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THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND
OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT ON WORK-RELATED
OUTCOMES: A STUDY OF KITCHEN EMPLOYEES IN THE
HOTEL INDUSTRY

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PhD

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

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THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF HOTEL AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

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OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT ON WORK-RELATED
OUTCOMES: A STUDY OF KITCHEN EMPLOYEES IN
THE HOTEL INDUSTRY**

LEUNG TSUI YAN

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

of

Doctor of Philosophy

February 2019

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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LEUNG TSUI YAN, VICKY

ABSTRACT

Catering service is a key element in the tourism and hospitality industry. Understanding employee commitments is an important tactic to retain and attract talents in this labor-intensive industry. Such commitments could be understood into two perspectives, namely, commitment with current organization and/ or occupation. This study aims to explore and analyze the impact of organizational commitment (ORC) and occupational commitment (OCC) on job-related outcomes, namely, job satisfaction (JS) and employee creative performance (ECP). This study also investigates the mediating effect of job satisfaction within the conceptual framework.

Both commitments could be further explored into sub-components which generate impacts on the work-related consequences. This study analyzed the relationship on the job outcomes, which was divided into seven main hypotheses with a total of sixteen sub-hypotheses. A quantitative method was applied to gauge and explore the two distinct employee commitments of kitchen employees. Based on solid literature review, a questionnaire was developed and followed by a pilot test to ensure readability. To ensure accessibility on employee commitments, the target samples were kitchen employees who had been working in a current organization and occupation for at least six months. The survey was distributed to the kitchen employees with all levels of positions who are either serving at a 4-star and 5-star hotel located in Mainland China. Upon data collection, 1,388 usable questionnaires were used for data analysis. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was employed to assess and validate the measurement constructs. After examining the constructs, all measurement constructs displayed a great result on convergent and divergent validity.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was then employed to examine the related hypotheses with direct effects by using AMOS, the results showed that nine out of eleven sub-hypotheses are supported, and one is partially supported. The results are summarized under five main hypotheses out of seven. (1) Affective organizational commitment (AORC) has a significant and positive impact on employee creative performance, whereas Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR) has an insignificant negative impact. (2) Positive associations between organizational commitment (AORC and RCOR) and job satisfaction are found. (3) Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) have a significant and positive relationship on employee creative performance, but a slightly significant impact was found from normative and continuance subtype (NOCC and COCC). (4) Affective and normative occupational commitment (AOCC and NOCC) have a positive association with job satisfaction, whereas a slightly significant impact from continuance-subtypes (COCC). (5) Job satisfaction is positively associated with employee creative performance.

When investigating the last two main hypotheses regarding the mediation effect of job satisfaction, Bootstrapping methods and Sobel testing were employed. Four out of five hypotheses were supported, and one is partially supported. (6) The impact of affective commitment under organizational commitment constructs (AORC) on employee creative performance (ECP) is partially mediated by job satisfaction. (7) Job satisfaction partially mediates the impact of all three components under occupational commitment on employee creative performance.

This study explored employee commitments with two perspectives, commitment to an organization and occupation, which contributes to current knowledge in the field of

hospitality and tourism literature. It also provides empirical findings on the impact of two distinct commitments, in terms of job satisfaction and employee creative performance in the context of food service sectors within 4-star and 5-star hotel properties. The sub-components under organizational and occupational commitment were also examined in particular. This study validates the measurement constructs of both employee commitment, job satisfaction and creative performance in the context of China's hospitality industry.

From a practical perspective, this study confirms that the sub-components of commitment could arouse or diminish employee job satisfaction and creative performance. These findings allow practitioners or human resource managers to allocate and reinforce their resources accordingly to shape an effective human resource system. Managerial employees are advised to be aware of their subordinates' or coworkers' commitment with a current organization and occupation, which in turn, can enhance employee satisfaction level and creative performance. Finally, managerial employees are recommended to facilitate their subordinates and teammates' career development, which is an effective way to mediate the relationship between employee commitments and creative performance.

Keywords: creative performance, job satisfaction, human resource management, kitchen employees, occupational commitment, organizational commitment

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
AOCC	Affective Occupational Commitment
AORC	Affective Organizational Commitment
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
COCC	Continuance Occupational Commitment
CORC	Continuance Organizational Commitment
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ECP	Employee Creative Performance
JS	Job Satisfaction
NOCC	Normative Occupational Commitment
NORC	Normative Organizational Commitment
OCC	Occupational Commitment
ORC	Organizational Commitment
RCOR	Retention Commitment to an Organization
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Chapter Introduction

This introductory chapter delivers related research background information on a present study, which covers an overview of the current catering industry in Mainland China, job descriptions on chef positions' hierarchy and the career path structure. The major issues and approaches in the existing literature on organizational commitment, occupational commitment, employee creative behaviors, and job satisfaction are outlined. Research gaps in studies on both commitments and employees' creativity are also discussed, followed by a proposed research model. An integrated conceptual model is proposed based upon a rationale for research in both organizational and occupational commitment along with creativity context in the hospitality industry. The proposed model is used to bring about the purpose of this study and the research questions. This chapter ends with a brief discussion on the significance of this study.

1.2. Research Background

Employee commitment has received great attention in the hotel and catering industry in recent years. Scholars have started to explore the antecedents and consequence of employee commitment in the hotel industry (Gunlu, Aksarayli, & Şahin Perçin, 2010; Kim, Choi, Borchgrevink, Knutson, & Cha, 2018). Commitment has raised the attention in research, mainly because of its importance to employees' job satisfaction, which would, in turn, influence job performance (Carmeli & Freund, 2004). The commitment could be identified into two similar concepts from different perspectives, i.e., committed to an

organization or an occupation. Both commitments refer to the relative strength of individual identification with and involved in the particular organization and occupation, respectively (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). They are a positive correlation, but they are distinct from each other.

There is a growing body of literature that recognizes the importance of employee organizational commitment in the hospitality industry (Choi, Tran, & Park, 2015; Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015; Kim et al., 2018; Kim & Brymer, 2011; Kim, Leong, & Lee, 2005), which has been extended in the region of Mainland China (He, Lai, & Lu, 2011; He, Li, & Lai, 2011). Both antecedents and consequences of employee commitment are essential indications for practitioners to establish human resources strategies. In the existing literature, different antecedents of employee organizational commitment have been mentioned, namely, managerial support (He, Lai, et al., 2011; He, Li, et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015; Li, Duverger, & Yu, 2018), coworker relationship (Li et al., 2018), work facilitation (He, Li, et al., 2011), leadership style (Choi et al., 2015; Kim & Brymer, 2011) and a high commitment human resource management system (Yousaf, Sanders, & Yustantio, 2016). The above studies provide insights for improvements to managers while arousing employee commitment with their workplace, in the hope that they would achieve better job satisfaction (Kuruüzüm, Ipekçi Çetin, & Irmak, 2009; Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007), higher work engagement (Choi et al., 2015) and less turnover intention (Kang et al., 2015). Although extensive research has carried out on an organizational commitment, no single study exists which explore the impact on organizational commitment on employee creative behaviors in the hotel and catering industry.

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in occupational commitment across the industries (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Mansfeld et al., 2010; Satoh et al., 2017). Scholars claimed that occupational commitment and organizational commitment are equally important because employees normally concerned themselves in the first place rather than their current organization. Occupational commitment is dissimilar to employment or organization. For instance, employees with a high level of occupational commitment might not have a strong commitment towards an organization. Literature suggests that the impact of occupational commitment arouses employee job satisfaction (Carmeli & Freund, 2004), their intention to stay in the industry (Satoh et al., 2017) and could reduce organizational turnover intention (Snape & Redman, 2003).

Both commitments could be further identified as three different forms, which are affective (want to stay), continuance (need to stay) and normative type (ought to stay) towards organization and occupation (Meyer et al., 1993). Each sub-component of employees' organizational and occupational commitment can be extremely valuable to organizations (Crant, 2000) and the industry as a whole. Existing literature mostly generates mixed results and inconsistent findings on the relationship between commitment and job outcomes (Ivtzan, Sorensen, & Halonen, 2013; Lee et al., 2000; Patiar & Wang, 2016). In the literature relating to commitment, affective, and normative subtype under organizational and occupational commitment are both positively associated with job satisfaction, while continuance commitment is negatively associated (Meyer et al., 1993). However, Carmeli and Freund (2004) found that continuance organizational commitment is positively associated with job satisfaction and could lead to a positive impact on job performance.

Moreover, researchers reported that normative subtype of organizational commitment dominates the effect and negatively impacts employees' intention to leave the company, whereas affective-subtype of occupational commitment is dominant and negatively associated with occupational turnover intention (Chang et al., 2007). These findings indicated that organizational and occupational commitment are distinguishable from each other into different forms. Lee et al. (2000) meta-analyzed the consequence of occupational commitment, indicated a positive relationship on performance. Be that as it may, which forms of occupational commitment dominate its impact is still unknown.

While it is clear that commitment is associated with individual and organizational outcomes, there are several important questions to be addressed. For instance, it is not clear whether commitment would increase performance through the impact of job satisfaction. Thus, it is essential to examine variables that mediate the relation between both commitments and job performance (Lee et al., 2000). In response to the gap, the researcher examined how job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and creativity, as well as occupational commitment and creative performance.

