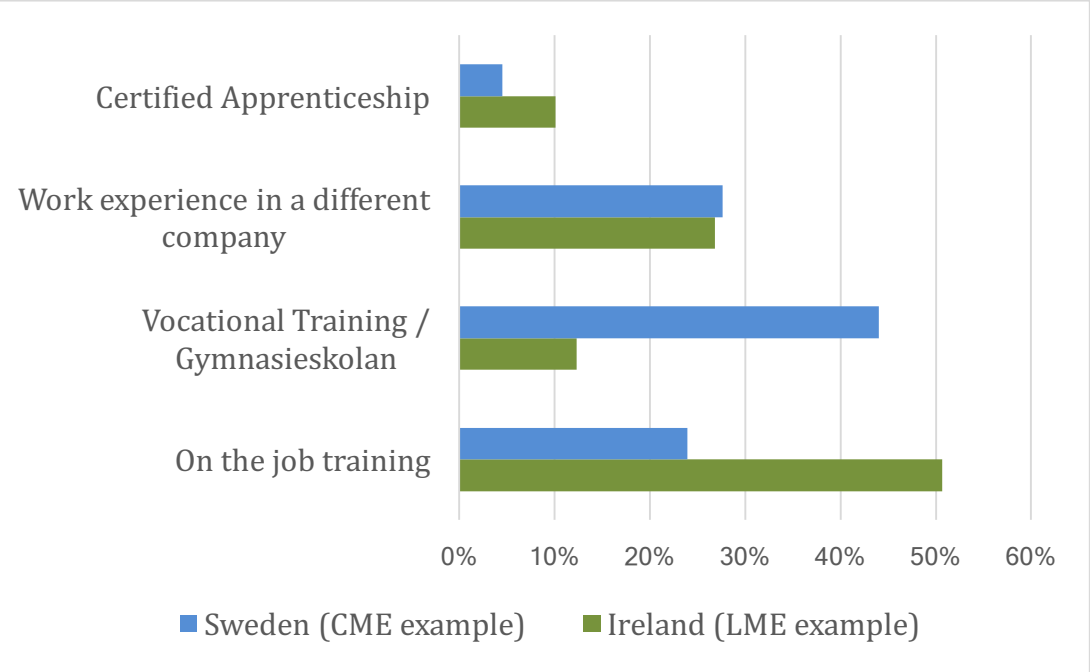
This chapter, which focuses on skill learning systems as an antecedent to HFLH work engagement and employee retention, is the second of three results chapters. This chapters presents descriptive statistics and analyses the SEM results relating to skill learning systems before integrating the results. This chapter primarily relates to supplementary research question two:

> **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**
>
> *H7: HFLH employees with specific skills are more engaged than HFLH employees with general skills across different market economies.*
>
> *H8: HFLH work engagement is positively related to employee retention across different market economies.*
>
> *H9: HFLH employees with specific training are less likely to exercise their mobility power compared with HFLH employees with general skills.*

In addressing this research question, the chapter begins by examining the data from both samples of HFLH employees across both Ireland and Sweden. In doing so, it sets out the skills landscape across both institutional contexts. Following this, the chapter then examines this data using Structural Equational Modelling (SEM) techniques. In doing so, it tests Hypotheses 7 - 9. Following this, the qualitative results are presented in order to understand how these different skill learning systems might lead to HFLH work engagement. In conducting these semi-structured interviews in high-end hospitality organisations, with a focus on work engagement and retention, new skill mechanisms were identified. This allowed the researcher to address the second part of the fourth supplementary research question. Finally, before concluding, the chapter again focuses on the results of semi-structured interviews considering optimal skill learning systems for HFLH. This, not only considers work-engagement and retention, but does so from a multi-stakeholder perspective.

7.2 Skill Learning Systems in HFLH across Ireland and Sweden

This section considers the skill landscape of both the LME example of Ireland and CME example of Sweden. In presenting the results from the survey analysis, this section highlights the differences and similarities in the sources of skills, highest qualification, whether HFLH employees expect their future in hospitality, and how they perceive their own skills in relation to those needed for their current role. Figure 7.1 outlines the main sources of skills for HFLH employees:

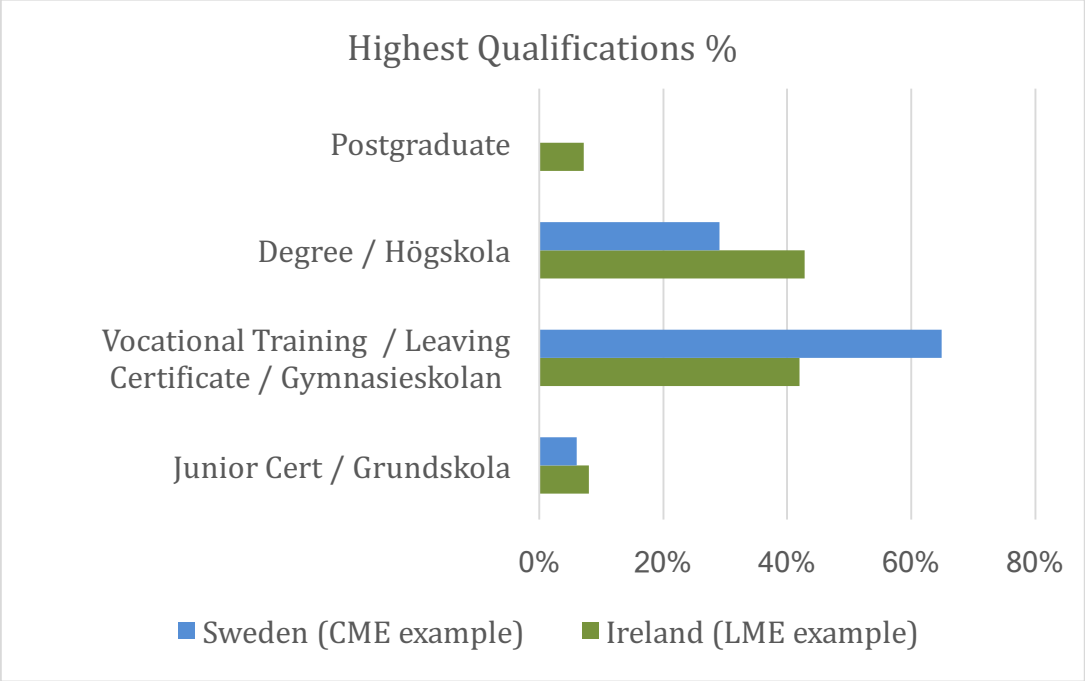


Main Source of Skills for Current Job	Ireland	Sweden
Work Experience in Different Company	26.80%	27.60%
On the Job Training	50.70%	23.90%
Vocational Training	12.30%	44.00%
Certified Apprenticeship	10.10%	4.50%

Figure 7.1: Main source of HFLH skills for job from Sweden (n = 138) and Ireland (n=134)

The Vocational Training percentage of the sample within Sweden was 44%, whilst specific training (vocational training and certified apprenticeship) equated to 49.5% of the sample. The apprenticeship element may relate to Danish trained workers mainly in the Southern region of Sweden. In Ireland, the apprenticeship possibly relates to workers who would have undertaken apprenticeship before it has almost

completely fallen away. The main concentration here is Dublin bar workers who would make up a large proportion in certain older establishments. Ireland's HFLH service offering comprised 77.5% general and 22.5% specific in Ireland.



Highest Qualification	Junior Cert / *Grundskola*	Vocational Training / Leaving Certificate / *Gymnasieskolan*	Degree / *Högskola*	Postgraduate
Ireland	8.00%	42.00%	42.80%	7.20%
Sweden	6.00%	64.90%	29.10%	0.00%

Figure 7.2: HFLH employees Highest Qualification across Ireland (n=138) and Sweden (n=134)

While the Ireland sample comprised slightly higher perceptions (much higher 20.3% vs 17.2%, a bit higher 34.8% vs. 32.1%) of skills held personally matched with the skills needed for the present job, this may be due to qualifications. This high level of education in Ireland might also reinforce its 'general' status. Here, 50.8% of HFLH employees with degree or postgraduate (7.5%). This was compared to 29.1% of the sample from Sweden with degree or postgraduate (0%).

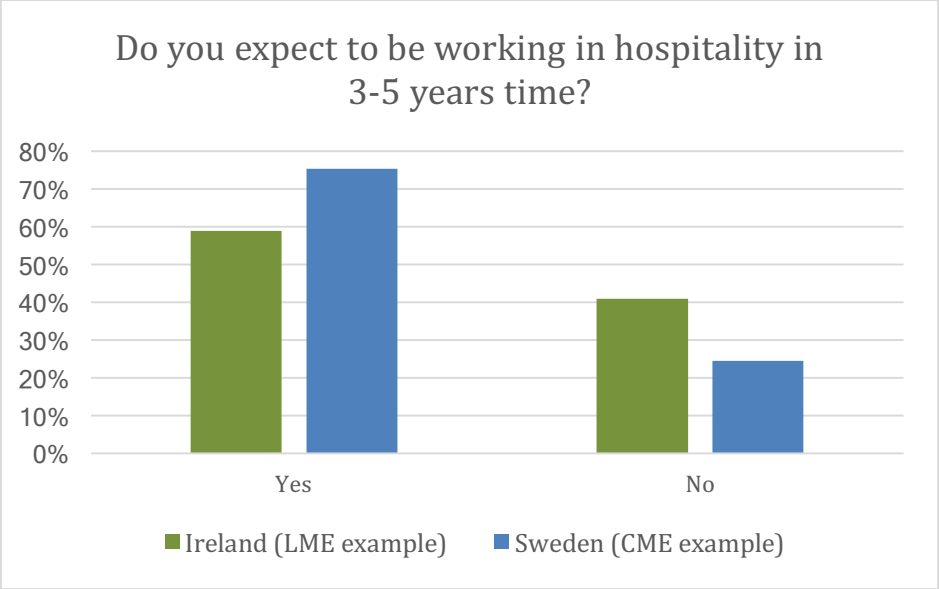


Figure 7.3: HFLH employee expectations of future within the hospitality industry (Ireland (n=138), Sweden (n=134))

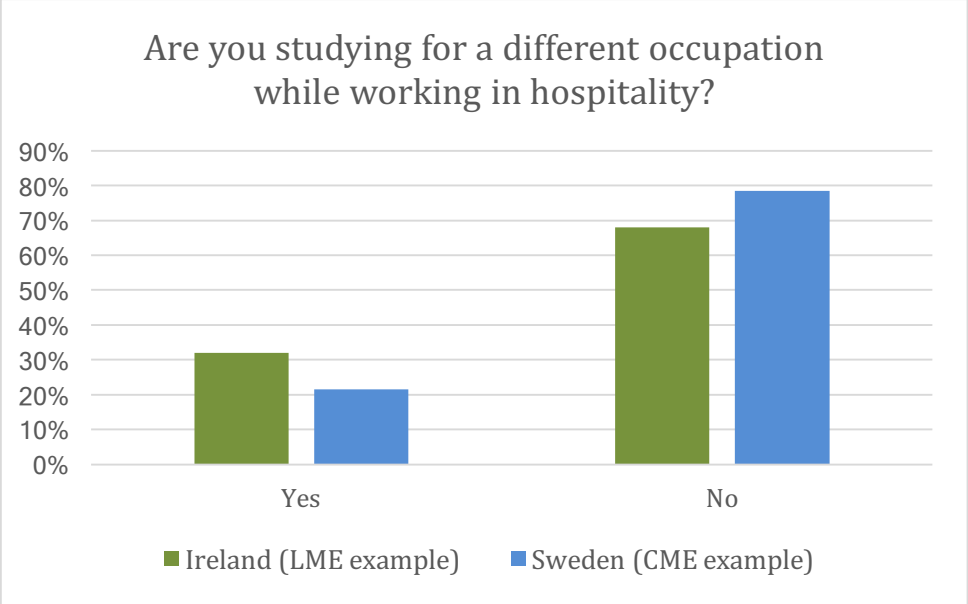
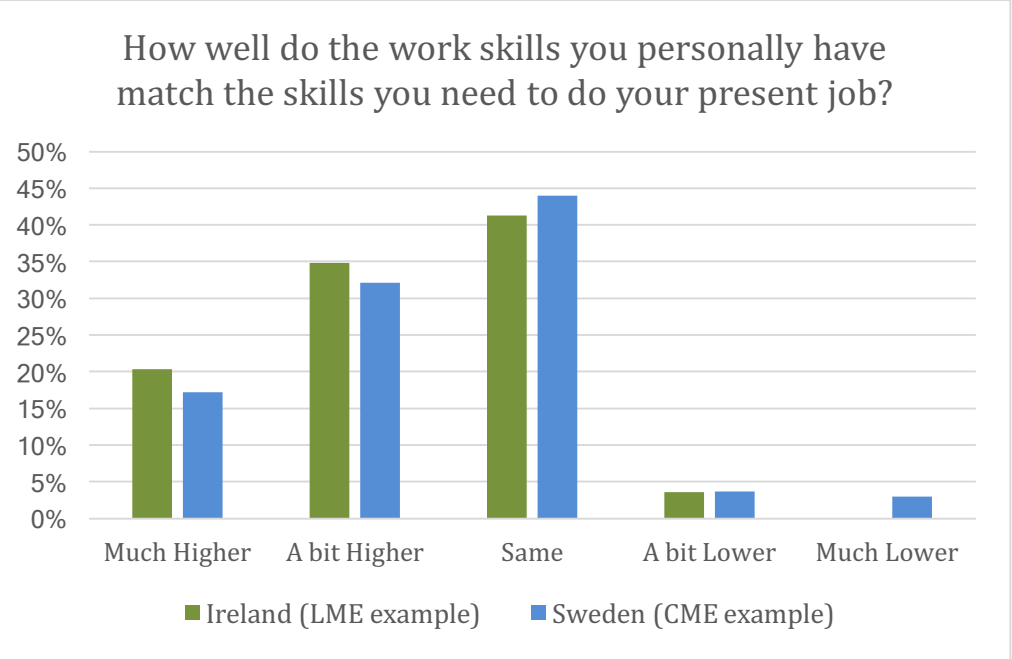


Figure 7.4: HFLH employees studying for a different occupation while working in hospitality across Ireland (n=138) and Sweden (n=134)

From the above graph (Figure 7.4), 32.8% of the Irish HFLH sample were studying for a different occupation while working in hospitality. This was compared to 21.6% for the Swedish sample. Similarly, when the samples (Figure 7.3) were asked if they 'expect to be working in hospitality in 3 to 5 years' time?', Ireland responded 59.4% 'yes' (versus 75.4% responding 'yes' in Sweden), suggesting a more transient labour

force within Ireland's HFLH sector.



Personal skills to role skills	Much Higher	A bit Higher	Same	A bit Lower	Much Lower
Ireland	20.30%	34.80%	41.30%	3.60%	0.00%
Sweden	17.20%	32.10%	44.00%	3.70%	3.00%

Figure 7.5: HFLH employee personal skills compared to those required for their job across Ireland (n=138) and Sweden (n=134)

7.3 Examining Skill Learning Systems as an antecedent to Work Engagement and Employee Retention

The below tables provide a summary of the standardised results, where the dependent variables of work engagement (7.1) and employee retention (7.2) are regressed on the independent variables.

Table 7.1: Standardised Results: Work engagement regressed on Skill type, Hospitality Future, studying for different occupation… (Mplus STDYX output)

Variables	Est	SE	Est / SE	*P*
Work Engagement regressed on:				
Skill Type	-0.004	0.055	-0.072	0.943
Future in hospitality	0.362	0.093	3.633	0.000
Studying for different occupation	0.141	0.050	2.893	0.004

Gender	0.032	0.068	0.477	0.642

Table 7.2 Standardised Results: Employee Retention regressed on Work engagement and Skill Learning Systems (Mplus STDYX output)

Variables	Est	SE	Est / SE	*P*
Employee Retention regressed on:				
Work Engagement	0.006	0.018	0.348	0.728
Skill Type	0.030	0.069	0.434	0.664

For *Hypotheses* 4 and 9, with regards to skill learning systems, there was no significant relationship found between skill learning systems (general or specific skills) and work engagement or employee retention. However, from the results, it was apparent that transient employees are less likely to be engaged in their work. This was evident in the positive relationship between those who indicated they will pursue a future (next 3-5 years) in hospitality and work engagement (0.362, $p<.001$). However, those studying for alternative careers while working in HFLH were found to be more engaged in their work (0.141, $p<.01$).

7.4 Skill Learning Systems leading to Work Engagement and Employee Retention across Ireland and Sweden

7.4.1 Sweden HFLH Skill Landscape

Swedish hospitality skills comprise primarily vocational training integrated into high-school (three years - *gymnaskolan*) and vocational school (two years – *hogskolan*). From interviews with the various institutions within the Swedish context, two important nuances within the 'vocational' labelled, CME type curriculum emerged. Firstly, the curriculum contained an element of apprenticeship (fifteen weeks over the three years of initial vocational training) that was not always acknowledged. Notwithstanding this, Swedish HFLH training, however, remained an extreme for its level of vocational education. Secondly, Sweden once shared more similarities with the Danish dualistic model of specific training, where previously over fifty percent of time was spent in the workplace as apprenticeship. Regarding the current fifteen weeks of apprenticeship-based training within Sweden, institutional complementarities and firm-level co-ordination remained as

fundamental drivers. Examples of this are evident in the state funding provided to help hospitality organisations engage with the fifteen-week apprenticeship. Those organisations who were 'active' in taking on these students for work experience and in providing specific organisational learning were reimbursed accordingly.

Sweden's HFLH managers seeking more specific skills

Another theme, which became evident from HFLH manager interviewees in Sweden, was the need to develop more "narrow" specialisations. Employers described Sweden's specific training as "*not being specific enough*". Interviewees provided organisational examples of cocktail bars, specialist beer bars, and wine-bars. While this theme was a common idea among HFLH managers, many highlighted the difficulty in protecting organisational 'investment' in such 'expensive' training from employees leaving the organisation.

> *"You cannot make a contract with someone to remain for at least five years after such training is completed".*
>
> (HFLH Employer interviewee - Sweden 6)

Swedish HFLH manager interviewees supported such specific skills such as cocktails (mixologist) or social media skills for receptionists and *sommelier* and maître d' skills for restaurants. However, their responses were not consistent with other stakeholders. Hotel and tourism associations are lobbying the skills institutions and regulatory authorities to provide more 'broader skills'. While this call for broader skills may be interpreted as a convergence, it may just characterise the usual ebb and flow of VoC. There has possibly been a delayed effect of globalisation on the hotel provision in Sweden, where strong indigenous organisations (e.g. Scandic) have adequately provided for the market for many years. Much of the market is now comprised of MNCs of LME origin and their particular skill requirements (e.g. broad skills) might be influential when they lobby such associations on skills. Interviews with trade unions suggested that these indigenous organisations were a significant contributor to the co-ordination of high-wages, high-skilled HFLH, up until recently. MNCs originating from LMEs share the shorter-term training focus, low-wage, short-term employment structure, typical of their institutional origins. Within the CME context, these MNCs, while maintaining the strong capabilities to provide

standardised and tailored specific skills, prefer building these skills upon a more broad and general skill base.