Another important issue unresolved in commitment research is to identify the relationship between creative-related performances in a hospitality context. With a rapid change in consumer behaviors, innovation is a vital strategy for organizations to satisfy customers and maintain their edges, especially for catering organizations in a competitive setting. According to existing literature, creativity research generally looks into a mixed sample of hospitality employees across departments. Although hospitality jobs are generally considered as a different job nature from others based on the resting time,

regular working shift and irregular working schedule (Wan and Chan, 2013), occupational differences within the industry were found between housekeeping, front office as well as food and beverage department (Robinson et al., 2016). Although employees from all departments share the common belief as work-life balance, distinct attitudinal differences were found among groups. For instances, food and beverage employees described their work as fun, exciting, and team-work oriented but stressful, which are considered as a form of job characteristics (Horng & Wang, 2003). While front office employees also reported stressful and challenging, they regarded their work as similar to white-collar. Thus, this study aims to study the impact of kitchen employee commitment on job outcome from the perspective of a food and beverage department within the hotel industry in Mainland China.

Food has always been crucial products for restaurants and hotel operations; they, therefore, rely heavily on employees' creativity, in particular, that of kitchen employees and chefs (Johnson, Surlmont, Nicod, & Revaz, 2005). "Creative ideas generate psychological and business benefits for both employees and the hotel industry as a whole" (Hon, Chan, & Lu, 2013, p. 416). Kitchen employees consider performing creatively using skills and knowledge as intrinsic work quality, which has a stronger association with turnover intention than poor working conditions (Robinson, 2005). As a result, the interesting question is whether commitment arouses or diminishes employees' creative performance. Employees who are highly committed to the organization and occupation may increase their motivation and involvement to perform creatively to achieve organizational success and personal goals for career development.

To summarize, it is important to examine the process by which organizational and occupational commitment leads to creative performance and to identify the mediating effect of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Furthermore, it is valuable to examine the causal relationships in the hotel and catering industry from the kitchen employees' perspective in the context of Mainland China.

1.3. Overview of the Catering Industry in Mainland China

In the past decade, the rapid economic growth of China also contributed to the development of the hotel and tourism industry. As one of the pillar industries, the tourism industry has been contributing much to economic growth and creating employment opportunities in China. There were 1.39 billion visitor arrivals in 2017, and as a result of that, the industry contributed nearly US\$1,234 billion to China economy in 2017 (National Tourism Data Center, 2018, February 6) which included 58 million US dollars of the catering revenue contribution. Food has always been an essential component of the tourism experience. According to China Cuisine Association, with 10.7% of growth in the catering business, the catering industry is predicted to be over 5 trillion RMB (75 million US dollars) revenue in 2020 (Sun, 2018, January 15). The number of restaurants dramatically rose from 23,390 in 2012 to 26,359 in 2016 (China Industrial Research Institute, 2018, April), which also augmented employment opportunities. The number of employees in the accommodation and food service sector for both the front and back of the house is 2.21 million more than that in 2016 (China Industrial Research Institute, 2018, April). The figure does not show the breakdown of each job category; however, the

researcher could imagine the percentage of employees in a highly competitive food service sector.

With reference to the trend, the hotel and catering industry is facing a challenge in recruiting newcomers and retaining talent. According to the industry report from Ministry of Commerce (2017), the turnover rate for restaurants in preceding years are higher than 15%, and the situation is even worse for the fast-food industry, with a turnover rate of more than 40%. The statistics indicate manpower in poverty as a challenge for the foodservice sectors in the region (Siu, 2015). Provided that creativity is one of the key factors for survival and long-term success, catering organizations are facing challenges in providing innovative products to customers. Although this study does not attempt to confront the problem of high turnover rate, it aims to explore the relationship between employee commitment and their potential job outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and creative performance) to provide recommendations for shaping human resource strategies to enhance employee creative performance and prevent turnover intention.

1.4. Cultural Background of Mainland China

According to the national culture score of Hofstede (2012), the culture of China is characterized as high power distance, collectivism, high masculinity, low uncertainty avoidance, high long term orientation, and low indulgence. In a highly collectivist culture, people tend to act in the interests of the group and not necessarily of themselves. As per Baumann, Hamin, Tung, and Hoadley (2016), East Asian value is heavily influenced by Confucianism, which places much emphasis on harmony working environment, hard work and preserving the welfare of others. Employee commitment, such as continuance

commitment with an organization, has been associated with increased role conflict and work-family conflict (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). China is similar to India in that hospitality employees there perceived their family interfering with their work roles indicated a lower job satisfaction and such a relationship could be strengthened through a higher affective commitment on their organization (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007). Besides, managerial support and work facilitation are two important predictors to arouse affective organizational commitment in the region (He, Li, et al., 2011). He, Lai, et al. (2011) further explored employee commitment in China's hospitality industry, and they found hotel employees who have a higher emotional attachment with an organization tend to have a higher sense of obligation to stay in their current organization. They further discuss that the influence of the Chinese cultural value of harmony.

Baumann et al. (2016) argued that research on employee performance in a Western setting could not be fully applied in Asian countries that have a different social and cultural norm. Kim et al. (2018) studied and compared hotel employee behavior on job satisfaction and affective commitment between the United States and China. They found the impact of team member exchange has a greater impact on employee job satisfaction and commitment in the United States than the employees in China. Besides, employee voice had a greater impact in the Chinese sample in arousing their satisfaction and commitment level. This further emphasized that employee behavior might be different across countries with different culture settings.

1.5. Career Path of Kitchen Employees in The Catering Industry

There are two important ways to start a career in the kitchen, learning skills through a master-apprentice approach or education. The traditional way was to have the apprentice receive on-the-job training educated by a mentor or senior chef. The master-apprentice approaches have a long history as a method to transfer the knowledge, skills, and experiences to protégés (Kram, 1983; Stierand, Dörfler, & MacBryde, 2014), especially in the hospitality and catering industry. Most of the current kitchen employees have gone through the mentioned master-apprentice process to achieve accumulated working experience in an interpersonal relationship (Stierand, Dörfler, & Lynch, 2008).

The second path is to study relevant hospitality and catering courses before full-time work. In the late 1950s, China was facing a shortage of skilled workers during rapid industrialization. In response to the issues, the government decided to augment the provision of vocational education for youngsters. The specific curriculum was a bridge between industry and education to foster talent by teaching the specialized knowledge and skills. After being nurtured by the professional instructors, the graduates are qualified to work as a commis (junior cook with basic knowledge) instead of apprentices (trainees). A wide range of culinary programs are available in high school and college or even in university in China, Asia, or around the world. However, there is still no exception for graduates to jump into any mid-position as management employees, even if they are graduates from universities. The industry still relies heavily on employees' working experience rather than educational qualifications. Table 1.1 and 1.2 further shows the career path for chefs from top to bottom for non-Chinese and Chinese restaurants (Vocational Training Council, 2015).

Table 1.1 Brief Descriptions on the Hierarchy of Kitchen Employee Positions in Non-Chinese Restaurants

Levels	Positions		Brief Job Descriptions
	Restaurants	Hotels	
Managerial Level	Executive Chef	Executive Chef	The leader in charge of everything that goes out of the kitchen and maintains full control of the kitchen staff. They require strong management and customer service skills, as well as creativity and good hygiene.
		Executive Sous Chef	In partnership with the executive chefs to lead the staff and managing all food related function or outlets. This position is common in large restaurant groups or hotel properties.
	Chef de Cuisine	Chef de Cuisine	To oversee all activities related to a kitchen in a restaurant, including menu creation, plating design, staff management, ordering, and purchasing of inventory.
	Specialty Chef		Specialty chef (e.g., Japanese, Thai, Indian, Vietnamese, Korean, Singaporean and Malaysian cuisine) is the in-charge of preparing Asian cuisine.
	Pastry Chef		Supervise pastry cooks in the preparation of all dessert product and maintain quality and hygiene standard.
	Sous Chef	Sous Chef	The second in command in a kitchen. They supervise staff in the kitchen to smoothen the operation process and maintain food quality.
		Junior Sous Chefs	
Supervisory Level	Demi Chef/ Senior Cook	Chef de Partie	A chef de partie is a station chef or line cook, which is a chef in charge of a section of production in a restaurant. In a large restaurant, chef de partie might have several cooks to assist.
		Junior Chef de Partie	
Operational Level	Commis/ Junior Cook/ Pastry Cook	Commis/ Junior Cook/ Pastry Cook	To work under a chef de partie. They learn a specific station's responsibilities for operations. Junior cook is normally divided into two or three levels for promotion opportunities, from least experience (3) to most experience (1). The first commis should be able to fully understand the sections and oversee the rest of the commis.

Source: Vocational Training Council (2015)

Table 1.2 Brief Descriptions on the Hierarchy of Kitchen Employee Positions in Chinese Restaurant

Levels	Positions		Brief Job Descriptions
	Restaurants	Hotels	
Managerial Level	Executive Chinese Chef	Executive Chinese Chef	The leader in charge of everything that goes out of the kitchen and maintains full control of the kitchen staff. They require strong management and customer service skills, as well as creativity and good hygiene.
		Executive Chinese Sous Chef	In partnership with the executive chefs to lead the staff and managing all food related function or outlets. This position is common in large restaurant groups or hotel properties.
Supervisory Level	Chief Butcher		Assist executive chef for purchasing and preparing standard portions cut of ingredients (meat, poultry, and seafood)
	Seafood Butcher		Prepare fresh seafood and recommend cooking styles to customers.
	Second Butcher		Prepare ingredients for cooking.
	Chief Wok		Supervise the preparation of sauces, soup, and seasoning the dish. Mainly pan-fry duties.
	Chief Dim Sum Cook		Supervise the preparation of dim sum.
	Senior Cook/ Aboyeur/ General Cook		Handles the preparation of food and be responsible for steaming, broiling, and frying. Aboyeur is to coordinate with a front of house staff for sequence and timing of serving.
	Barbecue Cook		Responsible for preparing and serving barbecue meat platter.
	Specialty Chef		Specialty chef (e.g., Japanese, Thai, Indian, Vietnamese, Korean, Singaporean and Malaysian cuisine) is the in-charge of preparing Asian cuisine.
Operational Level	Dim Sum Fryer/ Steamer/ Dim Sum Cook		Prepare stuffing and dough for dim sum or noodle products.
	Pantry Cook/ Vegetable Cook		Supervise the preparation of the vegetable dish and administer sauce serving.
	Junior Cook/ Kitchen Helper		Assist the cooks in performing different duties in the kitchen.

Source: Vocational Training Council (2015)

1.6. Problem Statement

According to the creative literature, it is found that there has been a large pool of work focusing on stimulants or obstacles affect creativity by various individual features (Chang & Teng, 2017; Mansfeld et al., 2010; Shalley et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2014) and organizational issues (Amabile et al., 1996; Hou et al., 2011; Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2009; Semedo et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2014; Yeh & Huan, 2017) which are shown in Figure 1.1. Little discussion has been carried out on organizational commitment as antecedents of creativity, and there has been little research into exploring the relationship between occupational commitment and creative performance mediated by job satisfaction. Most of the previous studies highlighted the creative behavior of telecommunication, manufacturing, engineering, and design, but there was an absence of research studies on the occupation of kitchen employees involving creativity as one of the job characteristics.

Most recent literature on commitment studied organizational commitment in a particular form namely continuance commitment (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Zhou & George, 2001) and affective commitment (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Chang & Busser, 2017; Choi et al., 2015; Øgaard, Marnburg, & Larsen, 2008; Yousaf et al., 2016; Yousaf et al., 2015), they were shown in Figure 1.2, but there has been little comparison of their forms (Chang et al., 2007; Jafri, 2010). The findings are, therefore, inconclusive. Continuance commitment and coworker support were found to have an interaction effect with creativity and job dissatisfaction (Zhou & George, 2001). When both their continuance organizational commitment and coworker support are high, creativity and job dissatisfaction are positively associated. Affective and continuance type have positive and indirect effects on job performance, its relation are mediated by job satisfaction

(Carmeli & Freund, 2004), yet there is partial support by Jafri (2010) who found that affective and continuance commitments are positively and negatively associated with employee innovative behavior respectively. This indicates a need to understand the linkage of each sub-component of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and creative performance, especially in the hospitality industry.

Although three forms of occupational commitment have raised the research attention (Mansfeld et al., 2010; Satoh et al., 2017; Snape et al., 2008; Snape & Redman, 2003), affective commitment is a major area of interest (May et al., 2002; Yousaf et al., 2016; Yousaf et al., 2015). Occupational commitment has been found to influence consequences such as job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2000; May et al., 2002; Satoh et al., 2017), job performance, stress (Lee et al., 2000) as well as intention to leave the occupation (Chang et al., 2007). The level of occupational commitment highly depends on employees themselves instead of organizational culture (Lee et al., 2000). As such, occupational commitment is another important area considered in this study to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and creative performance. Most importantly, most scholars tend to investigate the impact difference of affective subtypes between organizational and occupational commitment (Chang et al., 2007; Yousaf et al., 2016). There has been little research that fully compares two similar but distinguishable commitments, including sub-components of each, which are highly correlated to job satisfaction, which result is in creative performance.

Be that as it may, both commitments were widely examined by previous scholars in different context across sectors, including Chinese and British accountants (Snape et al., 2008), nursing professionals in Taiwan and Japan (Chang et al., 2007; Satoh et al.,

2017), scientists and engineers in United States (Mansfeld et al., 2010; Perry et al., 2016), general workers in United Kingdom (Ivtzan et al., 2013), chefs in Kuala Lumpur (Hanan & Zainal, 2012) and service industry including banking, telecommunication and hospitality industry in Vietnam (Choi et al., 2015), but absence of empirical research in creative framework in kitchen industry in Mainland China has been conducted.

In this connection, there is a need to investigate the effect of both organizational and occupational commitment on job satisfaction and employee creativity in this single profession. This project aims to look into the organizational and occupational commitment level of the food service employees in the catering industry, and how they influence job satisfaction and creative behaviors. Meanwhile, the mediating effect of job satisfaction between commitment and creativity would also be examined.

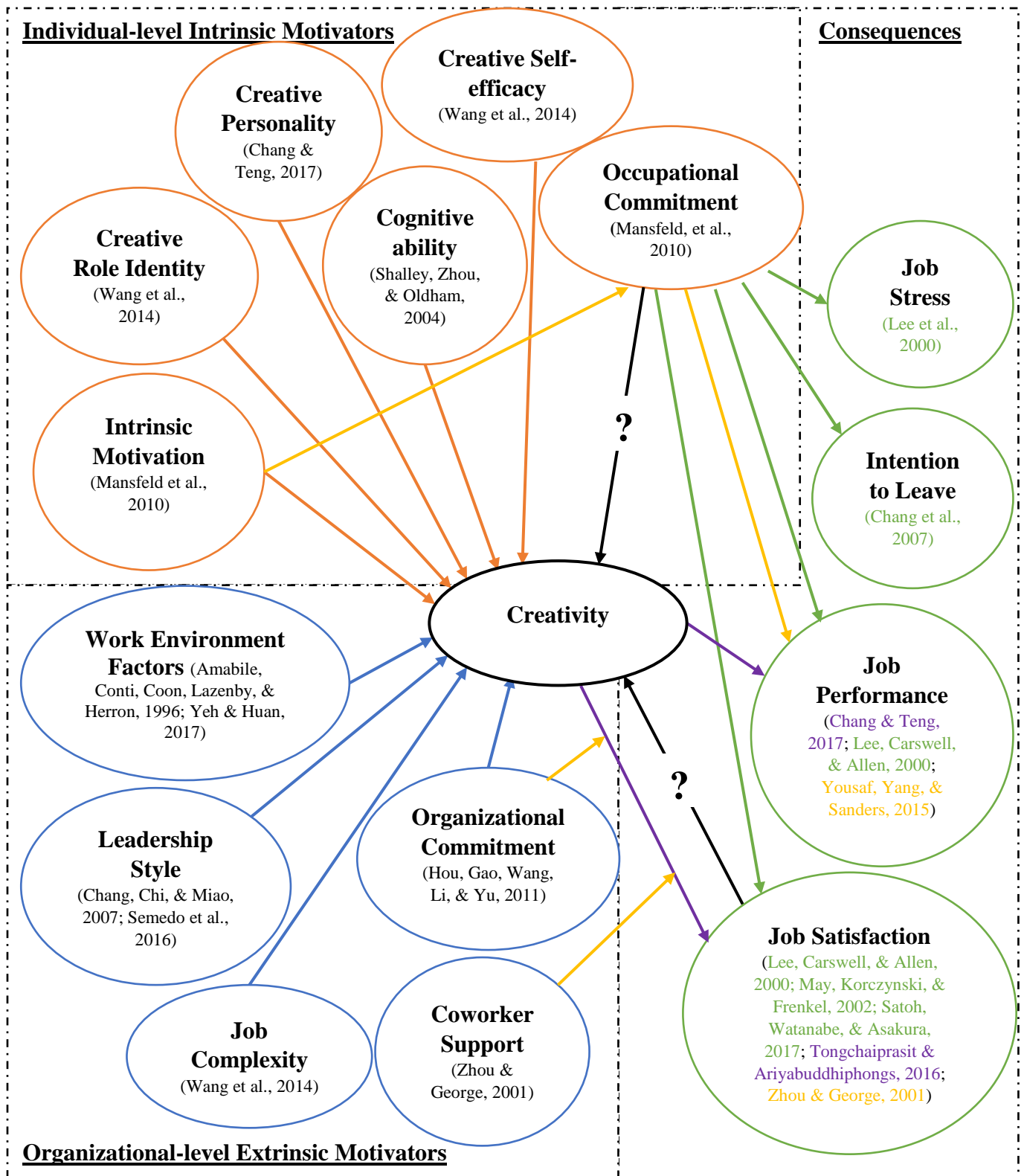


Figure 1.1 Research Gap in Creativity Literature

Notes: Individual characteristics (Red Line), organizational factors (Blue Line), consequences (Green Line), effects of commitment (Yellow Line) and unknown path (Black Line)