> *"It is a challenge for the unions and the schools and the government. We can see in Sweden that there are not so many people signing up for hospitality. It is a problem".*
>
> (HFLH Trade Union Interviewee Sweden)

Interchangeable skills

Another theme which emerged was the interchangeable skills required in Swedish HFLH. While HFLH roles usually have distinct boundaries and (in Sweden) are strictly institutionally segregated through collective agreements, there were examples of cross-over within small organisations. This was due to the organisation's size and the inability to divide all jobs when trying to minimise costs due to competitive pressures. Examples were provided by both employers and trade union officials of employees working as both receptionist and bar-person within small organisations (e.g. boutique hotels). From interviews with institutions, the collective agreements covering roles did not facilitate this type of working. They were most concerned about the adoption of management tasks, however. In Ireland, the supply of general-skill 'hospitality management' is more plentiful. This is structured so that students could do work placement during their years of study with the aim of attaining supervisory positions shortly after graduating. Due to the quality of these 'general' courses provided within institutions in Ireland and English-speaking students, graduates are found across the world.

7.4.2 Ireland HFLH Skill Landscape

From interviews with various institutions, there is currently no national provision through the tourism or skill institution for HFLH skills within Ireland for the past few years. Before this, there existed, Food and Beverage Service programmes delivered by the hospitality association Fáilte Ireland and SOLAS which were typically 13-week courses established through a 'back to work' strategy for the unemployed section of the labour force. Government agencies, such as SOLAS (Further Education and Training Authority of Ireland) and the 'Expert Group on Future Skills Needs', identified a shortfall in their 2015 report assessing Future Skills

Requirements in the Hospitality Sector in Ireland, 2015-2020 (SOLAS, 2015). The chef and culinary arts skill shortages within Ireland appear to overshadow the HFLH shortages. From interviews with HFLH managers, it appeared that these shortages were exacerbated in the regional areas. Interviews were carried out with primary contributors of this report (SOLAS, 2015) and they confirmed the report findings of high concentration of 'management' focused courses within hospitality, despite there being an emerging shortage in skills within HFLH in Ireland. One theme that emerged from this context was that the hospitality experience was viewed as a mechanism to develop the 'life skills' of young students. This took place at convenient times for students (e.g. at busy weekend outside University lecturing scheduling and during the Summer holidays at the peak of the tourism season).

Hospitality experience sold as life skills in LME context compared to being provided within education system in the CME context

HFLH hospitality skills includes life skills such as setting a table correctly, sweeping a floor, phone etiquette and being presented well. For many, it was their first 'job' or exposure to the workplace. There was a consensus among stakeholders in Ireland that such work experience should be integrated into the schooling system and not just an option through TY. This is the case in Sweden where the technical skills of hospitality, which provides the basis for life-skills, are delivered to students from an early age (*gymnassiekolan*). As VoC theory outlines the various complementariness that reinforce each national configuration of institutions, this co-ordination became noticeable throughout interviews regarding skill learning systems. In summary, in Ireland, HFLH work is viewed as a means to refine one's life skills. In Sweden, however, this is embedded within the vocational system, allowing for more technical skills to be developed in addition to (and built upon) these life skills. In analysing the Swedish HFLH curriculum examples of such technical skills included pricing, cultural differences, booking systems, handling positive, and negative guest reactions and safety basics.

7.4.3 Skill Learning Systems and Work Engagement

The majority of HFLH manager interviewees across both contexts agreed that they place more emphasis on the personality of an employee when recruiting and selecting employees. Many defended this argument by suggesting vocational skills

or high level of specific skills as a potential source of 'arrogance'. One reason suggested is that they are "more difficult to shape" or align towards the organisational ideals. However, in the CME context, other manager interviewees described vocational training as providing a *"platform".* This platform was also depicted by the trade union interviewees as fundamentals; such as service skills, understanding of the law in relation to service, and how to handle food. They noted this is particularly important when one *"goes up a level"* towards HFLH service and along with sufficient *"people skills"* provide the most important recruitment requirements for such organisations. For candidates with *"exceptional"* personality and people skills, these basic skills may be might overlooked. They added that there *"are few"* of this calibre who seek a career in hospitality. One skills institution in Sweden highlighted the industry's calls to *"send us the right person".* This may be interpreted as an alternative specification only identifiable and measurable by the subjective opinions of those delivering the training and not through curriculum examination or qualification grade achieved. It may also relate more towards the suitability of such a person to be trained further with regard to the organisation's specific needs; *"only the right person can we teach".*

Interviewees with different institutions associated with hospitality skills were quick to distinguish from those who chose hospitality as a "fall back" job or from those of a transient nature who were using it as a "stop-gap" before pursuing their preferred career. Notwithstanding these, both the educational institutions, employees and unions spoke of vocational training providing a source of "proudness" and "meaningfulness" within work. One noted, however, that this might be an initial "proudness" and "meaningfulness", as, once they are exposed to the general hospitality perception where the industry is perceived as transient and low-skill, this quickly diminishes. This perception from the public including (employers and employees) is exemplified in the hospitality skill institutions. In the CME context of Sweden, the perception from all these actors was that HFLH was summarised by a skills institution employee:

> "*However, hotel, tourism and restaurant are kind of seen as the job you do for a few years before you go to University and do something real*".
>
> (Skills Institution interviewee 1 - Sweden)

Both the trade union and HFLH employees within the CME context referred to the practice within 'high-end' hospitality of hiring based on aesthetics instead of skills. One Swedish HFLH employee interviewee, with over fifteen years' experience, stated there was no difference regarding HFLH employee engagement and skills - *"in Sweden it did not take high grades to get into restaurant school".* This interviewee, despite having obtained very specific HFLH skills (sommelier) himself, explained the erosion of identity of those employees having pursued specific vocational training in the CME sector. This is due to the frustration of working alongside the un-skilled workers adding: *"there is a lot of people who should not be there".* A general perception of HFLH was a 'last resort' for 'low grades' or a 'net' to catch those who did not attain sufficient marks to pursue their chosen career. Examples from HFLH employee interviews in Ireland suggested skilled workers being employed under the same conditions as unskilled workers. One LME respondent suggested:

> *"In Ireland, it (hospitality) is to put you through college. The amount of people who have asked me as a thirty-year old, what am I going to do when I grow up makes me sick. I am like I am doing it"*
> (HFLH employee 4 - Ireland)

In contrast to this, the specific vocational training in Sweden also provides general life skills such as language skills (e.g. English). Interviewees with management in Ireland revealed that there was an absence of the more practical basic skills. Other themes from stakeholder interviews included calls for the return of the apprenticeship system in Ireland from some employees, while others are content with the current situation. This is possibly due to the frequency of minimum wage pay, which is just compliant with government regulations and used along with the excuse that gratuity will inflate this to an acceptable level. However, a similar situation has emerged due to the spread of the U.S. tipping culture globally (Mansfield, 2016). Both Sweden and Ireland as contrasting institutional arrangements are faced with similar challenges from hospitality. Firstly, within both contexts, skill and trade union institutional interviewees cited difficulties in enticing school leavers to choose hospitality as a career. In the context of Sweden, HFLH trade union employees recalled closures of skills institutions due to the reduction in the numbers of seats required, while other stakeholders warned of the use of such courses as fall back in the event that their preferred course was not awarded. Institutional stakeholders in both contexts cited the increase in part-time and

contract work as a major difficulty in developing skill learning systems such as the bar apprenticeship skills that once existed in Dublin. Similar challenges were identified by the Swedish trade union organisations where the holiday-home culture, particularly in the West coast, creates a high demand for both part-time and seasonal workers.

7.4.4 New Skill Mechanisms

This section outlines innovative skill mechanisms that were identified through semi-structured interviews with HFLH managers, employees with reference to work engagement, and employee retention. The first of these relates to the encouragement and facilitation of travel as an important source of skill.

7.4.4.1 Travel – Encouragement and Facilitation

With regards to skills in HFLH of Sweden, one manager interviewee spoke of the contribution of a national culture of travel towards Swedish HFLH skills. This is often considered part of the Swedish culture due to relatively few hours of sunshine. Interviewees, in particular employer interviewees, spoke of the "inspiration" acquired by such HFLH employees brought on frequent trips due to low cost travel and also the need for sunshine. They also spoke about how such exposure to different hospitality offerings encouraged people to work in the industry and ultimately attain "leadership positions" within 'high-end' hospitality organisations.

7.4.4.2 Psychological and Body language skills

The most valued and important skills suggested by most HFLH employees and manager interviewees across both the CME and LME contexts are personality and psychological skills. These were explained by interviewees as "*body-language skills", "emotional intelligence", and "how to read and understand customer and situations"*. Asked to explain these further through critical incidents, the interviewer invited interviewees to think of appropriate examples where these skills may be used. One included a high-end hotel in Ireland having to deal with a considerable number of early check-ins (due to its proximity to an international airport). These were occasions where the hotel was at full occupancy from the night before and check-in was not officially open for another six hours. One HFLH manager observed how skilfully each HFLH employee would deal with these often *"vindictive customers"* who were often *"in the wrong".* This was also evident in work experienced in a different

company, where one CME context HFLH manager noted that they favour the *"personality"* of an applicant over skills gained through work experience or HFLH vocational training. Interestingly, they noted that this work experience relates more broadly to "*customer facing*" rather than narrowly within the hospitality arena.

> *"we can teach you the system and everything around the hotel service but we cannot teach you how to smile or how to smile with your eyes or to smile with your body"*
>
> (HFLH management interviewee 5 - Sweden)

7.4.4.3 Validation Programmes

Interviews with the HFLH trade unions in the CME context of Sweden revealed the recent developments in recognising skills that may have been acquired outside the national educational system. These validation programmes are signed off by industry and endorsed by the HRF union and employers' association to signal previous on the job training or work experience in a different company that may have been acquired either in Sweden or abroad. The unions did note that, given the margins of hospitality, too much emphasis had been placed on the minimum wage within the HFLH arena. Their goal is to work to redress this to ensure that it "pays" to pursue vocational education within HFLH. From interviewing three trade union officials, it became evident that the remit of the union, not only works to improve working conditions, but they are also active in challenging the public and political perceptions and opinions, where they often see HFLH as "simple jobs" that anyone can do.

7.4.4.4 Skill Suggestion schemes

With regard to work engagement and employee retention, a management interviewee in Sweden spoke of the need for inspirational meetings which will allow employees to "evolve" and feel like they are "moving forward". While they noted that, because they are part of a large hotel chain, there are mandatory e-learning mechanisms which are at the core of their 'on-the-job' learning. They did note that HFLH employees could engage in specialised learning once a year. This was driven by the HFLH employees. Employees wrote down three skills they would like and the HFLH manager would aim to organise at least one of these each year. An example of this was where, with many Chinese guests, a HFLH employee sought to learn Chinese.

The HFLH manager signed them up for a Chinese course, which they noted, was "*not a big cost for us but spectacular for the HFLH employee*".

7.4.4.5 Local Area Expertise

Certain 'high-end' organisations in both Ireland and Sweden planned excursions or walking trips in the area for HFLH employees such as receptionists, bar-people or waiting staff. This provides them with the resource to deliver guests a rounded customer-experience. While this was also used as a means of providing voice (see section 6.5.2.3), it was mostly used as a means of skill development. This might have entailed complementary service offerings such as a café or bar nearby or sights of interest for tourists such as castles, libraries, walking routes, that might otherwise have been explored by HFLH employees.

> *"Then I took the staff on a city challenge in this area so we could learn history and cultural aspects to enrich the conversation with our guests. Then we went out for dinner and we talked a bit more about service, good coffee, sought after bathroom and the small details that make a professional impact on guest"*
>
> (HFLH management interviewee 2 - Sweden)

This alternative skill mechanism may provide an edge over competing high-end establishments whilst providing learning from visiting other hospitality organisations. However, such a skill mechanism for the HFLH employee might also provide a sense of identity, meaningfulness and confidence in their service delivery.

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter, with its focus on skill learning systems, addressed the following supplementary research questions:

> **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**

In addressing this question, the chapter began by presenting the data obtained from questionnaires from both HFLH employees in Ireland and Sweden. Through presenting the results of these, it gave an indication of the skills landscape in both HFLH contexts. In comparing the same worker in HFLH across two different VoC

examples, Ireland and Sweden, the heterogeneity of the sector became evident. While important differences emerged, particularly with regard to collective voice, individual voice mechanisms (formal and informal), and skill systems, these were not as pronounced as expected across certain manufacturing sectors.

Following this, the data from these questionnaires was then used with Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) techniques, where three Hypotheses relating to this supplementary research question were investigated. While there was no support for a relationship between different skill systems in HFLH work engagement, important findings emerged with regard to hospitality careers and work engagement.

This chapter then continued to build on these results by presenting a deeper consideration of the HFLH skills of Ireland and Sweden, following interviews with the respective skills institutions and stakeholders across both contexts. It is evident that while maintaining their specific categorisation under VoC CME institutional logic, Sweden has changed from a dualistic (apprenticeship and vocational training) system to an extreme of vocational training. It still retains a small element of apprenticeship (just 13 weeks over a three-year course) and this is institutionally supported also. Ireland, on the other hand, has seen its HFLH training provision fall away. Ireland's current general skill provision is the result of a gradual shift from specific skills over decades. This involved institutions such as CERT (Council for Education, Recruitment and Training) and its ultimate merger with Bord Fáilte to form Fáilte Ireland. Although it initially provided strong apprenticeship-based skills for HFLH, this system was eroded through the years and eventually just encompassed the provision of 'back to work' courses for the unemployed. This has fallen away as well, which has resulted in the absence of any dedicated provision for HFLH skills, despite an identified HFLH skill shortages within Ireland (SOLAS, 2015).

Regarding individual voice mechanisms, interesting differences emerged with regard to formal and informal mechanisms. Over education was particularly evident in the Irish LME context, with 50% of the HFLH sample indicating they had obtained a degree or postgraduate compared to 29% for the Swedish sample. Almost 50% of Sweden's HFLH sample were specifically trained (45% vocationally trained). This is compared with 78% of Ireland's sample with either general training of on the job or work experience in a different company as their main source of skills. Despite these differences, skill perception (how well they perceive their skills match their current

role) remained similar across Sweden and Ireland. However, the majority in both countries responded that their skills were higher than required for their role.

Interviews with high-end organisation HFLH managers in the CME context of Sweden revealed the importance of travel as skill formation for potential HFLH candidates or existing HFLH employees. Firstly, interviewees noted that travel provided dual benefits in that it provided the inspiration to work in hospitality, and continue working in hospitality. Secondly, it would provide the "*people skills*" for dealing with international customers and furthermore new innovative ideas to suggest or apply to their employers' organisation upon return. Thirdly, a further area of skill formation has seen Sweden seek to provide validation or authoritative certification to those who have 'on-the job' experience. This might indeed be a movement or an acceptance of the apprenticeship model more typical of Germany as a specific skill mechanism. Skill suggestion schemes were in a MNC in the Swedish context, where individual HFLH employees would control their career (similar to job-crafting) by suggesting three areas of potential development each year, two of which, would be facilitated by management. An example included a receptionist learning the Mandarin language to interact more with Chinese guests. Finally, Local Area Expertise was a skill formation evident from interviews in Ireland and Sweden. This acted to provide a source of identity, meaningfulness, and confidence for HFLH employees in their customer-facing roles. Management interviewees also noticed this led to more positive customer interactions, as anecdotally evidenced from EWOM reviews.

Asked regarding the importance of HFLH vocational training, a theme emerged among the responses in Sweden. These management interviewees agreed that when recruiting, such vocational training provided an important platform, only superseded by personality and people skills. Swedish HFLH managers responded that they were cautious of the rigidity of graduates from such courses when it came to shaping and moulding them towards their own organisational culture and requirements. Indeed, while Irish managers sought personality and people skills, the Swedish CME context were also concerned with the candidate's ability to learn quickly. This is a feature of HFLH and its turnover culture. Given both the necessity to replace HFLH employees quickly and where training efforts are constrained by competitive pressures, the term to '*hit the ground running'* is a common with HFLH in both Sweden and Ireland. How hospitality firms are required to compete across

both these market economies has changed. The increased competition that has emerged from the financialisation of hospitality is where the focus has become solely on minimum wage employment. One of their fundamental functions is to ensure that it pays to pursue vocational training within hospitality. In terms of the breath of skills, CME HFLH managers asked for skills to become more specific. This was consistent with the HFLH employee unions but differed from calls from the employer associations and MNCs who preferred broader skills.

CHAPTER 8 INTEGRATION OF RESULTS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the themes and findings from interviews carried out with HFLH employees, HFLH managers and skill and voice institutions across the LME context of Ireland and the CME context of Sweden. It begins by examining the findings from the area of skills and how these differ across both national contexts for HFLH and how they may lead to work engagement. It then examines both individual and collective voice mechanisms and skill systems in the HFLH sectors in both Sweden and Ireland. Each section then examines both as potential antecedents with regard to work engagement. Finally, it examines employee retention and how work engagement, skill learning systems, and voice mechanisms might act as potential antecedents. The two supplementary research questions are as follows:

1. **How does a variety of voice mechanisms utilised in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**
2. **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**

8.2 LP and VoC informing the HFLH employment relationship

The demands and complexities of HFLH critically analysed in the literature review suggest the LP perspective as the placed explain this 'triangular' employment relationship (Taylor and Moore, 2015). These characteristics include a normalised culture of the customer (Korczynski and Ott, 2004), electronic word of mouth controls (Baka, 2016), non-standard work times (Richbell et al., 2011). In addition to these emotional demands and there are considerable flexibility requirements, often in the face of low-wages and job security (where positions often offered on a seasonal basis). However, despite this, Lashley (1998) supports the importance of responsible autonomy and discretion for this 'high-end' service offering (figure 2.1).

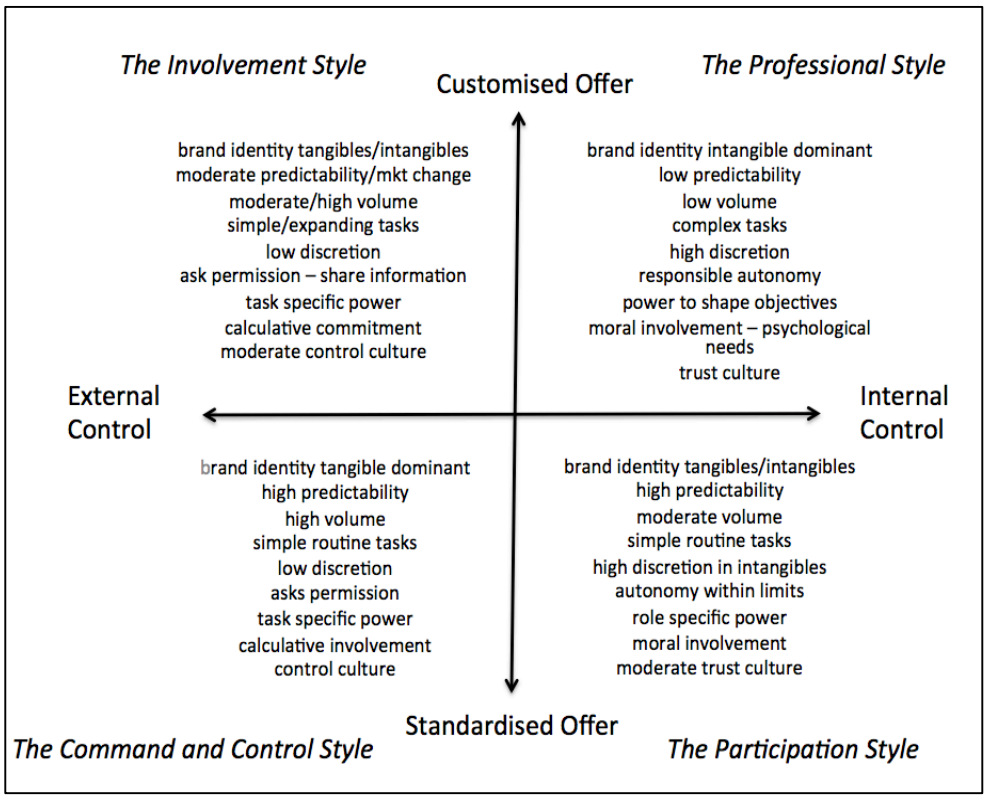


Figure 8.1: Approaches to the management of human resources in service organisations adapted from Lashley (1998)

Unsuccessful attempts by other potential theories (e.g. regulation theory) to partially explain capture LP shortcomings have led Thompson and Vincent (2010) to suggest VoC as the most compatible framework to overarch LP analysis. Congruently, LP provides a dynamic lens to provide dynamic processes which, despite its popularity, has been a key criticism of VoC. The basis for the 'VoC and LP synergy' lies in their ability to investigate how macro-level institutions shape the employment relationship (Busemeyer and Jensen, 2012). More specifically, others (Marsden, 1999; Rubery, 2010) suggest that 'institutionalising the employment relationship' might help us to resolve crucial control and skill formation dilemmas.