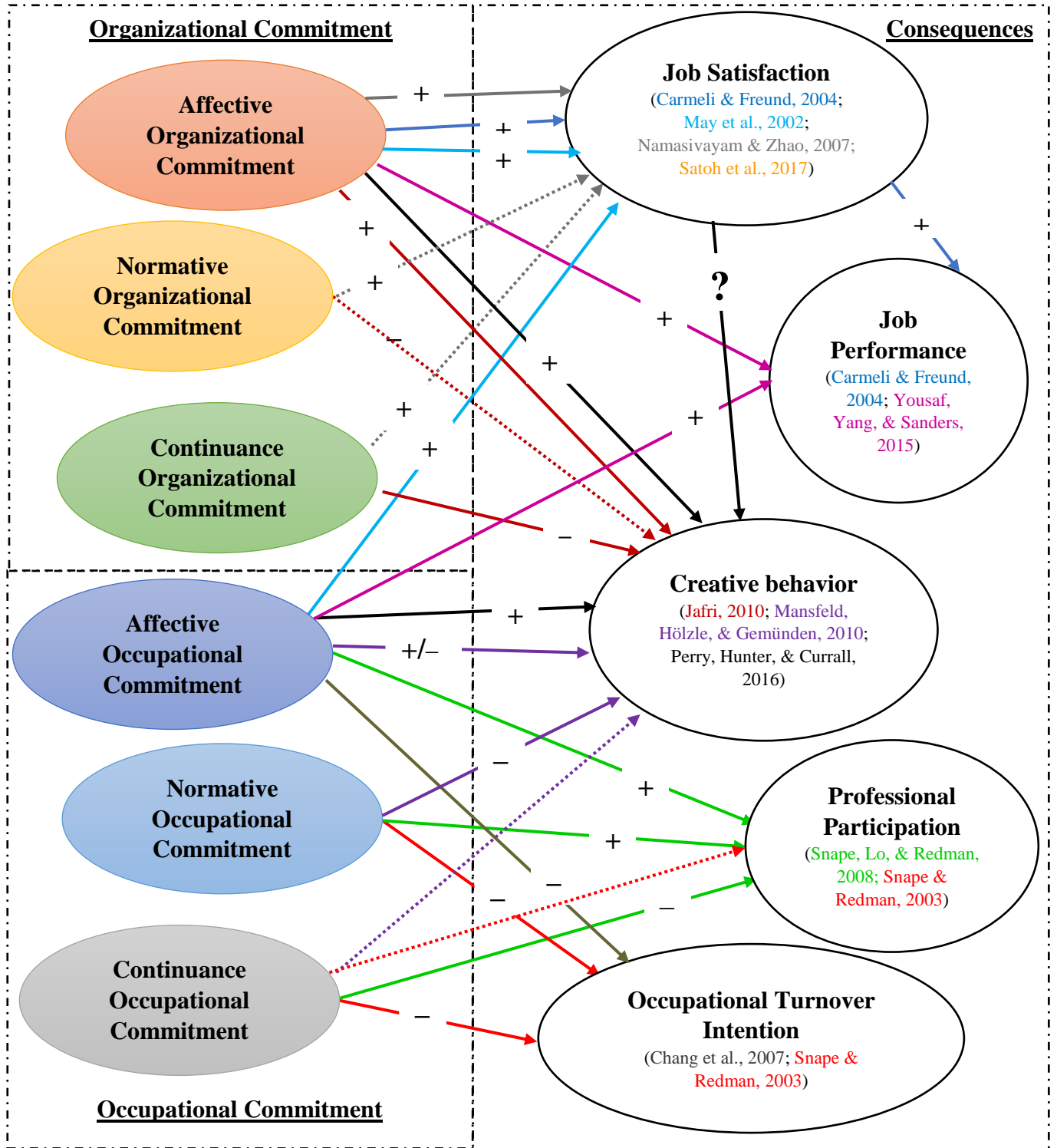


Figure 1.2 Research Gap in Commitment Literature

1.7. Research Questions

- i. What is the impact of organizational commitment on job satisfaction and creative performance respectively in kitchen operations?
- ii. What is the impact of occupational commitment on job satisfaction and creative performance respectively in kitchen operations?
- iii. What is the impact of job satisfaction on employees' creative performance?
- iv. What is the mediating impact of job satisfaction between organizational commitment and employee creative performance?
- v. What is the mediating impact of job satisfaction between occupational commitment and employee creative performance?

1.8. Research Objectives

The purpose of this study is to examine whether organizational and occupational commitment has any impacts on job satisfaction and employee creativity. This study intends to investigate a proposed model with a sample of kitchen employees, particularly those working in the kitchen within hotel properties in Mainland China. Furthermore, some potential correlations of both organizational and occupational commitment are proposed to determine if these variables are influenced by their sub-components of each commitment. A conceptual framework is proposed in this study to highlight the relationship between two types of commitments, job satisfaction, and creative behaviors in terms of self-rating creative performance. This study does not attempt to investigate the model differences for respondents with different demographic characteristics, yet the demographic variables were also collected for possible control variables, which were

listed in Section 3.4.5. Thus, five specific objectives have been established for this study as follows:

- i. To investigate the relationship between the two-component model of organizational commitment impact, job satisfaction, and creativity in kitchen operations.
- ii. To explore the correlation between the three-component model of occupational commitment impact, job satisfaction, and creativity in kitchen operations.
- iii. To examine the mediating effect of job satisfaction between organizational commitment and creativity in kitchen operations.
- iv. To examine the mediating effect of job satisfaction between occupational commitment and creativity in kitchen operations.
- v. To make feasible recommendations to managing practitioners and scholars with the application of the above-identified relationships.

1.9. Significance of The Study

This study aims to investigate the effect of both organizational and occupational commitment on job satisfaction as well as employee creative behavior in a restaurant setting from the standpoint of employees. The study intends to contribute to the human resource management and organizational behavior fields in theory and practice.

1.9.1. Theoretical Contributions

This research has three theoretical contributions. Firstly, an overall occupational commitment was found positively related to job involvement, satisfaction, as well as their

job performance (Lee et al., 2000). However, not much research has investigated and compared the three-component of occupational commitment to employee job performance, especially their creative behaviors. This study bridges the necessary gap because employee creativity is a strategy for many catering organizations to maintain core competencies by creating unique products and service (Leung & Lin, 2018). Most of the work performed by employees in the creative industry is related to commitment, as a source of motivation (Carmeli & Freund, 2004). Commitment towards occupations may simply be the most straightforward element to address in an attempt to stimulate employees' creativity.

Secondly, the current study combines psychology and individual behavior concepts in the research model, bringing about a multidisciplinary contribution to the understanding of employee creative behavior. This study also includes two-components of organizational commitment in the framework to examine and compare its impact on the consequences, which might also be mediated by job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2000). It can provide a fresh direction and meaningful reference to subsequent research in the areas of the culinary curriculum and human resource management in the hospitality industry.

Thirdly, this study reveals how employees perceive the satisfaction level of the job, which directly influences employee creative behavior and performance. Job satisfaction and performance being mutually affected (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), scholars further confirmed that job satisfaction has a direct and positive impact on job performance (Carmeli & Freund, 2004). The present study suggests and examines employee creative performance as an outcome that can be influenced by job satisfaction.

Fourthly, scholars suggested the employee commitment has a significant mediation between leadership style and work engagement (Choi et al., 2015), as well as extrinsic motivation and job performance (Yousaf et al., 2015). However, the mediation of job satisfaction between employee commitment and job performance is still unknown. This study also aims to identify and test the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between commitments and employee creative behavior in the hospitality industry.

To conclude, by establishing this conceptual framework to investigate both commitments and job satisfaction towards kitchen employees' creativity, this study contributes to a new route and preliminary theoretical prototype for researchers concerned about conducting further studies. Most theories are based on fundamental assumptions to conduct exploration studies and verification on a continuous basis to build a sound model as the result.

1.9.2. Practical Contributions

The practical contributions of this study attempt to provide valuable insights to improve employee creative performance from three perspectives, namely organizational and occupational commitment along with job satisfaction. Supervisors and employees perceived the same organization differently. Likewise, each employee has a different level of commitment to their current occupation. It is difficult to manage because there is never one size that could fit all. Hence, practitioners should figure out further actions to motivate employee creativity. By investigating both occupational and organizational commitments, the outcome of this study might be significant to culinary curriculum design and planning for nurturing future talents. The results of this study might also cast new light on the

impact of job satisfaction and employee creativity. This being the case, the findings could provide references for practitioners to redesign and enrich hospitality jobs, which may increase employee morale and reduce their withdrawal attitudes (Lin, Wong, & Ho, 2013).

To sum up, this study attempts to contribute to the creativity literature in hospitality background by integrating organizational and occupational commitment as well as job satisfaction into the creative behavior of kitchen employees. Specifically, this study intends to examine the impact of both organizational and occupational commitment on culinary creative performance, which is mediated by job satisfaction. The results of this study can provide insights to fill a gap in understanding the effect of commitments on job satisfaction and creative behavior. Meanwhile, the study is also beneficial to practitioners in catering-related organizations, such as human resource management, executive chefs or food and beverage directors, when improving employee creative performance and enhancing overall organizational innovation.

1.10. Assumptions

There are a few assumptions in this study. Firstly, at any cross-sectional point of time, organizational (ORC) and occupational commitments (OCC), as well as job satisfaction (JS), are assumed to have a direct or/and indirect connection with employees' creative behavior depending on specific situations.

Secondly, it should be stressed that both organizational and individual characteristics are important to a multidimensional phenomenon. This study does not include all relevant organizational and personal factors; instead, it concentrates on what appears to be some of the most basic and essential dimensions that have been neglected in the past research related to employees' creative behavior.

1.11. Organization of The Thesis

Chapter 1 Introduction: It presents the background of the study, problem statement, and research objectives.

Chapter 2 Literature Review: It discusses the relevant literature on organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and creative performance. It also proposes a conceptual model for this study.

Chapter 3 Methodology: It shows the research instrument and methods for the pilot test, data collection, and analysis in detail.

Chapter 4 Results: It presents the respondents' characteristics, construct validity, as well as general findings, including descriptive statistic for construct and conceptual model testing using SPSS and AMOS.

Chapter 5 Discussions and Implications: It presents the discussion and implementation of the research findings based on research objectives in Chapter 1. It also presents theoretical and practical implications.

Chapter 6 Conclusions: It concludes this study with an overall summary of the research and discussion on the key findings. Research limitations and directions for future research are presented.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Chapter Introduction

This section aims to provide a comprehensive review of the major components of the conceptual model, which are an organizational and occupational commitment, employees' creative performance, and job satisfaction. The scope of literature covers organizational commitment, occupational commitment, creative performance, and job satisfaction across different contexts but mainly in the hospitality and catering industry. The literature and empirical findings of organizational and occupational commitment in the study of job outcome are examined. In addition to that, the definitions and literature on both creativity and job satisfaction are reviewed. All the dimensionality of the related measurement scale in the past empirical research would also be reviewed and summarized in this chapter. The main sources for the literature review were reviewed from related journal articles, books, government reports, and online materials. Based on the theoretical background, each key concept concludes the identification of key constructs that can be organized for further conceptualization and exploration with conforming research objectives. Finally, the conceptual model of this study is introduced, and the hypotheses are also established based on these main concepts.

2.2. Definition of Commitment

A much-debated question is whether motivation and commitment are two similar theories. Motivation has been widely investigated in the study of creativity. Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe (2004) claimed that commitment and motivation are two distinguishable theories but highly related notions. The nature of commitment is a unique

component among other dimensions under the theories of motivation. If we consider the usage of commitment in daily life, we would observe that the word “commitment” is generally reserved for essential occasions or actions that have relatively long-term effects, namely marriage commitments and family commitments. In contrast, motivation refers to an individual as being motivated for either short-term or long-term implications.

2.3. Organizational Commitment (ORC) vs. Occupational Commitment (OCC)

The commitment could be identified into two similar concepts from different perspectives, which are the commitment to their current organization or occupation. They are related to but distinct from each other. Scholars argued that an employees’ identification and attachment to their occupation should be treated as distinct from their emotional attachment with the organization that they are working with (Yousaf et al., 2016; Yousaf et al., 2015). An individual with higher organizational commitment tends to stay in the organization and be willing to provide exert effort (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Likewise, if employees have a stronger occupational commitment, they are more likely to stay in their occupation. However, high commitment to occupation may not lead to a high commitment with the organization because of a conflict between personal demand and organizational goal.

Also, occupational commitment is one of the dimensions under the topic of work commitment and different from job involvement and work involvement. Job involvement refers to the degree to which an employee is engaged in their work; work involvement also denotes a common belief about work (Kanungo, 1982). Different similar theories exist in literature regarding specify commitment with interchangeable terms, including

professional commitment (Morrow & Wirth, 1989), career commitment (Blau, 1985), and professionalism (Wetzel, Soloshy, & Gallagher, 1990) whose detailed definitions are indicated in Table 2.1. The term “occupational” was chosen to identify its commitment towards current occupations for this study for both professional and non-professional jobs, according to the approach of Meyer et al. (1993). An individual with higher OCC should participate in related activities for skills and career development more enthusiastically. Also, he should be less likely to quit his current job. This study aims to examine and compare the impact of two commitment foci on the work-related outcome, which are job satisfaction and employee creative performance.

Table 2.1 Definitions of Constructs on Commitment, Involvement and Engagement

Constructs	Scholars	Definitions
Organizational Commitment	Meyer and Allen (1991)	The relative strength of an employee’s identification with and involvement in the current organization.
Occupational Commitment	Becker (1960)	“If, for instance, a person refuses to change his job, even though the new job offers him a higher salary and better working conditions, we should suspect that his decision is the result of commitments, that other sets of rewards than income and working conditions have become attached to his present job so it would be too painful for him to change” (2, p. 50).
	Hall (1971)	Occupational commitment denotes the strength of motivation to work in a chosen career role.
	Fallon, Pfister, and Brebner (1989)	The commitment to a particular line of work.
Job Involvement	Kanungo (1982)	Job involvement stands for the cognitive state of psychological identification with a job.
Work Involvement	Kanungo (1982)	Work involvement represents the general importance of work in one’s life.
Employees’ Job Engagement	Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova, and Bakker (2002)	“As a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption.” (p.74)

2.3.1. Research of Commitment to The Hotel Industry

When scholars firstly identified organizational commitment as a factor to influence personal creativity (Hou et al., 2011; Jafri, 2010; Mansfeld et al., 2010; Rahdarpour & Taboli, 2016; Semedo et al., 2016), occupational commitment has been raised the awareness and research attention in all aspects of successful achievements (Ivtzan et al., 2013; Kim & Mueller, 2011; Nogueras, 2006; Robinson, Solnet, & Breakey, 2014; Satoh et al., 2017), but little has been done in creativity context. Both commitment are commonly regarded as antecedents of work-related outcomes, including job satisfaction, job performance and intention to leave (Chew & Wong, 2008; Choi et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2005; Øgaard et al., 2008; Yousaf et al., 2016; Yousaf et al., 2015). When employees have a higher organizational commitment, they are more likely to promote positive employer information to others in their personal life (Chang & Busser, 2017). The author summarized the key findings from commitment literature in the hospitality industry, indicated in Table 2.2. The antecedents and consequences of distinct commitments will be further discussed in Section 2.3 and 2.4.

Table 2.2 Key Findings from the Commitment Literature in the Hospitality Industry (in chronological order)

Authors	Topic	Major Findings
Lee et al. (2000)	A Meta-Analytic Review of Occupational Commitment: Relations with Person- and Work-Related Variables	OCC was positively related to job involvement and satisfaction, as well as positively correlated with organizational commitment. It was also positively related to job performance and had an indirect effect on organizational turnover intention through occupational turnover intention.
Kim et al. (2005)	Effect of service orientation on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention of leaving in a casual dining chain restaurant	Job satisfaction was positively associated with ORC but negatively associated with employees' intention of leaving.
Bai, Brewer, Sammons, and Swerdlow (2006)	Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and internal service quality: a case study of Las Vegas hotel/casino industry	Job satisfaction and internal service quality have a positive influence on organizational commitment.
Chew and Wong (2008)	Effects of career mentoring experience and perceived organizational support on employee commitment and intentions to leave: A study among hotel workers in Malaysia	Career mentoring and perceived company support are highly interrelated with different behavioral outcomes. Career mentor directly predicts all three components of ORC. All three dimensions are positively correlated, and negatively correlated with intention to leave.
Øgaard et al. (2008)	Perceptions of organizational structure in the hospitality industry: Consequences for commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived performance	The experience of both organic and mechanistic organizational principals is positively associated with subjective performance evaluation, AORC and job satisfaction.
Jafri (2010)	Organizational Commitment and Employee's Innovative Behavior	Innovative behavior is positively related to AORC and negatively related to CORC. No significant result was found between innovative behavior and NORC.
Mansfeld et al. (2010)	Personal characteristics of innovators — an empirical study of roles in innovation management	AOCC and NOCC are significant with the innovative behavior of expertise in technical know-how, one of five innovator roles. No significant influence was found between COCC and innovative behaviors. ORC was analyzed as a mixed result without a breakdown of three forms.

Table 2.2 Continued

Authors	Topic	Major Findings
Hanan and Zainal (2012)	The relationship between occupational culture, organization tenure and occupational commitment of chefs in 4 and 5-star hotels in Kuala Lumpur	The three-dimensions of occupational culture (self-efficacy, pervasiveness, and esoteric knowledge) are significantly related to three types of OCC.
Choi et al. (2015)	Inclusive leadership and work engagement: Mediating roles of affective organizational commitment and creativity	Leadership style was positively related to employee work engagement, and the relationship mediated by the AORC and employee creativity.
Yousaf et al. (2015)	Effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on task and contextual performance of Pakistani professionals: The mediating role of commitment foci	Intrinsic motivation is related to task performance, and the relationship is mediated by AOCC. Extrinsic motivation is associated with task performance and mediated by AORC.
Yousaf et al. (2016)	High commitment HRM and organizational and occupational turnover intentions: the role of organizational and occupational commitment	The result showed that High Commitment Human Resource Management (HCHRM) is negatively related to both chefs' organizational (ORTI) and occupational (OCTI) turnover intentions. AORC mediates the HCHRM–ORTI relationship, and AOCC moderates HCHRM– OCTI relationship.
Patiar and Wang (2016)	The effects of transformational leadership and organizational commitment on hotel departmental performance	Leadership style has a positive association on organizational commitment, which leads to hotel performance.
Chang and Busser (2017)	Hospitality employees promotional attitude: Findings from graduates of a twelve-month management training program	The results showed that mentor functions (i.e., career development and psychosocial support) were antecedents of employee promotional attitude and mediated by AORC.