8.2.1 The 'Connective Tissue' of LP and VoC informing HFLH employment relationship

VoC bridges the gap between economic and management theory, comparative political economy and comparative institutional analysis by placing the firm as the main actor (Hall and Soskice, 2001; Whitley, 1999). Despite this, authors note the

need to progress this theory further by integrating VoC with micro level processes such as those present in the LP (Thompson and Vincent, 2010). Moreover, it is suggested that LP analysis needs to 'extend' out towards macro structures as its micro processes are not adequate to explain the employment relationship in its complete form (Hauptmeier and Vidal, 2014; Burawoy, 2009). This not only provides an advancement of the theory, it also provides a structure for the fragmented nature of its theoretical foundations. Hauptmeier and Vidal (2014, 20) recall the 1980s (when LP gained popularity in the US and the UK) and note that was driven by the deeply liberal environment and "relative neglect of institutional analysis".

Changes within the HFLH sector were particularly evident through the interviews with stakeholders. In 'high-end' hospitality organisations in Ireland, this was reflected in examples of direct control becoming more frequent. In Sweden, despite continued efforts of skill formation and participatory collective voice, they are both increasingly constrained. From interviews with high-end hospitality managers and trade unions in Sweden, it became apparent, that the traditional 'patient capital' which is proposed by Hall and Soskice (2001) under corporate governance is being eroded. Culpepper (1999) did warn that the growing prominence of the service-sector could undo the 'high-skill equilibrium' in CME countries such as Germany. HFLH might represent an a particularly atypical service sector particularly disruptive of such institutional configurations.

The HFLH industry has created a disruption to the institutional arrangements of both counties. The triangular relationship of HFLH sees control shifting from employers to customers, where the customer is taking on many of the management responsibilities (Marchington, 2005). This is being exacerbated through ratings on electronic word of mouth (EWOM), where 'TripAdvisor' and social media platforms are being used as power over employees as an indirect form of control. There is also the spread of the U.S tipping culture which moderates the wage-effort indeterminacy of HFLH workers. Other examples provided by trade union interviewees involved online booking platforms such as hotels or booking.com. replacing receptionist skills of co-ordinating bookings through phone and email.

The next section in this chapter addresses the first research question:

> **How does a variety of voice mechanisms utilised in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**

8.3 Voice Mechanisms

8.3.1 Voice Mechanisms as an antecedent to Work Engagement

8.3.1.1 Collective Voice Mechanisms as an Antecedent to Work Engagement

Regarding Hypothesis 2, there is support from the SEM model that collective voice is negatively related to work engagement (-0.094, $p<.01$). Respondents from the HFLH sample in Ireland provided very little evidence of the use of collective voice mechanisms, apart from pockets of long-established Dublin bars (identified in interviews). Similarly, collective voice within Sweden HFLH is relatively weak; both 'high-end' hospitality membership levels from surveys were validated by the trade-union officials at c. 30%. This compares to Swedish national averages of 70%, which has fallen from 80%, which have been attributed to institutional attacks on the Ghent system (Kjellberg and Ibsen, 2016). Such relatively weak mobilisation within HFLH in Sweden was blamed on a transient, young, cost-sensitive labour force (Trade Union official interviewee). They noted that the smaller organisation's size, more prevalent within high-end hospitality, reduces that collective voice to eventually become an informal voice over a coffee. They also claimed that these smaller organisations do not inform trade unions of changes or indeed inform employees in the correct manner either. Collective voice mechanisms are now being used, more as an enforcement of rights, rather than as a participative means of exercising voice. This is due to the difficulty in mobilising such a transient workforce, where almost 40% of HFLH employees are on contract work. Interviewees with Swedish trade unions also described how such contract workers with zero-hours feared not getting called for additional shifts (referred to as extra hours).

Interviewees from the Swedish HFLH employee trade union noted that a particular focus of their HFLH operations was in improving the image and marketing HFLH as a career. The expected high TU coverage but relatively low HFLH membership levels were evident from the survey results and were confirmed within one percent from estimates from the trade union estimates. They commented that in HFLH non-member employees were being provided with similar levels of support as fee paying members. In general, within Sweden, many HFLH employees felt that, based on the transient nature of their career in hospitality, it would not be worthwhile to pay the membership. This opinion was repeated by HFLH employee interviewees themselves.

This research proposed a Hypothesis, that collective voice mechanisms would be positively related to HFLH employee work engagement, based on the safety and meaningfulness (Kahn, 1990) provided by such representation and possibly participation. However, from interviews, it became apparent that such participative voice or voice at a high level with management remains only in long established indigenous hospitality groups (e.g. Scandic Group). These are not as prevalent in the hospitality organisation landscape due to several reasons. These include the increasing number of MNCs (primarily of LME origin) and more fragmented and competitive hotel industry in general driven by online booking (booking.com and hotels.com) and competition with different models such as (Airbnb).

8.3.1.2 Individual Voice Mechanisms as an antecedent to Work Engagement

There was support for Hypothesis 1 in that individual voice mechanisms are strongly related (0.426, $p<.01$) to HFLH employee work engagement. Investigating this individual voice further through survey result differences became evident between Ireland and Sweden with regard to individual voice mechanisms. Both team briefings and formal meetings were more prevalent in Sweden, with 78% using team briefings regularly, compared to 61% in Ireland. Similarly, the use of formal meetings to communicate with management within the HFLH sample of Ireland (49%) was considerably less than Sweden (64%). From interviews, it became apparent that the majority of the team briefings within Sweden were operational in nature, with no strategic or participative prerogative. Irish respondents, however, more frequently exercised much more direct and deeper voice in communicating with management. This was evident with 67% of the Irish sample, compared to 55% of the Swedish sample communicating very often or always with senior management.

Despite the Swedish preference for formal meetings, the nature of such meetings varied from organisation to organisation. From interview responses, it appeared most formal meetings concerned operational 'day to day' issues often at the beginning of a shift. However, other large hotel groups invited the relevant HFLH employees to high-level formal meetings if it concerned their area. HFLH management employees admitted that their voice was not always considered but their presence was considered an important contributor to work engagement.

Noticeable in the HFLH LP in both Sweden and Ireland was the provision of deep level voice and autonomy to middle-management, which developed as a common

theme. However, between the middle-management and HFLH employees, direct control was more prevalent within this LP. Examples of the provision of voice between senior management and the HFLH employees suggested a dilution of the meaningfulness and inspirational nature of such voice mechanisms, as it passed through middle-management. To address this, senior managers in certain organisations in both contexts, used their presence as a mechanism where they felt it was necessary to provide voice. One Swedish example involved a hospitality group manager spending 6 months working 'on the floor' of a new restaurant, despite also managing other 'high-end' restaurants and hotels. Similar examples across business units were also evident of individual voice strategies to ensure that HFLH employees experience direct, deep voice whilst management could instil the required organisational culture.

The HFLH LP provided many challenges for such direct individual voice with senior management. Questionnaire respondents from the HFLH sample in Ireland suggested a greater extent of direct voice to senior managers; there were common sectoral difficulties experienced across both countries. Despite this, examples emerged in organisations in Sweden with regard to the provision of voice mechanisms to encompass NSWT. This involved senior managers in hotels ensuring their schedule would allow them to facilitate such voice 'at 9pm' at night when the night team would begin their shift. Other more elaborate suggestions for voice, included an example in Sweden of management allowing their HFLH employees to wear whatever clothes they desired instead of generic HFLH uniforms. This HFLH manager interviewee argued that this would allow them the confidence to express voice as an individual. Secondly, the HFLH manager explained that if a customer was exercising their power through complaints, the employee would feel more of a source of identity and expression in counteracting the power of the customer. While this example was an extreme example within the interviews, it provided an example of the organisational differences regarding the LP within comparative capitalism.

8.3.2 Voice Mechanisms as an antecedent to Employee Retention

Analysis from the responses across the 50 organisations revealed a difference of 10.2% with regard to employee retention, across VoC 'high-end' hospitality samples between Ireland (74.9%) and Sweden (85.1%). This was calculated as the average number of employees who left the organisation in the past year divided by the total

number of full-time employees in the organisation. There was no support for Hypothesis 8 where the proximal HFLH employment relationship outcome of work engagement was proposed as an antecedent to the more distal outcome, employee retention. However, mobility power remains an important strategy for HFLH employees to be exercised if alienated or dis-engaged. From the J-D R theory's (Breevaart et al., 2014; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007) understanding of the conditions of engagement, one's challenges or indeed one's resources may not be adequate. This provided the foundation for the Hypothesis that:

> *H8: HFLH work engagement is positively related to the employee retention across market economies.*

This difference, of all the areas of analysis chosen by this research is most likely explained by collective voice mechanisms. Collective voice mechanisms were found to be significantly correlated with employee retention (0.165, p<.001), thereby providing support for Hypothesis 5. Employees in Sweden and Ireland understood their potential, to exercise their mobility power, particularly if unhappy with management or not appreciated in their workplace. Utilising critical incident theory, many gave examples of previous employment where they were not being treated well by management and therefore left the organisation.

> *"as you are getting treated like this you just upend and leave and that is it like"*
>
> (HFLH employee interviewee 1 - Ireland)

> *H5: HFLH collective voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH retention across different market economies*

As an antecedent to employee retention, collective voice mechanisms demonstrated a stronger effect size and statistical significance than individual voice mechanisms. Nonetheless, individual voice mechanisms were also positively related (0.063, p<.05) to employee retention, thereby providing support for Hypotheses 4 and 6:

> *H4: HFLH individual voice mechanisms are positively related to HFLH retention across market economies*

> *H6: HFLH collective voice mechanisms have a greater influence on retention than individual voice mechanisms across different market economies*

That concludes this section addressing the first part of the second supplementary research question, of whether different voice mechanisms impact HFLH work engagement and employee retention. Contrary to the collective voice and work engagement finding, here we found a positive relationship between collective voice mechanisms and employee retention. Furthermore, this was much stronger and statistically significant than the positive relationship also found between individual voice mechanisms and employee retention.

The next section addresses supplementary research question three:

> **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**

8.4 Skill Learning Systems

8.4.1 Skill Learning Systems as an antecedent to HFLH Work Engagement

Thelen's (2012) argument suggests that the sector of HFLH benefits more from the social and communication aspects derived from general skills. Indeed, jobs perceived as 'low-skill' are often considered more appropriate for the general category of skills (Martin and Knudsen, 2010). Rather than just exploring an economic efficiency imperative, this research also focuses on potential meaningfulness, social cohesion and identity measured by engagement that specific skills may provide for HFLH work engagement. Work engagement has been shown to lead to customer loyalty (Salanova et al., 2005b; Harter et al., 2002) and citizenship behaviour (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010); both sought by HFLH. These specific skills may be acquired either through apprenticeship based skills (e.g. Germany) or the vocational skills (e.g. Sweden) examined in this research. For Hypothesis 7, differences in skill learning systems and their effect on work engagement were not statistically significant. This could possibly be explained further through LP analysis.

Sectoral analysis of HFLH in chapter 2 posits the HFLH as particularly appropriate for LP analysis. Within the high-end service offering, considerable skill is required. However, the level of such skill or emotional demands are not always recognised by society (Hochschild, 1983; Hochschild, 1979). While much research focuses on the

deskilling thesis within LP dynamics, this research also considers the dissociation of LP from the skills of the workers (Braverman, 1974). Evidence of such 'dissociation' emerged from manager interviews in both Sweden and Ireland. Despite this, many interviewees in Sweden regarded 'specific' skills as an important platform (e.g. legal, safety, service basics) for HFLH. Institutionally, it could be argued that in Ireland economic policy contributed to this through it tax breaks as a means of supporting this strategic sector behind tourism. On an organisational level, Swedish and Irish employer interviewees imply dissociation through their preference for hiring unskilled or candidates with limited work experience instead of those from authoritatively-endorsed institutions. Other such examples of this 'dissociation' were evident from Swedish trade unions in the form of aesthetic hiring instances. Furthermore, HFLH manager interviewees stressed the potential limitations of specific skill HFLH employees to be 'moulded' to the organisational specific cultural and service requirements. This has placed the emphasis firmly on personality and because such people-skills are often not measureable, it is potentially a further example of this dissociation. One such pressure, 'financialisation', appears to be accelerating this dissociation and has been a key discussion of LP perspective literature (2016; Thompson, 2013; Cushen and Thompson, 2012) in recent years.

Financialisation sees the movements of power from managers to board of directors who are directly accountable to shareholders (2016; Thompson, 2013; Cushen and Thompson, 2012). Financialisation is also manifested in private equity businesses and the short-term focus in servicing debt (Clark, 2009). Across both Sweden and Ireland, considerable financialisation pressures acting on the hospitality sector appears to exacerbate this dissociation and indeed the precariousness of HFLH as a career. Examples arose from semi-structured interviews in both countries where HFLH employees were being asked to take on considerable supervision and training duties without managerial or supervisor status or pay. In Ireland, high-end hospitality organisations were subjected to considerable speculation before the 2009 recession, which resulted in high levels of debt (Clancy, 2011). The pressures of financialisation included servicing this (and written-down) debt and from similar commitments from the resulting acquisitions by pension and vulture funds and from

NAMA. Another outcome within this sector in Ireland included the creation of many shareholder-owned hospitality groups (such as Dalata Hotel Group plc[1]).

Interviews from HFLH managers within Sweden suggest difficulties prioritising employee development, customers service or the development of the organisations when short-term pressures arise. Interviews with stakeholders from skill institutions across both countries suggest that while Ireland has moved away from apprenticeship training, Sweden is finding it difficult to keep its vocational training relevant. This appears to be due to institutional pressures caused by the impact of financialisation on the 'high-end' hospitality sector. Examples of these pressures of financialisation surfaced in interviews within the Swedish context. Here, one hotel manager's example typified other responses. This involved the manager's desire to invest in new upgraded rooms to improve high-end market share. However, the shareholders instead of this market-creating innovation, focused on efficiency innovation by utilising their resources on merging the reception with the bar (Christensen and Van Bever, 2014).

Another theme that emerged regarding dissociation of LP from the skill of the workers came from the stakeholders of Sweden. While there appears to be a call from HFLH managers for more specific skills to be supported, the opposite was lobbied from the employer associations who want a broader curriculum. These Swedish employer associations are working from flawed assumptions premised on the expectations from LMEs (Lashley, 2009). Such assumptions could neglect the hospitality service offering differences. These employer associations may be basing their argument on consolidated responses from 'fast-food' to 'high-end' while including MNC responses who seek general skills to build on their centralised organisational- specific skill provision. This could be an inherent difference of 'high-end' organisations, compared to the typical hospitality sector offerings concerned more with efficiency rather than flexibility. This efficiency, which is linked to standardisation, has been researched within 'high-end' hospitality (Jones et al., 1997), and represents employer control strategies of the LP. This is reflected in Swedish employers calling for an increased supply of specific skilled positions such as conference managers, mixologists, and sommeliers to soften labour market

[1] Dalata Hotel Group plc have a portfolio of over 41 hotels in Ireland - 2016

pressures. More supply would reduce the control exercised by such skilled employees in the workplace and indeed the labour market. This is demonstrated with the considerable mobility power driven by the skill shortage of chefs across many countries (Gusciute et al., 2015). However, this could also just be considered as a firm rationally acting for sector-specific challenges, given the fine-dining resurgence, along with more niche offerings being provided by service offerings (Lane, 2014).

Other examples of such dissociation from interviews in Sweden include aesthetic hiring instead of paying the agreed skilled-employee rates. Other examples include low trade-union membership, and the closure of vocational schools leading to the reduction of enrolments. Increased competition is also evidenced from exacerbated competition due to online travel agencies and the increased presence of MNCs (of LME origin) providing hospitality offerings. In Sweden, there has been a considerable reduction in HFLH educational places within institutions (along with their places of institutions amalgamation). These are both consequences of the reduced demand for such vocational courses, which have fallen from over 50% of what they were in 1990 to 27% in 2013 (2013). Despite this, 50% of the Swedish HFLH sample is vocationally trained. In addition, from the quantitative results of this research, no significant difference surfaced in work engagement levels between both countries. It may be that the potential identity acquired from having completed such courses may have reduced it to no more than a recourse. Interviews with Swedish HFLH employees revealed the widespread perception of HFLH vocational courses as a *"fall back"* or a default where people *"end up"* in the event of not achieving their preferred choice of course.

Regarding alternative skills systems, employers in both Ireland and Sweden identified psychological skills and people skill basics as particularly desirable. Interviewees suggested that such skills were being provided in MNCs across both contexts. These skills include training on 'body language', dealing with complaints and when to (and when not to) smile and speak to customers. Many of these skills could, arguably, be acquired successfully through on-the-job training. At the 'high-end' service offering, this requires costly training which takes time and runs the risk of mistakes, potentially damaging service quality during the duration of such training. To this end, and to facilitate such workers and workers seeking HFLH positions from different countries, Swedish HFLH trade unions have established

certification schemes for non-vocationally trained HFLH employees. In addition, they are encouraging 'on the job' learning through HFLH skill competitions. Such efforts could be a reaction to the dissociation and separation of skills being pursued by employers in this competitive industry. Competition skills take place both nationally and internationally and encompass receptionist skills, cocktail competitions and barista competitions among others. While these may provide sources of identity, inspiration and meaningfulness for work engagement, they were outside the scope of this research.

In conclusion, while the debate continues (Martin and Knudsen, 2010; Thelen, 2012) regarding which typology of skills is most suitable for HFLH, there is, however, considerable support for work engagement as a key performance driver for HFLH. The key finding regarding skills remain consistent with JD-R theory, which proposes that we are most engaged when challenged appropriately. However, it inadvertently supports this argument where as those HFLH employees who are studying for a different occupation are engaged. This is notwithstanding the positive relationship between those employees who see their future in hospitality and work engagement.