(Source: Compiled by the author)

2.4. Organizational Commitment (ORC)

2.4.1. Definition of Organizational Commitment

In general, ORC was found to have associations with job performance, job involvement and reduced turnover intention (Chew & Wong, 2008; Craig, Allen, Reid, Riemenschneider, & Armstrong, 2013; Payne & Huffman, 2005). “Commitments come into being when a person, by making a side-bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity.” (Becker, 1960, p. 32). Choice decision making is normally based on the assumptions around the human being and their previous experience in making decisions. Aranya and Jacobson (1975) found a direct relationship between four demographic characteristics, namely, age, marital status, number of children and salary level, presenting that the older people with higher salaries have side-bet effects addition to commitment around a family with children, and so the commitment to their existing job relatively increases. Becker (1960) indicated that five side bet categories could integrate and create a composite effect to enhance employee commitment. However, Powell and Meyer (2004) argued that the suggested list was not comprehensive enough.

2.4.2. Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

There is a considerable amount of academic studies exploring the dimensions of organizational commitment. Two commonly used scales are introduced by Porter et al. (1974) and Meyer and Allen (1991). Porter et al. (1974) introduced three dimensions, in terms of value-, effort- and retention commitment to an organization. Their scale measures employee acceptance of organizational goals, willingness to provide exert effort and willingness to stay within an organization. It is one of the popular scales for measuring

employee commitment with an organization, which is also supported by hospitality research (Bai et al., 2006; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001; Patiar & Wang, 2016). Scholars argued that Porter et al.'s (1974) scale is a multidimensional scale rather than unidimensional (Al-Yami, Galdas, & Watson, 2018; Alyami, 2013; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001). They found two main factors, namely, affective organizational commitment (which includes the measurement items of effort and value commitment) and commitment to stay in an organization. Yousef (2003) also confirmed that a two- and three-factor model does not have a significant difference. He argued that if scholars treat the scale of Porter and his colleague as a unidimensional scale, it might affect the interpretation of results on other outcome variables. Therefore, this study aims to explore the impact of sub-components under an organizational commitment from the perspective of Porter et al. (1974).

Meyer and Allen (1991) further modified and introduced a three-component model of organizational commitment, which supplements the side bets theory of Becker (1960) and becomes another popular construct in the field supported by scholars (Chang et al., 2007; Chang & Busser, 2017). In particular, the three components include affective (desired-based), normative (obligation-based) and continuance subtype (cost-based) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Further descriptions are indicated in Table 2.3. However, this study does not adopt this scale for several reasons. First, this study investigated and compared two distinct employee commitments (i.e., organizational and occupational commitment). Meyer et al. (1993) extended its organizational commitment scale to measure occupational commitment, and as a result of that, both scales shared similar

wordings but towards different objects. If the researcher adopted both scales from Meyer et al. (1993), it might easily confuse our respondents.

Second, most scholars tend to investigate either affective or attitudinal commitment towards an organization, because its influence was greater than the two other components (i.e., normative and continuance subtype). Affective organizational commitment could positively influence job performance and behaviors. Nevertheless, the other two components usually indicate insignificant results on the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, such as organizational turnover intention, job satisfaction, and innovative behavior (Chang et al., 2007; Jafri, 2010; Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007), which are indicated in Section 2.3.4. As such, this study adopted the two-factor model from Porter et al. (1974) to explore the impact of organizational commitment on job satisfaction and employee creative performance.

Table 2.3 Definitions of Constructs on Organizational Commitment

Porter et al.'s (1974) Construct		
Variables	Definitions	Sources
Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC)	“A strong belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values.” “A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization.”	Porter et al. (1974, p. 604)
Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)	“A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.”	
Meyer and Allen's (1993) Construct		
Variables	Definitions	Sources
Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC)	Individual's emotional attachment with the organization.	Meyer and Allen (1991); Meyer et al. (1993)
Normative Organizational Commitment (NORC)	The employees' belief that he or she is obligated to stay with an organization because of personal loyalty and allegiance.	

Table 2.3 Continued

Meyer and Allen's (1993) Construct		
Variables	Definitions	Sources
Continuance Organizational Commitment (CORC)	A need to stay with the company because of the accumulated investments, leaving would consequently be very costly.	Meyer and Allen (1991); Meyer et al. (1993)

2.4.3. Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

There has been surprisingly little research addressing antecedents of organizational commitment, especially focused on a distinct subtype of commitment. According to a content analysis of 31 articles from 21 middle and top-tier journals between 2005 and 2017, 19% of the articles focused on the antecedents of overall organizational commitment as a mixed result, 77% studied the predictors of value commitment or affective organizational commitment, 16% and only 13% studied on the predictors of normative subtype and continuance-subtype respectively. So far, there have been 31 articles, i.e., 87%, that conducted their research in the hospitality industry. The author conducted and summarized a review of the previous empirical studies which investigated the predictors of organizational commitment, as shown in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4 Antecedents of Employee Organizational Commitment from Previous Empirical Studies

A. Organizational level – Antecedents of AORC		Sources
1.	AOCC and AORC	Yousaf et al. (2016)*
2.	Career mentoring and AORC	Chang and Busser (2017)*; Chew and Wong (2008)*
3.	Co-worker relationship and AORC	He, Lai, et al. (2011); Li et al. (2018)*
4.	Customer focus and AORC	Kim et al. (2005)*

Table 2.4 Continued

A. Organizational level – Antecedents of AORC		Sources
5.	Customer orientation and AORC #	He, Li, et al. (2011)*
6.	Customer service under pressure and AORC #	Kim et al. (2005)*
7.	Extrinsic motivation and AORC	Yousaf et al. (2015)
8.	Empowerment and AORC	Raub and Robert (2013)*
9.	High commitment to human resource management and AORC	Yousaf et al. (2016)*
10.	Internal marketing (i.e., quality of welfare systems, training, compensation, communication, and management support) and AORC	Kim, Song, and Lee (2016)*
11.	Intrinsic motivation and AORC	Karatepe and Uludag (2007)*
12.	Job involvement and AORC	Carmeli and Freund (2004); Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*
13.	Job satisfaction and AORC	Gunlu et al. (2010)*; Karatepe and Uludag (2007)*; Karatepe, Yavas, and Babakus (2007)*; Kim and Brymer (2011)*; Kim et al. (2018)*; Kim et al. (2016)*; Ozturk, Hancer, and Im (2014)*
14.	Leadership and AORC	Çelik, Dedeoğlu, and Inanir (2015)*; Choi et al. (2015)*; Kim and Brymer (2011)*; Lin and Wang (2012a)*; Semedo et al. (2016)
15.	Managerial support and AORC	Colakoglu, Culha, and Atay (2010)*; He, Lai, et al. (2011)*; He, Li, et al. (2011)*; Kang et al. (2015)*; Karatepe et al. (2007)*; Li et al. (2018)*
16.	Organizational structure and AORC	Øgaard et al. (2008)*
17.	Organizational support and AORC #	Kim et al. (2005)*
18.	Psychological contract breach and AORC	Chang and Busser (2017)*
19.	Role ambiguity and AORC #	He, Lai, et al. (2011)*
20.	Work facilitation and AORC	He, Li, et al. (2011)*
B. Organizational level – Antecedents of NORC		Sources
1.	AORC and NORC	He, Lai, et al. (2011)*
2.	Career mentoring and NORC	Chew and Wong (2008)*
3.	Job involvement and NORC	Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*
4.	Managerial support and NORC	Colakoglu et al. (2010)*
5.	Managerial support and NORC #	He, Lai, et al. (2011)*
6.	Organizational support and NORC #	Chew and Wong (2008)*
7.	Role ambiguity and NORC	He, Lai, et al. (2011)*
C. Organizational level – Antecedents of CORC		Sources
1.	Career mentoring and CORC	Chew and Wong (2008)*
2.	Job Involvement and CORC #	Carmeli and Freund (2004); Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*
3.	Perceived organizational support and CORC	Chew and Wong (2008)*; Colakoglu et al. (2010)*

Table 2.4 Continued

D. Organizational level – Antecedents of ORC		Sources
1.	Conflict and ORC	Orlowski, Murphy, and Severt (2017)*
2.	Innovation orientation and ORC	Perry et al. (2016)
3.	Internal service quality and ORC	Bai et al. (2006)*
4.	Job satisfaction and ORC	Bai et al. (2006)*; Kim et al. (2005)*
5.	Leadership and ORC	Patiar and Wang (2016)*
6.	Work characteristic change (skill diversity, job integrity, task significance, autonomy, and task feedback) and ORC	Lin, Lin, and Lin (2010)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples; # stands for the insignificant result from the studies; AORC= affective organizational commitment; NORC= normative organizational commitment; CORC= continuance organizational commitment

In the review, several studies suggested ways to arouse employees' overall organizational commitment, namely, innovation orientation, employee job satisfaction, internal service quality, and leadership style. Those scholars further investigated the predictors of each distinctive mindset and provided a deeper understanding of each component of organizational commitment. However, most of those scholars tend to examine the antecedents of three distinct components raised by Meyer et al. (1993), but little empirical research has been done to examine the predictors of other two or three dimensions (i.e., value-, effort- and retention commitment) under organizational commitment from the perspectives of Porter et al. (1974).