The lack of a relationship between skill learning systems and work engagement might be explained by LP dynamics evidenced in interviews. This is the dissociation of the LP from the skills of HFLH workers. Although management interviewees in Sweden praised 'specific' skills of vocational training as a means of a platform (safety, legal and basic service skills), in practice such 'dissociation' was evident. HFLH employees drew attention to the recruitment practices which involved the hiring of candidates from outside this 'vocationally trained' pool. Further interviews with skills institutions and trade union institutions revealed that this was widespread within Sweden. They noted the reduction in vocational course enrolments and the prevalent practice of management in high-end hospitality institutions hiring outside the specific skills institutional provision.

8.4.2 Skill Learning Systems as an antecedent to Employee Retention

There was no support for the *Hypothesis* of skill system differences as an antecedent to employee retention (H9).

H9: HFLH employees with specific training are less likely to exercise their mobility power compared with HFLH employees with general skills.

Due to the turnover culture within hospitality, it is often the case that engaged employees exercise their mobility power to further their career or to attain more signalling from work experience in different companies. An example of this includes an employee seeking to work in a Michelin star restaurant or 5-star hotel for a period, to benefit from this on their curriculum vitae. Although managers within Sweden seek to increase skills through investment, the frequent use of HFLH employee mobility-power is viewed as a risk to such investment in training, particularly the expensive specific programmes such as *sommelier* skills for waiters or waitresses or language training for receptionists. From the employee's perspective, interviews suggested that this mobility-power often acted as a disadvantage towards them. In such examples, the risk to the employer investment became too much to invest in meaningful training for employees.

One Dublin pub manager recalled the 'career' nature of the profession when the apprenticeship system of specific training was appreciated and added that many HFLH employees from this era remain in his establishment, some having worked thirty or forty years in the same organisation.

"It was seen as a good job in the community"

(HFLH Manager interviewee 1 - Ireland)

Despite this, management were, in general, aware of the current low-status perception of the HFLH industry.

"There are not many who selected this type of work as their first career"

(HFLH Manager interviewee 8 - Sweden)

On being questioned on the strategy for HFLH work engagement, HFLH managers spoke of the need to *"keep the brain alive".* Regarding their HFLH employees, managers spoke of the *"need to attack them in a positive way".* This is consistent with the two conceptualisations of engagement. First, is the demands-resources concept, as an antecedent to engagement or indeed the need to allow employees to develop or to be kept stimulated and *"involved in their work".* The second relates to the

meaningfulness and availability dimensions conceptualised by Kahn (1990) as a key condition for engagement.

8.4.2.1 Management Strategies with regard to Employee Retention

Many manager interviewees in Sweden responded to questions regarding employee retention strategies, with a general acceptance of employee turnover culture. They added that they "*encouraged*" HFLH employees who decided to move to the larger cities or to a 'high-end' hospitality organisation to develop their skills further. This was more evident in HFLH stakeholder interviews in Sweden than in Ireland. Furthermore, from such manager interviewees in Sweden, a further theme emerged with regard to employee retention. This involved profit share schemes for 'duty managers' or 'key HFLH persons' within HFLH. Managers considered this extrinsic reward necessary for both work engagement and, ultimately, to retain their client relationships and knowledge within the organisation. Some also noted that such policies would minimise the risk of deviant behaviour and in many cases pilfering.

In summary, across Sweden and Ireland, it is evident from interviews that HFLH employees were very aware of their mobility-power and would consider exercising it without hesitation. While it might act as an indicator of how engaged employees are in their work, it may also be exercised to provide skills and increased employability to HFLH employees, in the form of signalling from working in prestigious organisations. Within hospitality, however, it's frequent use by much of the sector acts against investment in skill development, where HFLH managers noted potential risks to such investments in long-term skills such as *sommelier* and hospitality management programmes. Across the Irish and Swedish examples, HFLH employees noted that they would leave if unhappy with management. Management interviewees, on the other hand, spoke of the need to keep employees challenged and to keep the brain alive. However, HFLH employees were aware of the potential skill development from working in different organisations and, more importantly, they were aware of the signalling of skill and capability that would attach to having worked in different organisations (particularly esteemed organisations).

8.4.2.2 Skill Learning Systems and HFLH Recruitment Practices

From interviews with managers across the range of high-end hospitality organisation managers in both countries, certain organisations placed critical emphasis on the recruitment process. Indeed, many suggested this control over the

recruitment and selection process as their most important means to ensure work engagement and employee retention. Their goal was to ensure the most engaged applicants are selected in this process whilst ensuring a good fit with the organisation and industry (hospitality). Selection methods from these HFLH manager interviewees included 'Survey Monkey' questionnaires, involving up to fifty questions to exclude *"lacklustre"* applicants and shortlisting those without a *"genuine"* interest in the job. Other examples included recruitment methods which involved internal referrals only, whereby a close-knit established workforce would identify applicants of a similar organisational-fit.

Although studying within the area of hospitality may provide a signal of intent to remain within that area for one's career, there are many other factors at play. The transient nature of hospitality, along with the difficulty in recruiting skilled employees, has acted as a catalyst in the deskilling of this type of work. This is evident in HFLH strategies in Ireland where, in the face of skill shortages, complexity was removed in certain organisations such as reducing the menu sizes (SOLAS, 2015). This not only relates to the deskilling of most employees, but the retention of key high-skilled employees who manage key relationships with clients. In some hotel, conference and event organisations, management spoke of the importance of the key HFLH employee contact for key clients with '*high-spend*' or '*repeat-visit*' potential from either the either corporate or leisure areas. When questioned on the retention strategies of such employees, management spoke of the need to compensate such employees accordingly. The did, however, recognise the potential of "*new clients and relationships"* that may be acquired with the replacement of such employees, especially in urban centres.

Similar responses from managers were observed in Sweden. This was viewed as the best outcome in areas where the talent pool may not have been accessible as the urban centres. Two manager interviewees in Sweden spoke of the encouragement of mobility within HFLH where they understood the need for employees to develop themselves through working in different organisations. They added that they would follow their career with interest. Another example emerged in Ireland where mobility flexibility was afforded by management to certain 'quality' HFLH employees. If they wanted to travel for a year, their position would be available upon return. Again, leaving the organisation to travel was viewed by HFLH managers as important development for the character of employees. This relates to the idiosyncratic deals

where employees are granted differing conditions from their peers (Hornung et al., 2008; Liao et al., 2016); this might be particularly important for HFLH work, due to the high frequency at which mobility-power is exercised.

In one restaurant in Sweden where the HFLH manager interviewee was very proud of two employees who were *"hand-picked"* to work in two separate Michelin Star restaurants in Stockholm, he spoke of the barperson who they provided bar management training for and envisioned him either opening their own place or becoming a manager in another restaurant in the future. They appeared somewhat content that they *"got something back"* in skills for their own organisation but understood that, at the time, they might "*lose"* the employee to a different organisation in the future. Other interviewees within Irish and Swedish 'high-end' hospitality organisations embraced the transient nature of HFLH and accepted it as "*it is just the way it is",* instead of pursuing strategies against it. In regional areas of Ireland, a typical successful HFLH recruit was one who "*learned the ropes*" while "*earning money*" for university but stayed until their degree was finished.

> *"we would be lucky to keep them for the three or four years"*
>
> (HFLH manager interviewee 4 - Ireland)

Another theme which became apparent throughout interviews was the increase in employee mobility-power if they had desirable skills. This was particularly evident in the HFLH in Sweden, where *sommeliers,* if in anyway unhappy, would move from their organisation. However, it also emerged in responses in Ireland, particularly with 'Michelin-starred' establishments, that highly-skilled and experienced employees would exercise their mobility power without hesitation.

A further important implication of work engagement is the potential of highly engaged employees to contribute positive emotions to a workplace, thereby increasing work engagement both at an individual and organisational level, and, most importantly, with customers. The most frequent response from HFLH employees in Ireland with regard to work engagement was to be working amongst a positive and friendly team. In contrast, emotion contagion from a negative HFLH employee would easily contaminate the career-focused culture of an organisation. The capacity to ensure such an engaged workforce from recruitment and selection methods is heavily dependent on labour market supply. In Ireland, there were

examples of high-end organisations in regional locations with considerable seasonal demand who were forced to embrace a transient workforce; "*our best outcome is if we can hold on to students throughout their studies*". These shortages were also confirmed in regional areas in Ireland by the skills institution, SOLAS. They noticed that, while these regional shortages existed for high-end organisations, within the urban centres, there were high-end middle managers also leaving the industry, creating shortages such as marketing and sales managers. This could possibly be due to financialisation pressures within hospitality and inferior working conditions in HFLH, compared to other industries.

In summary, the benefits of positive emotional contagion, with regard to work engagement and employee retention, are well documented (Pugh et al., 2011; Pugh, 2001; Felps et al., 2009; Lundqvist and Kevrekidis, 2008; Hatfield and Cacioppo, 1994; Schoenewolf, 1990). Evidence emerged of the greater likelihood of mobility-power being exercised for HFLH employees with strong signalling from their institution. Furthermore, HFLH employees, particularly within Ireland, cited the importance of their team for work engagement and employee retention. There have been numerous examples of rigorous recruitment and selection methods in identifying those who will be most likely engaged in their work, contributing to positive emotional contagion and pursuing their career within the organisation. Despite this, the reality for many high-end hospitality managers, is a transient workforce where HFLH employees might only stay for the duration of their studies in third level institutions. This is exacerbated in regional areas and was particularly evident in Ireland. Where labour supply is more plentiful, the importance of robust recruitment and selection methods is crucial to prevent potential negative emotional contagion from contaminating high-end hospitality organisations.

8.5 New Voice Mechanisms and Skill Learning Systems

From interviews with employees and managers across the HFLH sector in Ireland and Sweden, new sources of both voice mechanism and skill systems were provided as responses when questioned regarding work engagement and employee retention.

Table 8.1: Innovative HFLH Voice Mechanisms

	Nature / Manifestations	Benefits
Workshops	- Examples of Mindfulness Workshops with ideas and suggestions	- Outside work hours and optional nature of this mechanism led to a relaxed atmosphere, where HFLH employees were more likely to communicate.
NSWT Voice	- Due to the particular effectiveness of direct voice with management in HFLH, some HFLH managers worked partly into nights or early morning to provide a mechanism for HFLH employees working on these shifts.	- Due to their non-standard work-hours, certain HFLH employees would not have this opportunity to communicate directly with management. - Allowed for management to instil their desired culture and for HFLH employees to voice ideas or concerns.
Job Rotation	- Involved employees working in different business units of areas	- Often promoted more horizontal voice between areas and a respect for workers in that area.
Work specific Messaging apps	- Whilst messaging applications were being used, more businesses chose a separate application to communicate operationally with HFLH employees.	- Whilst these provide important mechanism for operational communication respectful work-life boundaries, it should be ensured that it does not replace direct individual voice.
Business Unit or Area Specific Voice	- Management choosing the front-line area urgently requiring voice and working alongside those HFLH employees.	- Such targeted mechanisms allowed management to instil their desired culture and for these HFLH employees to voice concerns or ideas for improvement.

Table 8.2: Innovative HFLH Skill Formation

	Nature / Manifestations	Benefits
Travel	- Encourage or facilitating travel. - When recruiting, management look favourably on candidates with travel experience.	- Cited as a means of 'inspiration' for HFLH. - Allows for greater understanding of international cultures.
Skill Competitions	- Encouragement and supporting HFLH employees to develop their specific skills through competition (e.g. receptionist competitions, barista championships)	- Cited as a source of identity of HFLH employees. - It is also a source of motivation for employees to become experts in their field and to train new HFLH employees to best-practice standards.
Validation / Certification of existing 'on the job' skills	- Evident within recent years implemented jointly by the HFLH Trade Union and Employers Association in Sweden.	- Recognises uncertified skill, provides signalling for mobility and promotes organisational justice between those who learned on the job.
Psychological Skills	- Has become an increased focus on those who understand body language, resolving conflict fostering positive emotions.	- Whilst some managers identified the difficulties to teach such skills, others focused on courses and role plays involving customer complaints or situations.
Local Area Skills	- Examples of walking tours for HFLH employees around their hotel to understand first hand and provide authentic recommendations and advice to customers.	- May act as a source of identity for HFLH employees feeling they are an expert in their local area, in providing advice to customers but also increasing social cohesion and morale.

8.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter's purpose was to assimilate the results from chapters 5, 6, and 7, with regard to the research questions. The introduction to the chapter summarised how LP and VoC analysis together informs the HFLH employment relationship. In doing so, it explains how it contributes *'connective tissue'* through voice mechanisms and skill learning systems, which span both the institutional VoC and the control dynamics of the LP process. These were both examined with regard to work engagement and employee retention.

In addressing the first supplementary research question, this chapter explained the HFLH use of voice across both countries. For individual voice mechanisms, this provided insight into formal-informal differences between the countries. It then detailed the results from the SEM analysis, including the negative relationship between collective voice mechanisms and work engagement and the positive relationship between collective voice mechanisms and employee retention. It also showed a strong relationship between individual voice mechanisms and work engagement and noted the important of direct voice mechanisms to senior management as being particularly important. Finally, from the semi-structured interviews, it summarised innovative voice mechanisms particular to the HFLH sector.

Following this, research question two was addressed in detail. The results from the SEM model used to test the Hypotheses were presented while drawing on the qualitative semi-structured interviews to help understand these results further. Supplementary research question 2 questioned the impact of skill systems and voice mechanisms on HFLH work engagement and employee retention. It did so from three perspectives, namely, high-end hospitality managers, front-line employees, and skill and voice institutions. There was no significant relationship found between skill learning systems and work engagement and employee retention. Quantitative analysis showed support for fostering a challenge (demands) in life in general, with those studying for a different skill outside hospitality being more engaged within their hospitality role. Similar support for those pursuing a future in hospitality and work engagement was found. From a skill systems point of view, qualitative analysis revealed management strategies with regard to employee retention, along with skill systems and HFLH recruitment practice.

CHAPTER 9 DISCUSSION

9.1 Introduction

Following the 'Integration of Results' chapter, where each supplementary research question was addressed individually, this chapter seeks to further this by discussing these results further with regard to the theoretical frameworks. It does so by considering the results from the perspective of the sector, paying attention to VoC differences and different organisations . In addition to this, it discusses the findings from both a management and an employee perspective. In order to structure this discussion, the chapter comprises two main sections: LP and VoC, where their expectations are considered against the sectoral findings of this research. The first section explores responsible autonomy and dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers. The second section considers voice mechanisms, skill learning systems, and the institutional complementarity at play across the HFLH sector in which each of these are embedded. Despite structuring the chapter in this way, these LP and VoC sections may cross over to further contribute to discussion and argument.

9.2 Labour Process Perspective Expectations *vis-à-vis* Sectoral Findings

This thesis sought to develop LP analysis and provide the foundation for the connective tissue required as part of the disconnected capitalism thesis (Thompson, 2003; 2013). This section outlines both strands of this connective tissue proposed in this research. Firstly, responsible autonomy considered as scope, personal control and, ultimately, voice mechanisms is discussed in terms of the findings from Ireland and Sweden. Secondly, dissociation from the LP from the skills of the workers is examined with regard to the HFLH sector in Ireland and Sweden.

9.2.1 Responsible Autonomy

It has been suggested that direct control, associated with core LP theory, is more aligned with LME typologies (Smith, 2015). Apart from this national distinction, other authors (e.g. Sosteric, 1996) suggest 'direct control' is suitable for workers of less-skilled, yet highly competitive sectors such as HFLH. Numerous stakeholder

responses suggested such control appeared concentrated particularly between middle management and HFLH employees and appeared more concentrated in Ireland. Voice mechanisms appeared to provide the most scope, autonomy and personal control between senior management and middle-management in both Sweden and Ireland. Examples of voice becoming *'weak'* and *'diluted'* as it passed from senior management down to HFLH employees also emerged. Despite this, the importance of robust voice mechanisms within the triangular relationship cannot be underestimated for work engagement. Here, the customer takes on certain management responsibilities within the LP (Marchington, 2005). HFLH employees in Ireland in particular noted that in the event of deviant customers, strong voice mechanisms with management allowed them to feel *'appreciated'* and *'safe'*. This is consistent with dimensions of work engagement proposed by many authors (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004).

Regarding collective voice mechanisms, the HFLH trade union interviewees in Sweden noted how collective participatory voice remains within only a few indigenous long-established chains in Sweden. They also noted that any collective voice within HFLH remains concentrated within large organisations now. They added that nowadays members often use the HFLH trade union collective voice mechanisms to question employer practices, conditions or problems they are experiencing at work. It is suggested (Marks and Chillas, 2014; Edwards, 1979) that structures of large scale organisations (in this case MNC hotel groups) give a false impression of voice mechanisms through the bureaucracy of their hierarchies (many supervisors). Within the HFLH countries, it became evident from interviews that, despite layers of middle management who appear content with the extent of communication towards management within their voice mechanisms, such mechanisms are not extended towards HFLH employees. From here, these middle managers exercised direct control towards HFLH employees. Interviewees with trade union employees in Sweden noted that many contracts are structured in terms of optional 'extra hours' and it is often noted that such employees find little enticements to engage in collective voice for fear of not getting the phone call to work when busy (Marchington et al., 2004). This may indeed by a key reason for the lack of 'co-ordinating' role of collective voice in this sector. Such collective mechanisms were solely used for grievances and often directly to the trade union instead of

through representatives. It may also explain much of the negative relationship between collective voice mechanisms and work engagement.

9.2.1.1 Dissociation of LP from skills of Workers and Deskilling

The hospitality industry has faced considerable technological changes (including job fragmentation and deskilling) from the electronic point of sale EPoS. Such division of labour has resulted in degrading terms such as '*runners*' (operating between the pass and the tables running plates), 'table service' and 'meet and greet'. This has arguably reduced the overall skill perception in the public eye and skill association by management. Previous terminology utilised within the LP of '*waiter*', *waitress*' and '*maîtres'd*' implied (and associated) much more skill, autonomy, and variety within roles. This current dissociation also appears to be most evident when the researcher sought to understand the desirable and the most suitable skills required by HFLH employers. It was hypothesised that specific skills might provide more meaningfulness, and that the social cohesion and knowledge may indeed provide a source of identity (and ultimately work engagement) within the LP. However, practices within the HFLH LP seek to undermine this. This hiring of aesthetic labour, which has been well documented (Witz et al., 2003), is a further attempt by the employer at dissociating the LP from the skills of the workers. Such practices became particularly apparent from interviews with HFLH employees and Trade Unions within Sweden. Other examples of dissociation arose among HFLH employee interviewees in Ireland where organisations employed un-skilled under the same conditions as skilled labour. Skilled HFLH employees found this to be particularly disengaging and this draws parallels with organisational justice as an antecedent to work engagement (de Roeck et al., 2014; Nadiri and Tanova, 2010; Cropanzano et al., 2001).