Most of the scholars mainly focused on the predictors of affective organizational commitment, namely, managerial support (Kang et al., 2015), coworker relationship (He, Li, et al., 2011), job involvement (Kuruüzüm et al., 2009), internal marketing (Kim et al., 2016), leadership style (Choi et al., 2015), organizational structure (Øgaard et al., 2008), extrinsic motivation (Yousaf et al., 2015) and career mentoring (Chew & Wong, 2008). However, not all the predictors have been linked to its impact on the other components,

normative, and continuance organizational commitment. Career mentoring has been found as a predictor for all three subtypes. Managerial support is a predictor of AORC and CORC, but not NORC. This is a different result from Kim et al. (2005), who found that organizational support does not have any significant impact on AORC. Job involvement is another predictor which has an association with AORC and NORC, but not CORC. Based on the arguments, it further emphasized that three components of organizational commitment are distinct mindsets and influenced by distinctive predictors. Similarly, scholars mainly attempted to explore the antecedent of affective organizational commitment from the perspectives of Porter et al. (1974) in understanding ways to increase employee acceptance with organizational goals, values and willingness of exert extra effort (Karatepe & Uludag, 2007; Karatepe et al., 2007; Ozturk et al., 2014), which indicate their affective commitment to an organization. Some scholars adopted Porter et al.'s (1974) scale with 15 items to explore the impact of work characteristic change (Lin et al., 2010), job satisfaction (Bai et al., 2006) and leadership style (Patiar & Wang, 2016) on general organizational commitment. Nevertheless, some of the scholars failed to achieve a single-factor solution during factor analysis, and so some items were removed, and some measurement items under an unknown factor that they have not mentioned (may be the dimension of retention commitment) might be missing for result interpretations. Although this study does not aim to study the antecedents of a two-factor organizational commitment model, it provides evidence and suggestions for future research.

2.4.4. Organizational Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

According to a content analysis of 31 articles from 17 middle and top-tier journals between 2004 and 2018, 10% of the articles focused on the outcome of overall

organizational commitment as a mixed result, 61% studied the consequences of affective organizational commitment, only 16% studied on the consequences of normative subtype and continuance-subtype. Among 31 articles, 22 of them were hospitality research. The author conducted and summarized a review of the previous empirical studies which investigated the outcomes of organizational commitment, as Table 2.5 shows below.

In the commitment literature, organizational commitment has a direct impact on employees' attitudinal and behavior outcomes, including job satisfaction (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Kurutüzüm et al., 2009; Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007), turnover intention (Chew & Wong, 2008; Kang et al., 2015; Kim & Brymer, 2011; Yousaf et al., 2016), work engagement (Choi et al., 2015), creative behaviors (Hou et al., 2011; Jafri, 2010; Rahdarpour & Taboli, 2016; Semedo et al., 2016). It further emphasized the importance of organizational commitment within a labor-intensive business. Limited empirical research has been conducted to confirm the relationship between the sub-components of organizational commitment and employee creative performance in the context of the hospitality industry.

In the extensive literature, studies tend to adopted Porter et al.'s scale to measure affective organizational commitment and its impact on work-related outcomes, including job satisfaction (Çelik et al., 2015) and organizational turnover intention (Karatepe & Uludag, 2007; Rahim, 2011). Little is known on the impact of retention commitment towards an organization, which is another important component under Porter et al.'s scale.

Table 2.5 Organizational Outcomes of Employee Organizational Commitment from Previous Empirical Studies

A. Employees' Attitudinal Outcomes of ORC		Sources
1.	AORC and career satisfaction #	Kang et al. (2015)*
2.	AORC and customer satisfaction	He, Li, et al. (2011)*
3.	AORC and job satisfaction	Carmeli and Freund (2004); Çelik et al. (2015)*; Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*; Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*
4.	AORC and NORC	He, Lai, et al. (2011)*
5.	AORC and occupational turnover intention #	Yousaf et al. (2016)*
6.	AORC and organizational turnover intention	Chew and Wong (2008)*; Kang et al. (2015)*; Karatepe and Uludag (2007)*; Kim and Brymer (2011)*; Kim et al. (2016)*; Rahim (2011)*; Yousaf et al. (2016)*
7.	AORC and organizational turnover intention #	Chang et al. (2007)
8.	AORC and promotion attitude (promoted the organization to others)	Chang and Busser (2017)*
9.	AORC and work engagement	Choi et al. (2015)*
10.	Leadership, AORC and Work engagement (partial mediation)	Choi et al. (2015)*
11.	NORC and job satisfaction	Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*
12.	NORC and job satisfaction #	Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*
13.	NORC and organizational turnover intention	Chang et al. (2007); Chew and Wong (2008)*
14.	CORC and job satisfaction	Carmeli and Freund (2004)
15.	CORC and job satisfaction (negatively) but insignificant positively #	Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*
16.	CORC and organizational turnover intention	Chew and Wong (2008)*
17.	CORC and organizational turnover intention #	Chang et al. (2007)
A. Employees' Behavioral Outcomes of ORC		Sources
1.	AORC and contextual performance (volunteer for things that are not required)	Yousaf et al. (2015)
2.	AORC and extra effort	Kim and Brymer (2011)*
3.	AORC and innovative behavior	Jafri (2010)
4.	AORC and pre-quitting behaviors	Li et al. (2018)*
5.	AORC and self-reported creativity	Semedo et al. (2016)
6.	NORC and innovative behavior #	Jafri (2010)
7.	CORC and innovative behavior	Jafri (2010)
8.	ORC and employee creativity	Rahdarpour and Taboli (2016)
9.	ORC and financial performance #	Patiar and Wang (2016)*

Table 2.5 Continued

B. Employees' Behavioral Outcomes of ORC		Sources
10.	ORC and non-financial performance	Patiar and Wang (2016)*
11.	ORC and social and environmental performance	Patiar and Wang (2016)*
12.	ORC and supervisor-rated creativity	Hou et al. (2011)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples; # stands for the insignificant result from the studies; AORC= affective organizational commitment; NORC= normative organizational commitment; CORC= continuance organizational commitment

2.4.5. Measurement Items of Organizational Commitment

There are numerous academic studies on the scales of organizational commitment, which are indicated in Table 2.6. A questionnaire (OCQ) with 15 items developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) were used to measure employee perception on acceptance of organizational value and willingness for extra or effort continuously (affective commitment), as well as the desire to stay in an current organization (retention commitment) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This scale was developed to measure the overall organizational commitment, yet scholars found that this scale could be reported into one factor (i.e., general organizational commitment) (Roehl & Swerdlow, 1999; Silva, 2006), two factors (i.e. affective organizational commitment and retention commitment/intention to stay/continuance commitment) (Alyami, 2013; Angle & Perry, 1981; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001; Lin & Wang, 2012a, 2012b; Orłowski et al., 2017) or three factors (Lin et al., 2010) by conducting factor analysis. Yousef (2003) further examined and validated the dimensionality of Porter et al.'s (1974) organizational commitment scale by using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The result suggested no significant difference in chi-square testing between two- and three- factor models, which support the arguments that this measurement scale is a multidimensional concept instead of unidimensional. Some

scholars failed to obtain a single-factor solution, and as a result of that, some items were deleted during factor analysis, as their studies mainly focused on the dimension of attitudinal commitment to an organization (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Patiar & Wang, 2016).

For a two-factors model, inconsistent names of the dimensions were found in the existing literature. Some studies considered organizational commitment construct (Mowday et al., 1979) as value commitment and retention commitment (Bai et al., 2006; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Patiar & Wang, 2016), affective commitment and commitment to stay (Al-Yami et al., 2018; Alyami, 2013; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001; Fisher, McPhail, & Menghetti, 2010), affective commitment and continuance commitment (Lin & Wang, 2012a, 2012b) or affective commitment and intention to stay with an organization (Orlowski et al., 2017). There is still no consensus in confirming the names of the dimensions or aspects in an extensive literature. This study reviewed and compared the measurement items from different scholars and decided to categorize a construct of Mowday et al. (1979) into affective organizational commitment (value commitment) and retention commitment to an organization (like normative organizational commitment) for this study. Section 2.8.1.2 indicates a comparison of some sample items between the scale from Mowday et al. (1979) and Meyer et al. (1993).

Meyer et al. (1993) further introduced a scale with 18 items to measure three components. They are affective (emotional attachment), like the value commitment from the scale by Porter et al. (1974) and other two new dimensions, namely, normative (sense of obligation for employees to stay) and continuance components (employees stay in an organization because of changing costs). Although two scales measure different dimensions towards organizational commitment, both have been commonly used because

of strong evidence of its internal consistency, convergent, and discriminant validity. Wang and Armstrong (2004) further suggested another scale with seven items to measure organizational commitment from seven multiple-dimensions (see Table 2.6).

In the existing literature, affective organizational commitment is one of the dimensions which received extensive awareness. This study included three components under organizational commitment theory to investigate and compare two similar but distinctive employee commitments, organizational and occupational commitment. To avoid confusion or similarity with occupational commitment scale also developed by Meyer et al. (1993), this study adopted OCQ from Mowday et al. (1979) to measure two components of organizational commitment. The 15 items from OCQ were widely assessed and supported by hospitality research (Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001; Fisher et al., 2010; Lin & Wang, 2012a, 2012b; Orłowski et al., 2017). This study also provides evidence to prove OCQ as a multidimensional scale in understanding employee organizational commitment and its impact.