In addition to this, management interviewees in Ireland and Sweden, criticised skill learning systems before joining an organisation as a disadvantage in cases. They cited the 'rigidity', created by these systems, as a factor in the inability to mould HFLH employees to their organisational requirements. Given such evidence from both trade union organisations and management interviewees, the prospects of 'recognising' micro skills process of service work (Hampson and Junor, 2010) remain bleak. Payne (2009) contests the validity of emotion work skill on the basis of task complexity and discretion/control within the LP. The discretion, complexity

and flexibility demands, evident in the high-end service offering, provides a much stronger argument than the 'scripted' responses of the fast-food service offering (see chapter 2, Figure 2.1). Within certain high-end hospitality organisations, however, there appears to be a diverse array of skill formation taking place. Evidence of skill development can be seen through skill competitions, travel / Research and Development trips, and allowing HFLH employees to suggest what skills they would like to develop for their role. Whilst collective agreements exist in Sweden, it is the length of the skill provision (up to five years) that has become the deterrent, as the missed earning potential becomes apparent to rational HFLH employees. Interviewees from Swedish trade unions noted that they need to institutionally support this through re-establishing existing agreements, where it:

> "pays to study"
>
> (HFLH trade union interviewee - Sweden).

9.2.1.2 Skills Formation as a Voice Mechanism

Examples emerged in certain organisations in Ireland where mindfulness workshops were being followed by an opportunity to exercise voice. As these were outside worktimes and unpaid, they were not an option for all employees. However, management interviewees described how such an informal mechanism allowed for effective voice to be exchanged. This in turn led to changes in work practices and the working conditions for employees.

> *"People come along with a completely open mind and it is a really safe place and what you think the problems are we can do to fix them and what changes we can make and one of the big things we found out of it is stress management".*
>
> (HFLH Employer interviewee 8 – Ireland)

This builds on work by Townsend and Loudoun (2015) on the importance of FLH management's role in shaping this informal voice mechanism.

Regarding dissociation of the LP from the skills of the worker, most employer strategies involved recruiting non-skilled workers. In Sweden, despite evidence of co-ordination, there was also evidence of employers unwilling to accept the risk of investment in long-term employee training skills such as sommelier, mixologist, or barista. Whilst managers called for these skills to be institutionally provided, they

instead adopted a more short-term skill provision for employees such as skill suggestion schemes, workshops, and travel to 'inspirational' hospitality organisations and cities. These share similarities with idiosyncratic deals (Liao et al. (2016); Hornung et al. (2008)), and represent arrangements with the potential to foster work engagement and employee retention.

The below diagram highlights and summarises some of the dominant control movements within the HFLH LP.

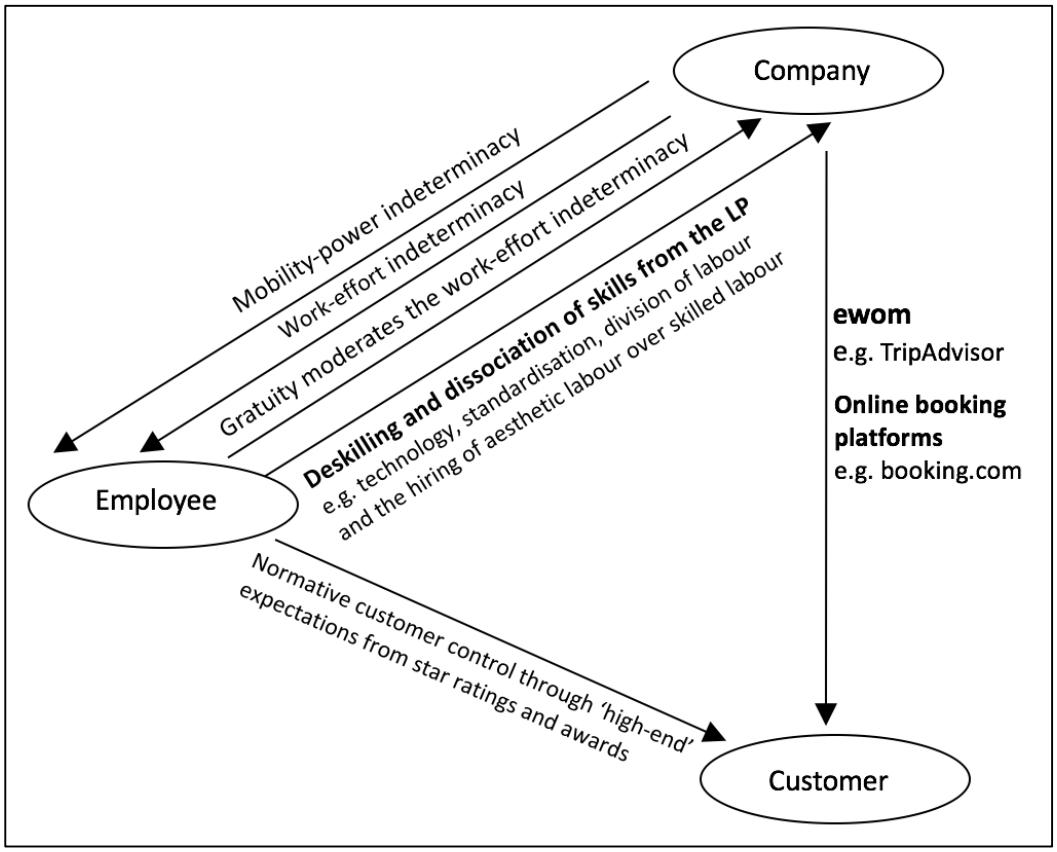


Figure 9.1 Predominant Control Movements within the HFLH LP

This sees the two LP indeterminacies, work-effort and mobility-power, both being challenged in this atypical relationship. Gratuity or tipping weakens the work-effort indeterminacy, while the practice of hiring unskilled labour over skilled labour is a form of dissociation reducing employees control further. Within HFLH, expectations from the customer (Ariffin and Maghzi, 2012), particularly in 5-star hotel, Michelin or White Guide etc., exert further control over the employee. The sector is becoming

more competitive and financialisation pressures are accelerated by EWOM mechanisms and online booking platforms such as TripAdvisor and booking.com, which further increases customer control in this triangular relationship.

9.3 Varieties of Capitalism Expectation Expectations *vis-à-vis* Sectoral Findings

Whilst using VoC examples to provide a broader understanding of the HFLH employment relationship, the researcher expected to further the understanding of institutional differences shaping this relationship. This research involved the skill learning systems and voice mechanism dichotomies of 'general and specific' and 'individual and collective'. Even though these were analysed as antecedents of work engagement and employee retention, it was necessary to understand the institutional complementariness either constraining or supporting in each context. This research contributes to VoC understanding, not only by providing '*connective tissue'* with the micro-processes of the employee relationship explained by the LP perspective, but by providing important HFLH sectoral insight across both contexts. Organisations face sectoral-specific challenges in arranging their LP, while being shaped by their institutional framework (Crouch et al., 2009); important sector differences not captured by VoC logic can be explained through LP dynamics also. Despite this sector's particularly alienating features and characteristics, there is no doubting its strategic importance to national economies as a key pillar of tourism. Furthermore, despite recent progress, HFLH, along with services in general, remains considerably under researched compared to its manufacturing counterpart.

9.3.1 Voice Mechanisms

Through using VoC as a utility to examine individual and collective voice mechanisms and engagement, it was hypothesised that the extent of use of both voice mechanisms types would be positively associated with work engagement. This was supported for individual voice mechanisms; however, with collective voice mechanisms, findings produced a negative relationship. Further analysis of qualitative stakeholder interviews revealed that the co-ordinating role of such collective voice was undermined by, what were known in Sweden, as 'extra-hour'

contracts. HFLH employees feared repercussions from utilising such voice mechanisms, despite an institutionally supportive climate. This aligns with findings from other studies, where repeatedly requesting days off or using policies to request scheduling preferences has been shown to involve reduced working hours or allocation of undesirable shifts (Henly et al. 2006).

Noting that most collective voice mechanisms would be concentrated in the Swedish sample, interviews with the relevant stakeholders revealed the nature of this voice. Firstly, while collective voice often provides just a regulatory role, the EU Information and Consultation Directive provides an opportunity for precarious workers to have a say beyond their union voice (Johnstone et al., 2012). However, despite a proliferation of MNCs suitable for this category, interviewees with the Swedish FLH trade unions described their struggle to communicate this. They added that many hospitality workers do not even know their basic entitlements and that organisational size has become an important factor in collective voice, in general. Small organisations which typically comprise HFLH are not large enough for these mechanisms, arguably suiting large industrial organisations for which they were originally developed for. These responses are consistent with the collective voice mechanism findings of Brewster et al. (2007), where representation was replaced by 'over a coffee' mechanisms as the organisational size reduced.

One of the most interesting differences, with regard to voice mechanisms, was the nature of formal and informal voice across the different VoC examples. This builds on previous research in the area (Dundon et al., 2004; Townsend et al., 2013). The HFLH sample in Ireland communicated a more direct form of voice and at a higher chain of command than their counterparts in Sweden. The Swedish sample, on the other hand, responded as using more formal individual voice mechanisms to communicate their views to management. However, from interviews with HFLH employees and managers within Sweden, it appeared that this formal voice was very much focused on daily operations, often taking place at the beginning of a shift. Understanding this individual voice formal-informal dimension more closely, similar to the individual-collective dimension, helps resolve separate units of voice analysis (Gruman and Saks, 2014). Formal voice mechanisms involve voice through a structure such as a team meeting. Informal voice, on the other hand, involves a more relaxed, unofficial style of communication, often denoted as a chat. A recent study in the LME context (Australia) found strong support for regular meetings between

senior management and trust in management (Holland et al., 2012). However, Holland et al. found that formal voice mechanisms, though useful, fail to address effective voice by either providing downward voice (e.g. team meetings) or infrequent and upward only voice. Also, in a further study in the LME context (luxury hotels in Australia), the importance of informal voice was underlined by its ability in filling gaps left by inadequate formal mechanisms (Townsend et al., 2013). Given that this service offering often requires HFLH to provide continuous service coverage, the structured nature of formal voice mechanisms might not suit the sector in general.

With regard to the nature of collective voice mechanisms and VoC, it has been suggested that CMEs provide a more co-operative form of work and employment relations. In addition, they allow considerable delegation to employees and interdependence between managers and employees (Whitley, 1999; Hall and Soskice, 2001). In contrast, the LMEs are typified by lower delegation and interdependence (Hall and Soskice, 2001). Often times, LMEs seek their own management strategies to counter the lack of an institutional framework (Colvin and Darbishire, 2012). The adoption of such management practices may produce a more unitarist system whilst reducing collective voice (Guest, 2007) and increasing stress (Karasek, 1990). This research found a negative relationships between collective voice and work engagement and the FLH trade union. From qualitative analysis, the smaller size of HFLH organisations, the transient and fragmented workforce, the proliferation of MNC hospitality organisations of LME origin, and the financialisation pressures shaping ownership structure appear to have eroded the representative nature of collective voice within HFLH.

Gooderham et al. (1999), Gooderham and Nordhaug (2011), and Schuler and Rogovsky (1998) argue that most European countries have distinctive management systems with regard to culture and institutions. Despite this, significant similarities are evident when focusing on co-ordinated institutional outcomes and co-operative characteristics such as delegation and interdependence between managers and employees (Hall and Soskice, 2001). Differences within VoC are evident where this relationship is often weaker in CME examples such as France (Grandey et al., 2005). Menguc et al. (2013), in their study of service employees (LME example: Canada), describe voice in two dimensions - supervisory support and supervisory feedback. Regarding work engagement, they find that supervisory feedback has a positive

relationship with work engagement. This is consistent with work engagement research by Demerouti et al. (2001b), who suggest that resources, including autonomy, supervisory support, or supervisory feedback, are expected to reduce the strain of the job's demands. They also reduce the psychological and physiological costs that come with these arduous demands. With high levels of emotional labour, autonomy serves to reduce the emotional exhaustion for such service employees (Wharton, 1999). Job resources which include autonomy, social support, coaching, feedback, prospects to learn, employee development, and responsibility are congruent with individual voice (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). This research, not only supports the use of such individual voice mechanisms in HFLH for work engagement and employee retention, it also suggests that direct voice with senior management is strongly correlated with work engagement.

9.3.2 Skill Learning Systems

For skill learning systems, the results suggested very distinctive skill landscapes across both VoCs, with 51% of the HFLH sample of Ireland having either a degree or postgraduate, and 49.5% of the HFLH sample of Sweden having specific skills. In examining the Swedish education curriculum programme more closely, it emerged that it remained particularly general before the specificity began in the final two years. This is due to its deep integration within the schooling system allowing for flexibility for as long as possible. With the lack of support for these skill learning systems as an antecedent to work engagement or employee retention, it became apparent that the important differences may lie in what is ignored by VoC: the extent of continuous training within HFLH organisations (Gallie, 2011). From semi-structured interviews, differences emerged from organisation to organisation with regard their training schedules. Much of this appeared to relate to the resources afforded to middle-management and whether they were operating in such a competitive manner that training was at the bare minimum. From interviews in both countries, the latter was the norm. This is despite evidence from interviews within the a few Swedish high-end hospitality organisations. These organisations sought to develop skills through innovative means (e.g. skill suggestion schemes) and attempted to minimise the risks of expensive skill investment through choosing longer skill programmes (e.g. sommelier). This may have emanated from the concepts of 'learning enterprise' and 'lifelong learning' which are embedded in

Swedish policy making (Crouch et al., 2001). The competitive advantage of CME skills, has been debated (Streeck, 1997; Whitley, 1999; Crouch et al., 2009; Hall and Soskice, 2001) over the years, with a more explicit focus on the services industry and indeed HFLH. With regard to HFLH skills, they are difficult to measure, develop and certify because of their more 'soft' personality and social skills, in comparison to manufacturing and indeed other service sectors.

9.3.3 Institutional Complementarity

This research focused on three spheres - employees, industrial relations, and skill systems (referred to as Vocational Education and Training within VoC literature). One of the most noteworthy pressures on the high-end hospitality sectors that became evident from stakeholder interviews was that of financialisation (Cushen and Thompson, 2016) on VoC corporate governance sphere convergence (Hall and Soskice, 2001). The table below presents the institutional findings, with regard to VoC spheres evident in Ireland and Sweden, acting to shape the HFLH employment relationship.

Table 9.1: HFLH across both market economies through VoC's Spheres

Sweden HFLH (CME example)	Varieties of Capitalism Spheres	Ireland HFLH (LME example)
Fragmentation of collective voice evident from trade union interviewees who note that transient, part-time and contract labour are less likely to become members. Implications for MNCs particularly of LME origin.	**Industrial Relations**	Little to no HFLH collective voice, apart from pockets of public organisations and legacy agreements (e.g. old Dublin pubs) used for wage and work-time agreements.
Evidence from HFLH questionnaires suggest Swedish HFLH have greater use of formal individual voice mechanisms, compared to the Irish HFLH.	**Employees**	Questionnaire evidence suggests individual voice for Irish HFLH workers is more direct, while interviews suggest supervisors are provided with considerable autonomy to exert direct control on HFLH employees.
Low skill and aesthetic recruitment among HFLH appears to fuel the low-skill perception as vocational skill institutions close or merge due to lack of demand from young people. Institutional efforts from HFLH Trade Unions and Hospitality Employer associations to recognise on the job training through validation and certification.	**Skill Systems**	Little or no provision for HFLH employees over the past five years, despite industry calls for the return of apprenticeship tracks such as the CERT programme (albeit in a shorter duration).
Evidence from HFLH stakeholders suggest increased competition between hospitality companies becoming the focus in place of standard setting and co-ordination.	**Inter-firm Relations**	Strong intercompany competition remains within the Irish hospitality context fuelled by online marketplaces. Inter-firm co-ordination remains limited.
Interviewee responses suggest new short-term emphasis of the hospitality sector typified by the example of a manager seeking long-term investment for the hotel (an extra room) but the owners refrained due to short-term insurance increases.	**Corporate Governance**	Following the economic recession in Ireland, short-term orientated company finance is common with many hotel groups being operated by funds. There is also a high level of market activity with sales, closures, openings.

9.4 Chapter Conclusion

From the previous chapter, which integrated the results from the previous three chapters in answering the research questions, this chapter reflected back on the theoretical foundations of the research in its discussion. In doing so, it began with the LP perspective in comparing expectations of autonomy within each HFLH sample with evidence from interviews across both countries. Similarly, skill dissociation was examined with regard to the qualitative data. The second part of this chapter examined the VoC framework's expectations and the questionnaire results and stakeholder interviews reflected this. This involved the examination of both skill landscapes and questions over whether VoC's logic is robust enough to encapsulate the complex skill differences across market economies. This is despite the apparent specific and general disparities evident from examining the questionnaire results at the surface level. However, further sector-specific LP pressures appear to be at play in both countries, particularly that of skill dissociation and direct control. These are potentially due to the new regime of accumulation within HFLH: financialisation (van der Zwan, 2014; Cushen and Thompson, 2016; Thompson, 2013). Given VoC's institutional complementarity, it was also necessary to consider the different spheres in how they interplay within HFLH employment relationship. The chapter concluded by providing a sectoral VoC summary of the spheres both accelerating or constraining such changes (Rubery, 2010; Streeck and Thelen, 2005).

CHAPTER 10 CONCLUSION

10.1 Introduction

This thesis has examined the HFLH hospitality employment relationship. Through using both the LP perspective and VoC analysis as a means to inform the understanding of this, somewhat precarious, employment relationship, it chose skill learning systems, voice mechanisms, work engagement and employee retention. In order to conduct this sectoral-specific analysis of HFLH based on these four variables, the research is conducted using a mixed methods approach across the HFLH sectors of Ireland and Sweden. For the quantitative methodology, SEM was utilised for analysing the questionnaires received from HFLH employees and 'employee turnover' responses from the 50 'high-end' hospitality organisations across Ireland and Sweden. The qualitative element of the methodology allowed for a further understanding of the micro-processes at play, captured by LP control dynamics within this 'triangular' HFLH employment relationship.

This concluding chapter begins by summarising the theoretical lacunae identified throughout the literature review, along with identifying how this thesis contributed to each knowledge gap. It then provides a summary of the results, with reference to the research questions. The chapter then considers the limitations of this study and how this study could have been improved and expanded upon. The various implications of the study are then considered from different perspectives including national (including policy), organisational, management and HFLH employee level. These are further reflected on with regard to national tourism prerogatives, organisational performance, effective management practices, and the creation of meaningful and engaging work for HFLH employees. This section is then followed by potential areas for future research, identified during this completion of this thesis. The chapter and the thesis concludes by reemphasising the importance of this study for HFLH.

Table 10.1: Theoretical Lacunae and Contribution to Literature

Theoretical Lacuna	Contribution to literature
Connective tissue called for by Thompson and Vincent (2010) and Hauptmeier and Vidal (2014) between the micro processes of the LP perspective and broader macro comparative political economy.	This research provides a conceptual model to contribute to such connective tissue by identifying **commonalities and parallels** such as: -Dissociation of LP from worker skills and skill systems and Responsible autonomy and scope as voice mechanisms.
Sector studies have been neglected in comparative employee and industrial relations due to a 'national' focus. This is despite most co-ordination taking place at sectoral level (Bechter et al. 2012).	This research builds a **sector-specific conceptual model** based on theoretical frameworks most suitable for **analysis** of HFLH, with sector-suitable **outcomes** of work engagement and employee retention.
There is no research comparing differences in **skill system formation** (general and specific) and their influence on **work engagement**. HFLH among its characteristics suffers from a low skill perception from both public and management.	This research empirically examines whether **vocational training** may provide **work engagement** in HFLH compared with general skills. It does so with reference to LP dynamics and in particular the 'dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers' (Braverman 1974).
There are still relatively few studies concerning **voice and work engagement**. Rees et al. (2013) look at voice behaviour, trust and engagement across two organisations, while Cheng et al. (2013) surveyed managers and subordinates, in examining voice behaviour, leader-member exchange and engagement organisations in Taiwan.	This research considers **voice mechanisms** and work engagement. It also considers voice as 'mechanisms' congruent to 'scope' or 'responsible autonomy' necessary within the HFLH LP. The only cross-cultural study Kwon et al. (2016), focused on was a conceptual model for direct and indirect voice while calling for research regarding **collective voice** and work engagement.
From examining Brewster et al. (2007) voice mechanisms, there is a gap and indeed opportunity to explore **sector specific voice mechanisms and skill formation practices** appropriate for managers of 'high-end' hospitality organisations for managing their HFLH employees effectively.	This research identifies **new innovative voice mechanisms and skill formation practices** in 'high-end' hospitality organisations across different market contexts. These are identified through multi-stakeholder semi-structured interviews carried out with reference to the outcomes of work engagement and employee retention.

10.2 Contribution of the Study

The considerable contribution of this thesis can be described in four parts. It explains each theoretical lacuna and how this thesis addresses each in contributing to knowledge towards each gap.

Firstly, Thompson and Vincent (2010) and Hauptmeier and Vidal (2014) have called for a durable model of 'connective tissue' between the LP perspective and broader comparative political economy. This research provides a conceptual model to develop such 'connective tissue' by identifying commonalities and parallels between both theories. These include HFLH LP's dissociation of LP from worker skills and VoC's skill systems. The second area of connectivity is the HFLH's LP requirement for 'responsible autonomy' and 'scope', manifested as individual and collective voice mechanisms. In doing so, it considers HFLH and examines it through suitable areas of analysis such as voice mechanisms and skill learning systems, along with key performance outcomes of work engagement and employee retention. The LP perspective contributes understanding of both the 'dynamics of capital accumulation' and micro-processes of the employment relationship, both neglected by VoC.

Secondly, 'sector' studies within comparative employee and industrial relations have been relatively neglected in literature, even though most co-ordination takes place at sector level (Bechter et al. 2012). The national level focus of most comparative literature has provided an incomplete framework for the study of work. Following an in-depth and critical analysis of the characteristics of HFLH, this thesis builds a sector-specific model based on suitable theoretical frameworks to analyse this atypical type of work. In examining the sector and national context together, this research builds on work by Hassel (2014) in the German context, in understanding the rising separation between core and peripheral work in the creation of dualisation. However, this research provides evidence of the homogeneity of HFLH pressures accelerating institutional change in both market economy examples. This includes competitive pressures exacerbated by technology, in particular booking platforms (e.g. booking.com) and EWOM (e.g. TripAdvisor) on the sector. Furthermore, evidence of pressures of financialisation surfaced from interviews with stakeholders (from Trade Unions and Government Institutions), including performance demands by owners and shareholders on management in Irish and

Swedish organisations of the consolidation of many hospitality organisations under the management of funds and shareholder ownership.

Thirdly, there has been no research comparing differences in skill system formation (specific and general) and their influence on work engagement and employee retention. HFLH is perceived as a low skill occupation across many societies, despite high levels of customisation and flexibility, emotional intelligence demands, and technical skills at the 'high-end' or luxury service offering. This research empirically examines whether vocational training may provide much needed engagement in HFLH compared with general skills. It does so with reference to LP dynamics and, in particular, the 'dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers' (Braverman 1974, 113). This thesis, from examining national skill learning systems, then examines sector-specific skill formation mechanisms for HFLH, with the aim of developing meaningfulness and identity that might not be captured by the national skill systems. These, apart from promoting work engagement, might also seek to create a more long-term, career-focused sector for HFLH employees, counteracting the turnover culture. These include, but are not limited to, the encouragement and facilitation of travel, psychological and body language skills, skill validation programmes, skill suggestion schemes, and local area expertise.

Finally, there are still relatively few studies concerning voice and engagement. Rees et al. (2013) examine voice behaviour, trust and engagement across two organisations. Cheng et al. (2013) surveyed managers and subordinates in examining voice behaviour, leader-member exchange, and engagement organisations in Taiwan. This research considers voice mechanisms under its individual-collective dimensions and work engagement. Here, it considers voice as 'mechanisms' congruent to 'scope' or 'responsible autonomy' necessary within the HFLH LP. This has furthered existing work which matched the management style of the FLH employee relationship to the service operations; in this case, considerable scope is required for high-end or luxury hospitality (e.g. Lashley, 1998). Furthermore, to date, there has only been one cross-cultural study (Kwon et al. 2016) that focused on developing a conceptual model for direct and indirect voice while calling for research on collective voice. This research addresses this gap also.

10.3 Considering the results regarding the research question

The aim of this study is outlined in the main research question: What factors influence employee engagement and retention in high end front line hospitality in Ireland and Sweden?

In order to address this, two supplementary research questions were proposed as follows and addressed through the literature review, hypotheses and semi-structured interviews:

1. **How does a variety of voice mechanisms utilised in high-end front-line hospitality influence work engagement and employee retention?**
   (Hypotheses 1 - 6 and semi-structured interviews)
2. **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**
   (Hypotheses 7 - 9 and semi-structured interviews)

The literature review examined HFLH's distinct characteristics and explained how each are captured through the LP perspective. These include emotional labour process, triangular relationship, erosion of identity, turnover-culture and HFLH's service offering spanning efficiency and flexibility. Through identifying commonalities between the micro-processes of the employment relationship explained through the LP perspective and the institutional logic of comparative capitalism which shape this, two main areas were chosen: voice mechanisms and skill learning systems.

The ability of the interlocking institutional arrangements to either accelerate change, as well as constrain it, has been long debated (Rubery, 2010; Streeck and Thelen, 2005). Examples of acceleration of institutional change within FLH are particularly evident in Ireland, which once had an esteemed bar-person apprenticeship system based on 'specific' skill provisions. To ensure the economic survival of the tourism sector: considered particularly strategic towards recovery following the financial crises of 2008, support was crucial. Instead of focusing on upskilling or developing career paths and providing the necessary institutional support, a reduced tax rate, mainly related to tourism was enforced (which since 2013 has been extended indefinitely). It was viewed as a necessary adjustment maintain a competitive tourist offering given Ireland has one of the highest alcohol tax rates in the world. Sweden however reduced its alcohol tax rate on wine in recent years (Mercille, 2016). With

such a focus on short-term competitiveness evident in such policy actions, the question is whether this is a typical LME feature or if it's a sectoral-specific LP pressure best explained through the pressures of financialisation.

When one looks at the CME context of Sweden, for example, the patient capital cited within the corporate governance sphere is also being eroded through the financialisation pressures within the hospitality sector. Here, the relatively low HFLH employee membership with trade unions within the CME context could be explained by the lack of appetite due to membership costs. The financialisation (Cushen and Thompson, 2016; Thompson, 2013) and the economic efficiency imperative has created cost pressures on wages. Despite calls from HFLH trade unions in Sweden - "we need to make it pay to study front-line hospitality again", such co-ordination is being eroded by the new economic efficiency imperative within the sector of HFLH.

In summary, this research, through a critical analysis of its distinct characteristics, captures the distinct characteristics of HFLH work. From doing so, LP and VoC, as theoretical models, capture both the micro-processes and macro-institutional differences by using LP control dynamics across a VoC institutional landscape. To understand this particular services sector (HFLH), parallels are drawn between these frameworks resulting in connective tissue. Skill learning systems and voice mechanisms allow an examination of the HFLH employment relationship. Similarly, the sector-specific outcomes of work engagement and employee retention provide the opportunity for similar analysis. In the case of employee retention, mobility power (Smith, 2006), which is exercised considerably within HFLH, is examined for its uniqueness across different market economies. Finally, differences are found regarding between quantitative and qualitative results, compared with the VoC framework expectations. This contributes important discourse to the homogeneity of this atypical sector across different institutional configurations (LME vs CME), which is particularly sensitive to sectoral specific pressures (e.g. financialisation).

1. **How do different voice mechanisms impact the work engagement and employee retention of HFLH employees in different ways?**

From SEM analysis based on the theoretical framework informing this employment relationship, it became apparent that individual voice mechanisms were strongly related to work engagement. In contrast, collective voice mechanisms had a negative

relationship with work engagement. However, both collective voice and individual voice were found to be antecedents to HFLH employee retention.

Regarding individual voice, differences emerged between both contexts when investigating the formal and informal mechanisms used by HFLH employees. HFLH employees within Sweden were found to communicate their views to management using more formal mechanisms. HFLH employees in Ireland were found to use more direct mechanisms of voice when communicating with management and also did so with a greater extent of voice. Even though this research did not set out to examine these formal informal differences, it emerged as a distinction and adds to the recent research by authors, particularly in the LME context of Australia (Holland et al., 2012).

From semi-structured interviews with management and HFLH employees in both Ireland and Sweden, voice mechanisms particular to the HFLH sector emerged. Faced with constraints of HFLH such as non-standard work time, and unpredictable demand, in a sector where senior management often want to communicate their desired culture to those working in the HFLH. These mechanisms (described in detail in chapter 6 and summarised in chapter 8) included workshops, NSWT voice, Job Rotation, Work specific Messaging apps, and Business Unit or Area Specific voice.

2. **Does the range of skill learning systems experienced in high-end front-line hospitality impact work engagement and employee retention?**

This research expected specific skills to have a greater influence on work engagement than general education. Nevertheless, SEM analysis yielded no significant relationship between wither skill system and the work engagement of HFLH employees. However, it was found that transient employees are less likely to be engaged. This was evident in the positive relationship between those HFLH employees who indicated they intend to pursue a future in hospitality and work engagement. Skills, however, were shown to be important, particularly in the form of challenges outside one's HFLH career. This supports JD-R engagement theory (Chiang et al., 2014; Menguc et al., 2013; Brough et al., 2013; Schaufeli et al., 2009), where engagement flourishes when one is challenged appropriately. A further relationship was found where those studying for alternative careers whilst working in HFLH were more engaged in their work. With regards to the main source of skills for a HFLH job, specific skills accounted for 50 percent of Sweden's HFLH sample.

Despite this, the relationship between either work engagement or skill learning systems, being positively related to employee retention, was not statistically significant.

A greater understanding of Swedish society's perception of HFLH specific skills (vocational training) could explain this further. The theme emerged from interviews with various stakeholders of HFLH hospitality education as a *"fall back"*, where people would "*end-up",* as opposed to choosing the career, emerged from interviews with both institutions, employers and employees. Quantitative analysis indicated the high level of transient workers in HFLH in Sweden. However, these differ to the transient workers in Ireland, where a third of the sample were found to be mostly studying for a different occupation while working in hospitality. The positive relationship found between HFLH employees who perceived their future career within HFLH and work engagement had implications for the importance of continuous learning. It may also support and explain responses from interviews where managers spoke to skill institutions to, "*send us the right person*".

Considerable dissociation of the LP from the skills of the workers was also evident from the qualitative analysis in both market economy examples. Here, management interviewees in high-end hospitality organisations in Sweden indicated that such specific skills may constrain their ability to "*shape'*" and *"mould"* employees to their desired company culture. Other evidence of this 'dissociation' was evident through interviews with the HFLH trade union organisation in Sweden. They explained that, although fundamentally important to hospitality effectiveness, 'personality' is often used as an excuse to hire "*un-skilled*" workers or indeed as a concealment for hiring aesthetically. Despite the widespread focus on the manufacturing arena, Braverman (1974, 257) illustrated this *'dissociation of skill'* within the service sector, using an example of restaurants and food retail organisations struggling with a "*shortage and high price of skilled help*".

Similarly, with regard to skill formation, given the prominence of on-the-job training as the sole skill provision or indeed as important to organisational-specific skills, semi-structured interviews across Ireland and Sweden revealed particular skill formations within the sector of HFLH. These (described in detail in chapter 7 and summarised in chapter 8) include Travel, Skill Competitions, validation/ certification of existing 'on the job' skills, psychological skills, and local area skills.

The next section considers the limitations of the study and how it could have been improved.

10.4 Limitations of the Study

It must be noted that while this thesis sought to examine HFLH across national typologies of VoC, it sought to do so based on a sample (n=274) across both countries. Whilst this provided an acceptable model-fit for SEM modelling and the sample was chosen based on geographic, organisational ownership and organisational type, a sample of the complete population would have been preferable. This was also problematic given the sub-population of FLH, namely, the 'high-end' service offering, that was being sampled. This research carried out its own independent estimates of populations before comparing it to estimates from labour market agencies. Due to the relatively subjective classification of high-end, the most appropriate criteria for selecting these was from established guide books (The White Guide and Michelin Guide Recommendations) and hotel-star rating agencies (AA and Fáilte Ireland etc.). These guide books and hotel star rating agencies differed across both countries but the researcher considered these to be quite similar in their selection criteria. In the case of hotel star agencies, the particular criteria differences were also described throughout. Whilst there can be a limitation when reviewers rely on subjective means for their selection (particularly guide books), the researcher felt that this selection process captured the 'high-end' hospitality organisations representatively. Furthermore, it was noted that such a selection would also draw heavily from best practice and effective organisations and this also provided important insight into the fourth supplementary research question, where innovative mechanisms for voice and skills were identified across both countries from semi-structured interviews.

Similarly, regarding outcomes of work engagement and employee retention, longitudinal analysis of each organisation would have provided a more nuanced explanation. The researcher considered this methodology but, due to level of employee turnover in many 'high-end' hospitality organisations and the requirement for multiple visits within a busy industry, this was not considered feasible.

To fully encompass the 'specific skills' of vocational training and apprenticeships, this research could have included the apprenticeship system of Germany and

compare the three distinctive skills systems regarding engagement and retention. However, the apprenticeship programme for hospitality in Germany begins similarly (with broad skills) then job rotation as part of it, a desirable foundation for potential hotel chain managers (Finegold et al., 2000). It is also viewed as an extreme in terms of apprenticeships. There could also be grounds for incorporating the dualistic 'Danish' apprenticeship system, which arguably gains the best from both worlds.

While this research chose the examples of Sweden and Ireland as CME and LME examples (particularly due to their heterogeneity of collective voice and vocational training), in order to capture the essence of these, it would have been best to incorporate further VoC examples. These might have included the USA, to understand the extreme tipping culture as part of the HFLH LP, and the CMEs of Switzerland or France, renowned for their high levels of HFLH skill perception.

10.5 Implications of the Study

This section outlines the practical implications and then the theoretical implications of the thesis.

10.5.1 Practical Implications of the Study

Tourism is of strategic economic importance for many developed economies (Baum and Szivas, 2008) and policymakers need to refocus on the HFLH sector and creating an experience. HFLH must be promoted as a career along with skill development, skill recognition, career paths and progression options. In doing so, the tourism potential of increased repeat business, international visitors and customer spend can be realised. research focuses on the two HFLH areas considered particularly important for this sector. These two areas of analysis are voice mechanisms and skill learning systems and are examined as antecedents to sector-specific outcomes (work engagement and employee retention). This is, not only important for policy makers, but also for skill institutions, management, and HFLH employees.

Of considerable importance, are the limitations that both employers and national institutions are bound by regarding this atypical sector. There is the competitiveness of an economy's tourist offering to be maintained. This appears to be at odds with policy that might elevate HFLH as a more attractive sector for workers to develop careers in. This is especially so when HFLH, by its nature, provides much-needed

part-time employment which encompasses short-shift work (where long-term commitment is optional). This type of employment remains in high-demand, as students and those balancing family commitments find such employment particularly desirable. What it does, however, is undermine the skill development and association attempts of institutions and indeed collective voice institutions who seek to improve the meaningfulness of this type of work. While the VoC framework posits that institutional complementarity either accelerates or constrains actors actions, authors are beginning to question if certain sectors fit these national models at all (Doellgast, 2009).

The justification for such research is twofold. Firstly, there is a growing discourse on the negative outcomes of such precarious and atypical work, characterised by emotional demands, and non-standard work times, which are exacerbated within the flexibility of the 'high-end service' offering. To entice young people into this industry, it requires a more appealing skill-set to both employers and prospective employees. In providing career development and autonomy for HFLH employees, it might reduce the demands on middle management in larger organisations where they exist, whilst providing more meaningfulness and opportunity for HFLH employees. This research has highlighted the importance of individual voice in generating both work engagement and employee retention in such a demanding sector. Furthermore, it suggests that, whilst there are differences with regard to the depth of voice with regard to the organisational hierarchy and in the formal/informal nature, it is evident that direct voice with senior management, where possible, is particular important. Although the perception of the skill in this sector may be difficult to change in both contexts, other national examples such as France and Switzerland contain evidence that HFLH may indeed be perceived as a highly-esteemed vocation. Given that, within this research, many HFLH employee interviewees in Ireland cited recent luxury / 5-star hotel HFLH TV shows in Ireland and the U.K. as a source of identity, this evidence may provide building blocks for further efforts.

Secondly, from examining the HFLH sector across both national contexts, it is evident that there are challenges faced by both countries. Ireland, despite its shortage of HFLH workers, has no skill provision for specific skill provision; resources to the area are directed towards the much publicised chef shortage, instead (SOLAS, 2015). Similarly, from this research, it is evident that the specific training in Sweden is not

highly sought after by employers and, therefore, course demand and perception of courses reflects this. This research suggests that HFLH skill learning systems may need, to take account of the opportunity cost of undertaking such education, provide more tailored systems to management needs, and develop meaningful career options and pathways for personal development.

Regarding voice mechanisms, the importance of adequate scope or personal control within a sector that has alienating characteristics became apparent through interviews. Despite this, this thesis identified that within the sector of HFLH, both individual voice and collective voice mechanisms (even within the CME context of Sweden) might be undermined. Another important finding, with considerable implications for both management and HFLH employees, emerged from this research, relating to voice mechanisms. It was found that direct individual voice mechanisms with senior management are the most important, with regards to HFLH work engagement. From semi-structured interviews, undertaken in HFLH organisations across two countries, this research has identified potential new innovative voice mechanisms within HFLH to facilitate such direct voice opportunities. This may provide an impetus to revisit existing measures by Brewster et al. (2007) in sector-specific voice mechanisms for future research. Such sector-specific voice mechanisms reflect the unique characteristics of HFLH such as non-standard work times, moderation of EWOM voice from customers, and the often precarious 'zero-hour' contracts or 'extra-hour' contracts that permeate HFLH in Ireland and, to a lesser extent, Sweden.

Whilst this research focused specifically on HFLH, this research and its analysis may be applicable for front-line healthcare professionals such as healthcare receptionists. These often share many characteristics of HFLH, particularly non-standard work-hours, a culture of customers, along with considerable flexibility and emotional demands. General Practice (GP) receptionists act as gatekeepers for doctors, along with providing daily critical prioritisation duties (Hughes and McCann, 2003; Klassen and Rohleder, 1996). Similar to HFLH, these receptionists face a low-skill public perception and require considerable autonomy, discretion along with robust voice mechanisms.

10.5.2 Theoretical Implications of this Research

This research has numerous theoretical implications. Firstly, from using the LP perspective as a means of informing the HFLH employment relationship, this research provided the basis for this perspective to be used alongside comparative political economy. In doing so, it provided a critical and holistic account of how both theories might interact and it provided a foundation for further studies to develop this further. LP perspective concepts of management control, resistance, responsible autonomy, technology, alienation, and deskilling were critically examined with regard to HFLH, along with more recent concepts such as emotional labour process, mobility indeterminacy, and financialisation. This views the LP perspective in its current proficient form, which allows for responsible autonomy (Friedman, 1977; Burawoy, 1979; Lashley, 1998), which has distanced itself from Marxist class analysis (Thompson, 1990; Edwards, 1990) and with mobility power dynamics (Smith, 2006). This allows for its development alongside work engagement and employee retention viewpoints, which incorporates the interests of both management and employees. While recognising the mobility power as an important employee option (e.g. exit), this research focuses on work engagement as counteracting the alienating demands of HFLH. Furthermore, work engagement and employee retention are a key performance driver for these high-end hospitality organisations.

Three particular findings have theoretical implications supporting both the challenges and resources of the JD-R (Conway et al., 2015; Tims et al., 2013; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007) conditions of engagement. Firstly, with regard to 'responsible autonomy' (Friedman, 1977; Burawoy, 1979; Lashley, 1998), HFLH employee interviewees in both countries confirmed the importance (they felt *'safe'* and *'appreciated'*) of voice mechanisms to redress the balance of power between the customer on occasion. Secondly, with regards to responsible autonomy, management noted in interviews that each HFLH employee had distinct levels at which work engagement would optimally flourish. Each HFLH employee desired different levels of control. Finally, those studying for a different career were found to be more engaged than those who were not. This relates to the demands and challenge aspect of this theoretical framework.

Most importantly, this thesis provides 'connective tissue'. VoC institutionally explains either the accelerating or constraining spheres of inter-firm relations, corporate governance, vocational training and education, industrial relations and employees. However, VoC singly lacks the ability to capture the autonomy afforded to employees and resulting limits on employer control (Rubery, 2010, 505). Other authors note that by focusing on 'institutional determinism', VoC theory neglects the underlying power struggles and social classes (Deeg and Jackson, 2007; Hancké et al., 2008). Unsuccessful attempts with other potential theories (e.g. regulation theory) to partially explain these limitations have led authors (e.g. Thompson and Vincent, 2010) to suggest VoC as the most suitable to work with LP analysis. The basis for the 'VoC and LP synergy' lies in its ability to explore how macro-level institutions influence the employment relationship (Busemeyer and Jensen, 2012). More specifically, authors (Marsden, 1999; Rubery, 2010) suggest that 'institutionalising the employment relationship' help to resolve important control and skill formation difficulties.

In summary, this research was a theoretical progression for both the LP perspective and VoC framework. This synergy provided a rejuvenation for both theories and counteracted weaknesses in both theoretical perspectives, helped substantially by the considerable explanatory strengths of each framework.

10.6 Recommendations for Future Research

There is an opportunity to conduct comprehensive research regarding the effect of tipping culture within HFLH across comparative capitalist examples. Further developments of this research could encompass the LME HFLH environment of the U.S. This is despite recent examples involving high profile restauranteurs (e.g. Danny Meyer of Union Square Hospitality Group) trying to use their scale and profile to eliminate this discretionary part of the HFLH LP (Quelch and Boudreau, 2016). Future research might seek to investigate the increased complexity of tipping culture and the prominence of the ownership of this part of the HFLH LP across VoC dichotomy.

Recent work on work engagement by Garton and Mankins (2015) positions work engagement between the constructs of satisfaction (below) and inspiration (above). This suggests a hierarchical pyramid, similar to that of Maslow (1943), where

employees are satisfied based on basic safety and rewards and tools required for the job. They then may become engaged by being part of an extraordinary team and having autonomy and meaningfulness within their job. Finally, at the top of the pyramid, employees may become inspired employees in certain organisations such as those with an identifiable mission or charismatic leader. Many of the HFLH employee interviewees in Ireland when asked about the most important driver of work engagement is (where the interviewer explained exactly what work engagement is), responded "*working in an extraordinary team*". Further research into such a hierarchical model of worker motivation is needed.

Another area for future research may be the identity provided by HFLH skill competitions. This was an area being pursued by Swedish Trade Unions as a means of generating identity and meaningfulness within HFLH. Whilst this differs considerably from the vocational training model of skill formation, which typically takes place before employment in Sweden, it provides an important source of on-the-job learning within HFLH. Research to establish whether this, and potentially other such skill mechanisms, might lead to HFLH work engagement is one of the main recommendations for future researchers. Indeed, it might be an 'employee–led' means of associating skills with the HFLH LP while providing up-skilling opportunities and social cohesion from interacting with competitors. Following searches on Scopus, the researcher is not aware of any existing research in this area.

This research focused on potential antecedents to work engagement and employee retention. A further area that could be developed within HFLH examining the outcomes of these key performance drivers. Research by Karatepe (2013) focused on extra-role behaviours as an outcome of engaged HFLH employees. Not only does its ability lie in its direct contribution to organisational performance (through upselling) or to strengthen important client relationships, these outcomes are also particularly applicable outside HFLH. Other examples that this could be applied to include general practitioners, and retail employees from banking to clothing, particularly within high-end or luxury goods sphere, which could all considerably benefit from engaged employees.

Another area being revisited in recent years (Lin et al., 2017) in the HFLH sector is empowerment. Empowerment is a particularly important management intervention for high-end hospitality sector (Jones et al., 1997). While voice mechanisms remain

multifaceted (such as articulation of individual dissatisfaction and co-operative relations (Dundon et al., 2004), they may encompass empowerment through autonomy. Future research could explore voice mechanisms for their empowerment properties. Whilst the qualitative data from this research suggested direct control was concentrated among HFLH employees, evidence emerged of line managers who suffered too much empowerment. Between line managers and HFLH employees, the rebalancing of wage levels, remuneration, span of control and autonomy, personal control, and empowerment might provide a potential avenue for further exploration.

10.7 Summary and Conclusion

This research sought to investigate if voice mechanisms and skill learning systems affected employee retention and work engagement within HFLH work. From chapter 2, it began with an in-depth critical analysis of HFLH employment relationship and how LP explained its atypical characteristics. These included emotional labour, triangular relationship, erosion of identity and non-standard work times. This suitability of the LP perspective was explained further through analysis of the different service offerings with HFLH and how these were more demanding in the high-end. In examining LP, the research noted its shortcomings in the need for 'connective tissue' to link to the macro-institution configurations that shape the employment relationship. Through critical analysis of comparative critical economy, VoC was identified as the most suitable framework, to this end. This was due to its weak attempt at explaining the micro-processes in the employment relationship. This sees VoC as more compatible than other comparative capitalism frameworks which have stronger yet inadequate attempts at capturing.

Through understanding the 'waves' of analysis of the somewhat fragmented LP perspective alongside VoC, areas of analysis are chosen to help inform the analysis of the HFLH employment relationship. These areas for analysis within the HFLH sector's employment relationship were proposed to be voice mechanisms and skill learning systems.

Voice mechanisms, the first area for analysis, are derived from the LP's second wave propositions of scope, responsibility autonomy or personal control. Such voice mechanisms are considered as particularly important in noting the complexities of the HFLH employment relationship. This often involves control movements, which

often interchange between management and the customer. This analysis is paralleled with the spheres of the VoC framework: *'industrial relations and employees'* and VoC's prominence as a utility to assess voice under its individual and collective dimensions.

Skill learning systems, the second area for analysis, are derived from an analysis of HFLH and LP control movements from workers to management through deskilling and '*dissociation of the LP from the skills of the worker*' (Braverman, 1974). This is then paralleled with VoC logic, which categorises market economy differences into either specific or general skill provisions. This insight is particularly important to HFLH where the public perception of it as a low-skill profession is often exacerbated by degrading terms such as 'runners' and the presence of the tipping culture.

Chapter 3 continues by proposing outcomes of work engagement and employee retention to counteract both the alienating characteristics and turnover culture of HFLH. It then seeks to investigate voice mechanisms and skill systems as potential antecedents to engagement and retention within HFLH.

This thesis contributes to knowledge in five areas.

- Firstly, this thesis follow the call for a durable model of *'connective tissue'* by Thompson and Vincent (2010) and Hauptmeier and Vidal (2014) between the LP perspective and broader comparative political economy. To this end, it builds a sector specific conceptual model, using both LP analysis and the VoC framework, with both informing the employment relationship.
- Secondly, this research provides crucial sectoral discourse to VoC analysis which, along with many comparative capitalist frameworks, has neglected the sectordue to a national focus. This is despite most co-ordination taking place at sectoral level (Bechter et al., 2012).
- Thirdly, this thesis contributes to the theoretical lacuna by comparing differences in skill learning system acquisition (general and specific) and voice mechanisms (individual and collective) and their influence on work engagement. Although the findings yielded no significant differences between skill systems, other related variables showed significant correlation. HFLH employees who perceived themselves to be still in hospitality within 3 to 5 years' time were more engaged in their work than those who did not.

Other statistically significant positive relationships included those studying for a different occupation while working in hospitality. Voice mechanism implications were also discussed. Collective voice mechanisms were found to be negatively related to work engagement yet positively related to employee retention. This may be due to the nature of such voices and due to more secure employment conditions associated with collective agreements. However, a positive and robust relationship was found between individual voice mechanisms and work engagement. Here, differences were found between the Swedish sample who preferred more formal mechanisms and the Irish sample who preferred more direct informal voice with management.

- The fourth contribution of this thesis relates to its identification of new voice mechanisms and skill learning systems being utilised within HFLH across different market economies. In conducting semi-structured interviews across a cross-cultural sample of 'high-end' hospitality organisations, this research was able to identify best practice examples, along with innovative, sector-specific mechanisms. These, which were identified with regard to work engagement and employee retention practices, provided important theoretical and practical implications for this atypical type of work.
- Finally, this thesis crafted a joined-up discourse, whereby the LP and VoC analysis were used to understand the questionnaire results further. This was possible through the sequential explanatory design methodology, which involved interviews with different stakeholders across both the macro institutions and the micro process of the workplace. Sectoral change within hospitality were discussed and the effects of pressures, such as financialisation, autonomy differences in relation to hierarchical structures and dissociation of the LP from the skills of the worker, were discussed. HFLH employees and their trade union described the widespread hiring of aesthetic labour over skilled labour in the HFLH in Sweden. Furthermore, competitive pressures from technological change (e.g. online booking platforms and EWOM), resulting in further deskilling for receptionists, were also discussed. The importance of effective voice mechanisms within the 'triangular relationship' of HFLH surfaced during stakeholder interviews, with many employees speaking of the importance of 'positive voice' for work engagement.

Overall this thesis provided important theoretical and empirical contributions, exploring the 'connective tissue' between two theoretical frameworks, using these to both understand and examine HFLH and noting its particular and complex characteristics. In doing so, it also contributed important sectoral knowledge in examining the HFLH employment relationship, from capturing the dynamics of the micro-process, to the macro-institutional forces shaping this relationship.

APPENDICES

10.7.1 Appendix A - Collective and Individual Voice Measures (Brewster et al., 2007)

1. Communication through TU or WC/JCC

2. Communication through workforce meetings
3. Communication through team briefings
4. Communication through suggestion scheme
5. Communication through attitude surveys

10.7.2 Appendix B - Work Engagement (UWES-17) Schaufeli et al. (2002)

17 item Utreacht Work Enthusiasm Scale by Schaufeli et al. (2002)

*** 9 item Utreacht Work Enthusiasm (UWES-9) Scale by Schaufeli et al. (2006)**

VI= vigor: DE = dedication: AB = absorption

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy* (VI1)
2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose (DE1)
3. Time flies when I'm working (AB1)
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (VI2)*
5. I am enthusiastic about my job (DE2)*
6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me (AB2)
7. My job inspires me (DE3)*
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (VI3)*
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely (AB3)*
10. I am proud on the work that I do (DE4)*
11. I am immersed in my work (AB4)*
12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time (VI4)
13. To me, my job is challenging (DE5)
14. I get carried away when I'm working (AB5)*
15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally (VI5)
16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job (AB6)
17. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well (VI6)

10.7.3Appendix C - Revenue Renewed Liquor License Register 2015

Row Labels	Count of Licensee Name
National Concert Hall Licence	1
National Conference Centre Licence	1
National Cultural Institutions Licence	4
National Sporting Arena Licence	7
Passenger Aircraft Licence	4
Publican's Licence (6-Day & Early Closing)	2
Publican's Licence (6-Day)	8
Publican's Licence (7-Day Ordinary)	6,974
Publican's Licence (ordinary) - Holiday Camp	1
Publican's Licence (ordinary) - Theatre	116
Publican's Licence (Ordinary) Greyhound Racetrack	15
Publican's Licence (ordinary) Horse Racecourse	22
Publican's Licence (Ordinary) Hotel - 1902 Act (Public Bar)	55
Publican's Licence (Ordinary) Hotel - 1902 Act. (Resident's Bar)	8
Publican's Licence (Ordinary) Hotel - BF - 1902 Act (Public Bar)	480
Publican's Licence (Ordinary) Hotel - BF - 1902 Act (Resident's Bar)	64
Grand Total	**7,762**

(Source Revenue license Revenue - pivot table applied)

10.7.4Appendix D – Review of Existing Frontline Hospitality Research

Authors	No of res.	Location	No of orgs.	Journal	Type	
Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2011)	279	South Norway Regional	Not specified	Managing Service Quality (1)	Frontline Hotels and Restaurants	Questionnaires -
Shani et al. (2014)	35	Israel	Not specified - "variety of org's"	International Journal of Hospitality Management (2)	Frontline hotel, restaurant, airline etc.	Qualitative (70-90 min interviews) Emotional Labour and contextual factors
Karatepe (2013)	110 usable of 123	Poiana Brasov region of Romania	Not specified	International Journal of Hospitality Management (2)	Frontline hotel employees in Ankara, Turkey	Self-administered the questionnaires HPWP, Job Resources Emotional Dissonance and Burnout
Peccei and Rosenthal (2000)	667 from a total of 2000	UK	7 Retail Units	International Journal of Human Resource Management (3)	Frontline **Retail** – Top 3 UK Retail included shelving staff, cleaning	Questionnaires -
Devine et al. (2007)	82	Northern Ireland	9 Hotels	International Journal of Human Resource Management (3)	General hospitality not just frontline	Questionnaires investigating cultural diversity in hospitality
Karatepe et al. (2006)	448 from 851 delivered	Northern Cyprus	Not specified	Tourism Management (4)	Frontline employees in 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels in Northern Cyprus	Questionnaires - delivered and collected at a later date. The effects of selected individual characteristics on frontline employee performance and job satisfaction
Grandey et al. (2005)	191 - 101 from the US and 90 from France	USA and France	Not specified	Journal of Applied Psychology (4)	Frontline employees (did not use restaurants due to US tipping culture)	Questionnaires - Emotional regulation Personal Control /Autonomy and emotional culture

						in Emotional Labour
Salanova et al. (2005a)	342	Not specified	114 service units (58 hotel front desks and 56 restaurants)	Journal of Applied Psychology (4)	Front line hotel and restaurant employees	Questionnaires - 'Linking Organizational Resources and Work Engagement to Employee Performance and Customer Loyalty: The Mediation of Service Climate'
Warhurst and Nickson (2007)	207 returned from 324 distributed	Three Glasgow based universities	Not specified	Work Employment and Society (4)	Students working in Retail or Hospitality	Questionnaires - Recruitment and Selection - Image and appearance with regard to emotional labour
Boles and Babin (1996)	111	South-east USA	Not specified	Journal of Business Research (3)	Frontline mid-level restaurant employees	Delivered postage paid questionnaires.

10.7.5Appendix E - Total population analyses of Front-line Hospitality

	Sweden	Ireland
Accommodation and food service activities (I) Q1 2015	150k (Arbetsförmedlingen (2015)	132.3k (CSO, 2015)
Total frontline population of restaurants and bars (incl. hotel bars).	24.997 establishments 88.878 employees Statistics Sweden 2013 NACE Code 56) **restaurants, catering establishments, bars**	7.762 (Revenue 2015) * 7 = 46,572 employees
Total frontline population of Café employees	Included above	
Total frontline population of hotels	798 * 25 = 19,950 Star hotels 31,113 incl. holiday villages and lodging facilities Statistics Sweden 2013 NACE Code 55 **hotels, holiday villages, youth hostels, holiday cottages, camping sites etc.**	507 * 25 = 12,675

Notes 1: Accommodation Capacity in Ireland (2015) , Fáilte Ireland (2015)

Note 2: Arbetsmarknadsutsikternavåren 2015 Arbetsförmedlingen (2015)

10.7.6 Appendix F – HFLH population analysis (2015 Figures)

	Sweden '000	**Ireland '000**
Accommodation and food service activities (I) Q1 2015	150.0 (Arbetsförmedlingen (2015)	132.3 (CSO, 2015)
Hotels		
4 Star Hotels	**279**	**201**
5 Star Hotels	**35**	**5**
3 Star Hotels	**341**	**289**
2 Star Hotels	**113**	**12**
1 Star Hotels	**30**	**0**
Totals	**798**	**507**
Georgina Campbell		**200 Hotels**
HFLH Employees (4 & 5 Star)	**= 314 * 25 = 7,850**	**= 206 * 25 = 5,150**
Restaurants and Bars		
Michelin Guide	134 Recommended Restaurants	340 Bib Gourmond (including bars)
Tourism Ireland / Discover Ireland (Official Tourism)		140 Recommended
Visit Sweden (Official Tourism)	130 Recommended pubs and bars	
White Guide (Total recommended incl cafes 938)	124 Fine Dining Restaurants 609 Recommended -	
HFLH employees	**609 * 6 = 3,654**	**340 * 6 = 2,040**
Cafes		
White Guide Café - Recommended	329	
Georgina Campbell - Recommended		177
Totals	**329 * 4 = 1,304**	**177 * 4= 708**
Estimated totals HFLH employees	**12,808**	**7,898**

Note 3: Advised by email by Statistics Sweden that due to strict alcohol regulation, it is not possible to serve alcohol without food being available on the premises. Therefore, all bars (Nace code 56.3) are classified as restaurants.

10.7.7Appendix G - Questionnaire Mapping

Construct	Measure	Notes	Questionnaire
Engagement	Work Engagement (UWES-9) Schaufeli et al. (2006)	Vigour Dedication Absorption	1a-1i
Voice Mechanisms	Collective and Individual Voice Measures adapted from Brewster et al. (2007)	Collective Voice Mechanisms	2c – 2e 2g
		Individual Voice Mechanisms	2a 2b **Formal Voice** 2f **Informal Voice** 2g – 2j

SECTION 1 – PLEASE TICK THE BOX THAT BEST DESCRIBES YOU

Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐

Age: 16-17 ☐ 18-24 ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64 ☐ 65+ ☐

Industry: Hotel ☐ Restaurant ☐ Bar ☐ Café ☐

Work-status: Full-time ☐ Part-time ☐ Contract ☐

Do you expect to be working in hospitality in 3 to 5 years time? Yes ☐ No ☐

Are you studying for a different occupation while working in hospitality? Yes ☐ No ☐

Is there a trade union (facket) at this workplace? Yes ☐ No ☐

Are you a member of a trade union (facket)? Yes ☐ No ☐

How many years have you worked in this occupation?

< 1 year ☐ 1 - 2 years ☐ 2 - 5 years ☐ 5 - 10 years ☐ Over 10 years ☐

Please indicate the highest level of academic qualifications you have received – tick all that apply

Junior Cert / Grundskola ☐ Vocational Training / Leaving Cert / Gymnasieskolan ☐ Degree / Högskola ☐ Postgraduate ☐

Please indicate the main source of skills for your current job – tick all that apply

Vocational Training/ Gymnasieskolan ☐ Certified Apprenticeship ☐ On The Job Training at this company ☐

Work-experience in a different company ☐ Other ☐ please specify _____

How well do the work skills you personally have match the skills you need to do your present job?

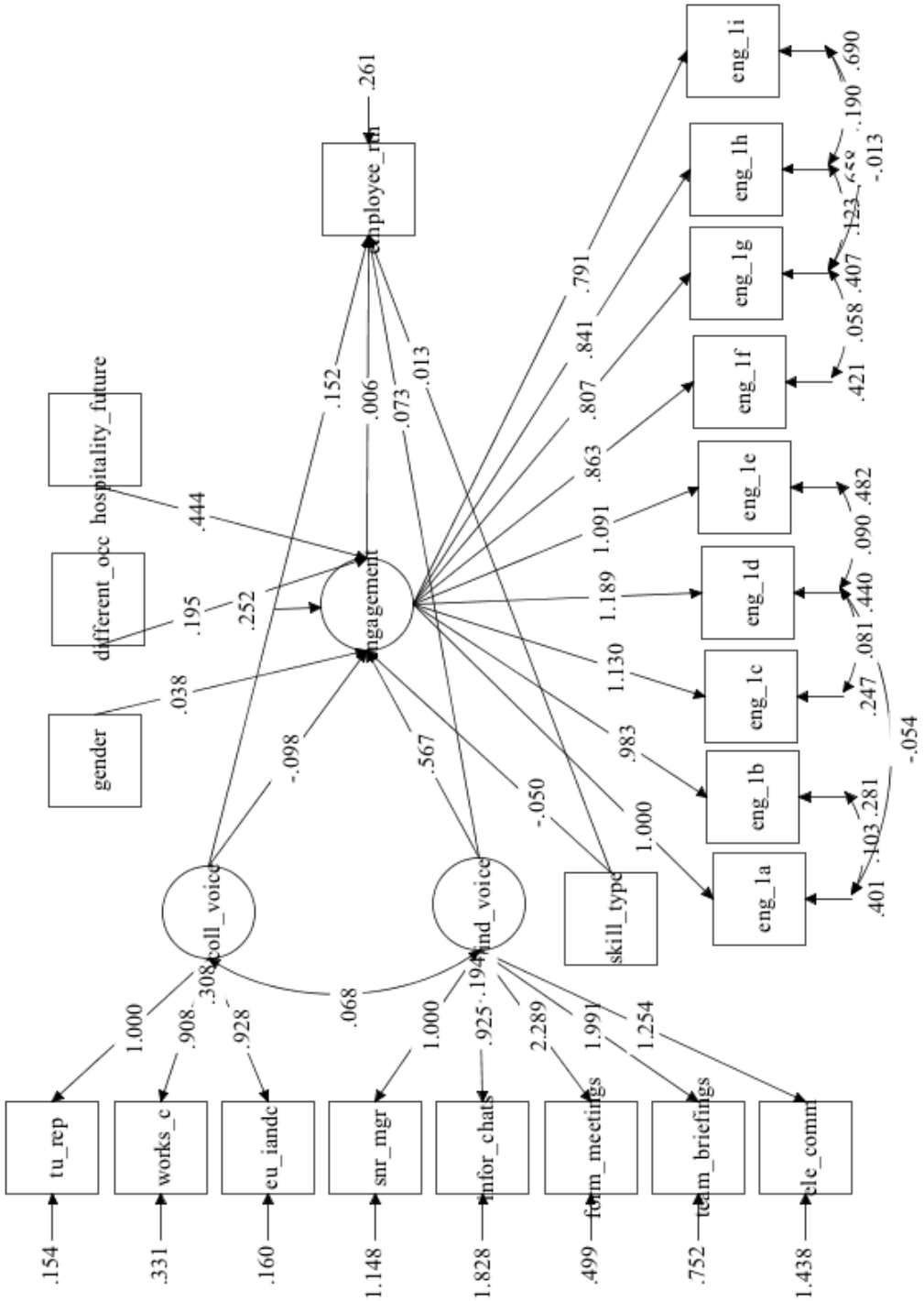
Much higher ☐ A bit higher ☐ About the same ☐ A bit lower ☐ Much lower ☐

	SECTION 2 – PLEASE CIRCLE THE RESPONSE THAT BEST CHARACTERISES HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT EACH STATEMENT	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1a	At my work, I feel bursting with energy	1	2	3	4	5
1b	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	1	2	3	4	5
1c	I am enthusiastic about my job	1	2	3	4	5
1d	My job inspires me	1	2	3	4	5
1e	When I wake up in the morning, I feel like going to work	1	2	3	4	5
1f	I feel happy when I am working intensely	1	2	3	4	5
1g	I am proud of the work I do	1	2	3	4	5
1h	I am immersed in my work	1	2	3	4	5
1i	I get carried away when I am working	1	2	3	4	5
	SECTION 3 – PLEASE CIRCLE THE EXTENT TO WHICH YOU COMMUNICATE YOUR VIEWS TO MANAGEMENT	Never	Very Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
2a	Direct to senior managers	1	2	3	4	5
2b	Through immediate superior	1	2	3	4	5
2c	Through trade union (facket) representatives	1	2	3	4	5
2d	Through works councils (företagsråd) (formal group representing employees in discussions with employers)	1	2	3	4	5
2e	Through the EU Information and Consultation (I&C) Directive	1	2	3	4	5
2f	Through regular informal chats	1	2	3	4	5
2g	Through regular formal meetings	1	2	3	4	5
2h	Team briefings	1	2	3	4	5
2i	Suggestion schemes	1	2	3	4	5
2j	Electronic communication	1	2	3	4	5

10.7.8Appendix H -Normality

SPSS Distribution for Engagement and Voice	**Skewness**	Std. Error of Skewness	**Kurtosis**	Std. Error of Kurtosis
Ireland-Sweden	0	0.149	-2.015	0.297
Gender	-0.242	0.149	-1.956	0.297
Age	0.071	0.149	-1.33	0.297
Industry	1.099	0.149	0.656	0.297
Work Status	1.097	0.149	0.215	0.297
Tenure Hospitality	0.735	0.149	-1.471	0.297
Different Occupation	-1.028	0.149	-0.95	0.297
Trade Union Present	-0.629	0.149	-1.616	0.297
Trade Union Member	-2.023	0.149	3.083	0.297
Occupation Tenure	0.174	0.149	-1.024	0.297
Highest Qualification	0.182	0.149	-0.075	0.297
Main source of skills for job	0.405	0.149	-0.998	0.297
Personal Skills to role skills	0.093	0.149	-0.082	0.297
Voice ... to Senior Manager	-0.66	0.149	-0.292	0.297
Voice ... Immediate Superior	-0.737	0.149	-0.213	0.297
Voice … Trade Union Reps	3.383	0.149	12.099	0.297
Voice ... Works Council Reps	2.765	0.149	7.527	0.297
Voice … through the EU I&C	3.484	0.149	12.405	0.297
Voice ... informal chats	-0.084	0.149	-1.329	0.297
Voice ... formal meetings	0.122	0.149	-0.979	0.297
Voice …. team briefings	-0.194	0.149	-0.895	0.297
Voice ... suggestion schemes	0.522	0.149	-0.969	0.297
Voice ... e-communication	-0.034	0.149	-1.117	0.297
Engagement - Vigour	-0.54	0.149	0.25	0.297
Engagement - Vigour	-0.394	0.149	-0.121	0.297
Engagement - Dedication	-1.147	0.149	1.97	0.297
Engagement - Dedication	-0.65	0.149	0.273	0.297
Engagement - Vigour	-0.611	0.149	0.047	0.297
Engagement - Absorption	-0.68	0.149	0.245	0.297
Engagement - Dedication	-1.281	0.149	2.792	0.297
Engagement - Absorption	-0.638	0.149	0.257	0.297
Engagement – Absorption	0.03	0.149	-0.532	0.297

10.7.9 Appendix I - Mplus Diagrammer 1.4 Output STDYX Estimates



10.7.10 Appendix J - Template of Interview Questions

HFLH Employees (7 x Ireland and 7 x Sweden)

1. What type of hospitality business do you work in? Hotel Café, Restaurant, Bar…
2. Have you worked long in the hospitality?
3. Have you received any specific training with regard to hospitality?

Voice Mechanisms

4. How much of 'a say' do you have in how the business is done?
5. What are the main conditions contributing to effective voice within hospitality?
6. What are the main barriers to effective voice within HFLH? How could these be improved?
7. Are the views that you communicate to management, considered?
8. How do you arrange working-time, hours, rosters? Is it through collective voice (agreements) or individual voice?
9. Would you describe the main of the communication with management as informal or formal?

Mobility Power

10. Is it expected that frontline hospitality workers move company often in the industry?
11. Is leaving a company for another hospitality company the usual strategy for a disengaged frontline hospitality employee?

Vocational Training employees

12. Does the vocational training that you received along with your colleagues provide a source of collective identity, meaningfulness and safety within hospitality?
13. Are your main group of friends / social group working in the hospitality industry also?
14. Do you find that having other similarly qualified colleagues (e.g. vocational training) adds to the meaningfulness and identity at work?
15. Does it make you proud having qualified / achieved a certified /authoritatively endorsed skill within hospitality?

16. Would you prefer the option of having a more general skills base that would allow you to work outside the area of hospitality or more management skills?

General Education employees

17. Would you feel more connected to your job if your training was more specific to your occupation?
18. Do you prefer having a skills base that allows for options to work in different industries? (rather than specific narrow focused skills)?
19. Does the public perceive that with your qualifications that you are over-skilled for your job?
20. Do you feel the need to supplement the general skills with on the job training or work experience in a different company to match the skills of the frontline hospitality workplace?

HFLH Managers (7 x Sweden, 8 x Ireland)

21. What type of hospitality business do you work in? Hotel Café, Restaurant, Bar…
22. Is it difficult at the moment to recruit HFLH employees?
23. Does language competency constrain much of the recruitment options for hospitality?

Voice

24. What is the organisation's approach to individual and collective employee voice?
25. What are the main types of communication between employees and management within the company?
26. Are there any specific regulations or agreements with regard to voice this company?
27. Has voice contributed to the decision making and strategic direction of the organisation? CIT example…
28. Does voice lead to ideas and solutions to problems for the organisation? Example
29. Does voice improve operational effectiveness within your organisation?
30. What is the level of autonomy provided to employees. Do they seek more responsibility? CIT example

31. **Meetings** What are the usual issues discussed through formal meetings with employees?
32. What are the usual issues discussed though collective voice mechanisms? (if such mechanisms exist)?
33. Are there any formal meetings with frontline employees to facilitation communication?
34. Does voice usually take place informally through chats?
35. Does the company inform employees by way of newsletter, email, noticeboards, attitude surveys, etc.?
36. Is much of the voice a means of correcting the imbalance between employees and difficult customers within the service encounter?

Skills

37. What are your main recruitment requirements (skill background and type) with regard to HFLH employees and skill types?
38. What skills could be further developed with regard to the programmes delivered by skills institutions?
39. Is there a demand for increased skills in general from employees or continuous training?
40. **VT** What are the main advantages/disadvantages of vocational training for the hospitality industry?
41. Is there an increased source of identity and meaningfulness derived the cohesion from frontline hospitality employees with specific vocational skills?
42. Do you engage regularly with hospitality employer associations to co-ordinate with skills institutions and the programmes they provide?
43. Would more of a balance with regard to vocational training and apprenticeship training be more preferable? Why?
44. How important is it to you when hiring HFLH employees that they have 'on-the job experience' or 'work experience in a different company?
45. Does Union voice allow for any other involvement rather than collective bargaining relating to wage and scheduling?
46. Explain the forms of communication within this hospitality organisation.
47. What are the skills mix (portion of general education, specific skills) within the organisations and what is the typical ongoing training strategy?
48. What is the main means of ensuring employee retention within the organisation?

49. How do management go about creating an engaged frontline employee workforce?
50.

Collective Voice and Trade Unions / Skill Institutions / Financial Institutions / Employer Associations

Trade Unions across Ireland (possibly Mandate in Ireland) and Sweden (Hotel and Restaurant Workers' Union (HRF) and the Hotel and Restaurant Employers' Association (SHR)). If possible, someone within a financial institution who can comment on the changes over decades within Ireland.

Skills Institutions

51. Describe the process of co-ordination with regard to hospitality organisations, employer associations and skills institutions with regard to developing the most suitable skill programmes for hospitality?
52. What are the main hospitality organisations (hotels, restaurants, that hire employees that source employees trained through vocational system?
53. Has the financialisation of a considerable portion of the hospitality industry (give examples) led to a reduction in demand for skilled employees? Has there been division of labour as a result? (e.g. runners)
54. What is the scope of this skills institution and its types skills (are these it bound by geographic location or type of organisation?) Does regional training differ to training within large urban centres?
55. Which organisations prefer authoritatively endorsed skills? Are there any trends worth noting?
56. For skill programme development. Do you often engage directly with hospitality organisations/chains or is it usually through employer associations concerning the particular hospitality type?
57. Is it difficult to co-ordinate the skill programmes to suit the needs of hospitality organisations given the diverse range of hospitality?
58. Are there links or structure to further or build on the basic vocational skills? (with regard to general skills (e.g management skills) or even more specific (e.g sommelier skills)
59. **Ireland TY** There are new linkages being developed which link hospitality programmes from the TY system? Explain how this process will work?

60. Do the requirements for skills for hospitality companies change often or have you noticed any major shifts in the requirements?

61. How much of a differential is there with regard to specifically 'skilled' HFLH employees versus 'general' skilled employees?

62. What are the main objectives of 'specific' training strategies?

63. Is there any scope within these 'specific' training and skill programmes to incorporate more of the 'general' skills allowing for progression to supervisory /management roles? Or do these remain as separate 'hospitality management' courses?

64. What is the main training strategy currently being employed with regard to the sector?

65. Are there specific locally agreed strategies to prevent poaching within 'high-end' hospitality similar to other specific industries where there is considerable firm specific (or on the job) training in addition to the vocational training?

Collective Voice Mechanisms - Unions

66. Can you please describe the coverage of unions within the Hospitality sector, their membership and typical member profile?

67. Describe the process of co-ordination between employer associations, hospitality HFLH employees and unions?

68. What are the usual issues raised through collective voice mechanisms?

69. Are you satisfied with the current type, amount and timeliness of communication with regard to collective voice in the hospitality industry?

70. Is there more of a focus from employers in creating an engaged workforce. (i.e. by reducing the demands of workers and increasing their resources…give examples)?

71. **Sweden** Can you give examples of how work engagement and meaningfulness is supported by unions within frontline hospitality?

72. Describe the difficulties in employee retention within HFLH and how union co-ordination strategies minimise these difficulties?

73. Does the transient portion (e.g. part-time university students) of many hospitality organisations workforce create barriers for collective voice of the long-term workers?

74. What are the main barriers experienced with regard to collective voice in hospitality compared with other industries?

75. What are the typical voice agreements in place between management and frontline hospitality employees?

76. Is there a demand for increased skills in general from employees or continuous training?

77. What are the main regulations that underlie these agreements?

78. Has the financialisation of a considerable portion of the hospitality industry (give examples) led to a reduction in demand for skilled employees? Has there been division of labour as a result? (e.g. runners) Has this had an impact on union membership?

79. Do the unions agree direct formal individual voice mechanisms such as formal meetings between employees and managers?

80. How do these agreements differ for 'high-end' organisations such as 4-star and 5-star hotels?

10.7.11 Appendix K - SEM - Mplus (Version 7.4 Mac) Syntax

```
Mplus VERSION 7.4 (Mac)
MUTHEN & MUTHEN
03/23/2017   6:40 PM

INPUT INSTRUCTIONS

  DATA: FILE IS V22.dat:
Variable: Names =
  Country
  Gender
  AGE
  INDUSTRY
  WORK_STATUS
  HOSPITALITY_FUTURE
  DIFFERENT_OCC
  TRADE_UNION
  TU_MEMBERSHIP
  OCCUPATION_LENGTH
  HIGHEST_QUALI
  MAIN_SKILL_SOURCES
  SKILL_MATCH
  SNR_MGR
  IMM_SUPR
  TU_REP
  WORKS_C
  EU_IANDC
  INFOR_CHATS
  FORM_MEETINGS
  TEAM_BRIEFINGS
  SUGGEST_SCHEMES
  ELE_COMM
  ENG_1a
  ENG_1b
  ENG_1c
  ENG_1d
  ENG_1e
  ENG_1f
  ENG_1g
  ENG_1h
  ENG_1i
  ORGID
  FULLTIME
  PARTTIME
  EMPTRN
  Skill_type
  Employee_Rtn
  Orgsize
  OJT
  VT
  WDC
  App
  A16to24
  A25to34
  A34above
  DirectVoice
  AvgDirVoiceMeetings:
```

```
Usevariables =
Gender
 HOSPITALITY_FUTURE
 DIFFERENT_OCC
 Skill_type
 SNR_MGR
 INFOR_CHATS
 FORM_MEETINGS
 TU_REP
 WORKS_C
 EU_IANDC
 TEAM_BRIEFINGS
 ELE_COMM
 ENG_1a
 ENG_1b
 ENG_1c
 ENG_1d
 ENG_1e
 ENG_1f
 ENG_1g
 ENG_1h
 ENG_1i
 Employee_Rtn:

 Missing are all (-999):
Cluster = Country:
Stratification = INDUSTRY:

 Analysis:
   Type = Complex:

   Model:
   Coll_Voice by
   TU_REP
   WORKS_C
   EU_IANDC:

   Ind_Voice by
   SNR_MGR
  INFOR_CHATS
  FORM_MEETINGS
   TEAM_BRIEFINGS
   ELE_COMM:

   ENG_1i WITH ENG_1g:
   ENG_1i WITH ENG_1h:
   ENG_1B WITH ENG_1A:
   ENG_1D WITH ENG_1A:
   ENG_1D WITH ENG_1C:
   ENG_1H WITH ENG_1G:
   ENG_1E WITH ENG_1D:
   ENG_1G WITH ENG_1F:
   ENG_1I WITH ENG_1C:

   Engagement on Skill_type:

   Engagement by
```

ENG_1a
ENG_1b
ENG_1c
ENG_1d
ENG_1e
ENG_1f
ENG_1g
ENG_1h
ENG_1i:

Engagement ON Coll_Voice:
Engagement ON Ind_Voice:
Employee_Rtn ON Engagement:
Employee_Rtn ON Ind_Voice:
Employee_Rtn ON Coll_Voice:
Employee_Rtn ON Skill_type:

ENGAGEMENT ON
HOSPITALITY_FUTURE
DIFFERENT_OCC
Gender:

Output:
Sampstat Stand MOD CINTERVAL MODINDICES (3):

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