Table 2.6 A Review of ORC Dimensionality from Previous Empirical Studies

Unidimensional Approach (Organizational Commitment)			
1 Dimension	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
Affective-subtype (emotional attachment)	Carmeli and Freund (2004)	ACS	8 items (Allen & Meyer, 1990)
	Kim et al. (2005)*		5 items (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993)
	He, Lai, et al. (2011)*	ACS	3 items (Meyer & Allen, 1997)
	He, Li, et al. (2011)*	AORC	4 items (Peterson, 2004)
	Kim and Brymer (2011)*		4 items (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003)
	Kim et al. (2018)*; Yousaf et al. (2015)	AC-ORC	4 items (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1993)

Table 2.6 Continued

Unidimensional Approach (Organizational Commitment)			
1 Dimension	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
Affective-subtype (emotional attachment)	Kim et al. (2016)*	ACS	7 items (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Meyer et al., 1993)
	Chang and Busser (2017)*; Choi et al. (2015)*; Kang et al. (2015)*; Li et al. (2018)*; Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*; Semedo et al. (2016); Yousaf et al. (2016)*	AC	6 items (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1993; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001)
Value Commitment/ Affective commitment/ Attitudinal commitment	Karatepe and Uludag (2007)*; Karatepe et al. (2007)*	AC-OCQ	5 items (Mowday et al., 1979)
	Curtis, Upchurch, and Severt (2009)*; Øgaard (2006)*; Øgaard et al. (2008)*; Ozturk et al. (2014)*; Perry et al. (2016); Rahim (2011)*; Raub and Robert (2013)*	AC-OCQ	9 items (Mathieu, 1991; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974)
	Çelik et al. (2015)*		7 items (Mowday et al., 1979)
Normative-subtype (sense of obligation)	Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*	NCS-ORC	6 items (Meyer et al., 1993)
	He, Lai, et al. (2011)*		3 items (Meyer & Allen, 1997)
Continuance-subtype (associated cost)	Carmeli and Freund (2004)	CCS-ORC	8 items (Allen & Meyer, 1990)
	Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*		6 items (Meyer et al., 1993)
Multidimensional Approach (Organizational Commitment)			
7 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Advancement b) Community c) Knowledge d) Career e) Contact f) Excellence g) Salary	Wang and Armstrong (2004)	OC	7 items

Table 2.6 Continued

Multidimensional Approach (Organizational Commitment)			
3 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Affective b) Normative c) Continuance	Chang et al. (2007); Colakoglu et al. (2010)*; Gunlu et al. (2010)*; Hou et al. (2011); Jafri (2010); Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*	ORC (ACS, NCS, CCS)	18 items (Meyer et al., 1993)
	Chew and Wong (2008)*		24 items (Allen & Meyer, 1990)
a) Value b) Effort c) Retention	Bai et al. (2006)*; Lok and Crawford (2004); Patiar and Wang (2016)*	OCQ	15 items, but scholars deleted some items during factor analysis to achieve unidimensional scale (Mowday et al., 1979)
a) Value b) Dedication c) Commitment to stay	Lin et al. (2010)	CQ	15 items, 5 items under each dimension (Mowday et al., 1979)
Multidimensional Approach (Organizational Commitment)			
2 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Value / Affective b) Retention / Commitment to stay	Alyami (2013); Al-Yami et al. (2018); Bozeman and Perrewé (2001)*; Fisher et al. (2010)*	OCQ	15 items, 9 items under value commitment), 6 items under commitment to stay) (Mowday et al., 1979)
a) Affective b) Continuance	Lin and Wang (2012b)*; Lin and Wang (2012a)*	OCQ	15 items, 9 items under affective commitment), 6 items under continuance commitment) (Mowday et al., 1979)
a) Affective b) Intention to stay an organization	Orlowski et al. (2017)*	OCQ	15 items, 9 items under affective commitment), 6 items under the intention to stay (Mowday et al., 1979)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples. AC/ACO/ACS/ACS-ORC/AORC/AC-OCQ/OCS= affective organizational commitment scale; NCS/NCS-ORC= normative organizational commitment scale; CCS/CCS-ORC= continuance organizational commitment scale; ORC/OCQ= organizational commitment questionnaire

2.5. Occupational Commitment (OCC)

2.5.1. Definition of Occupational Commitment

The study of occupational commitment (OCC) was developed based on the research of organizational commitment. Becker (1960) defines occupational commitment as the commitment to a current line of work, including personal identity and involvement in the value of their current occupation. It is one of the components of motivation about work-related outcomes (Meyer et al., 2004). Motivation is strongly associated with work commitment, which could vary from individual to individual regarding several types of commitment and thereby affecting employees' outcome (Johnson & Yang, 2010). Employees can differ in commitment depending on their level of needs and correspondingly differ in their attitudes, performance, and behaviors. OCC binds an individual to their current occupations and so reduces the likelihood of manpower wastage.

2.5.2. Dimensions of Occupational Commitment

Similar to organizational commitment, three different mindsets reflected dissimilar effects, affective attachment to the occupation, perceived the cost of leaving, as well as the obligation to remain (Blau, 2003; Meyer et al., 1993). Existing studies presented that affective and normative commitment positively influenced employee innovativeness (Mansfeld et al., 2010) and performance (Yousaf et al., 2015). In addition, inconsistency results were found between continuous commitment in different job positions (Mansfeld et al., 2010). The description of each subtype is illustrated in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 Definitions of Constructs on Occupational Commitment

Variables	Definitions	Sources
Affective Occupational Commitment (AOCC)	A person's desire to stay in the occupational role.	Meyer et al. (1993)
Normative Occupational Commitment (NOCC)	With a sense of obligation, a person remains in the current occupation.	Irving, Coleman, and Cooper (1997)
Continuance Occupational Commitment (COCC)	A person remains in the existing occupation because of perceived leaving costs.	

2.5.3. Antecedents of Occupational Commitment

There has been little quantitative analysis on the antecedents of occupational commitment, especially the one that focused on a distinct subtype of mindset. According to a content analysis of 7 articles from 7 top-tier journals between 2004 and 2017, 43% of the articles focused on the predictors of career commitment and professional commitment, 57% studied the consequences of affective occupational commitment, 29% of them studied on the consequences of normative subtype and continuance-subtype. Among 7 articles, only 57% of them were hospitality research. Table 2.8 summarized the findings of the previous empirical studies. The literature has several suggestions to increase employee occupational commitment, which include staff recognition (Sato et al., 2017), innovative orientation (Perry et al., 2016), job involvement (Carmeli & Freund, 2004) and occupational culture (Hanan & Zainal, 2012). This study does not aim to explore the antecedent of occupational commitment. However, these pieces of evidence provide rooms for future research to explore its potential predictors across the field.

Table 2.8 Antecedents of Employee Occupational Commitment from Previous Empirical Studies

A. Organizational level – Antecedents of OCC		Sources
1.	Effort-reward imbalance and AOCC	Satoh et al. (2017)
2.	Occupational culture and AOCC	Hanan and Zainal (2012)*
3.	AORC and AOCC	Yousaf et al. (2016)*
4.	High commitment human resource management and AOCC	Yousaf et al. (2016)*
5.	Effort-reward imbalance and COCC #	Satoh et al. (2017)
6.	Effort-reward imbalance and NOCC	Satoh et al. (2017)
7.	Occupational culture and NOCC	Hanan and Zainal (2012)*
8.	Occupational culture and COCC	Hanan and Zainal (2012)*
9.	Innovative orientation and professional commitment	Perry et al. (2016)
10.	Job involvement and career commitment	Carmeli and Freund (2004)
11.	Self-efficacy and career commitment	Niu (2010)*

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples; # stands for insignificant result from the studies; AOCC= affective occupational commitment; NOCC= normative occupational commitment; COCC= continuance occupational commitment

2.5.4. Organizational Outcomes of Occupational Commitment

Along with a content analysis of 8 articles from 8 journals between 2004 and 2017, 13% of the articles focused on the outcome of overall occupational commitment as a mixed result, 75% studied the consequences of affective occupational commitment, 50% studied on the consequences of normative subtype and continuance-subtype. Within 8 articles, only one out of them was hospitality research. Table 2.9 reported the outcomes of occupational commitment from preceding studies.

Most of the scholars investigated the relationship between occupational commitment and turnover intention (Satoh et al., 2017; Snape & Redman, 2003). Employees with high occupational commitment tend to perceive their occupation as meaningful to themselves (Ivtzan et al., 2013), which leads to an eagerness to stay in the industry and higher job satisfaction (Carmeli & Freund, 2004). Inconsistent results were found in hospitality research, which suggested AOCC has an insignificant impact on

organizational and occupational turnover intention. On the other hand, there is limited research conducted to investigate the impact of occupational commitment on job-related outcomes, including job satisfaction, job involvement, creative performance. Little is known as to whether the impact of occupational commitment might enhance or diminish job-related outcomes. This study fills the gap to investigate the impact of sub-components of occupational commitment on job satisfaction and employee creative performance in the hospitality industry.

Table 2.9 Organizational Outcomes of Employee Occupational Commitment from Previous Empirical Studies

A. Employees' Attitudinal Outcomes of OCC		Sources
1.	AOCC and intention to stay in the industry	Satoh et al. (2017)
2.	AOCC and occupational turnover intention	Chang et al. (2007)
3.	AOCC and organizational withdrawal cognitions	Snape and Redman (2003)
4.	AOCC and organizational turnover intention #	Yousaf et al. (2016)*
5.	AOCC and occupational turnover intention #	Yousaf et al. (2016)*
6.	AOCC and process/ relationship and champion (innovator roles) #	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
7.	NOCC and intention to stay in the industry	Satoh et al. (2017)
8.	NOCC and occupational turnover intention #	Chang et al. (2007)
9.	NOCC and organizational withdrawal cognitions #	Snape and Redman (2003)
10.	COCC and intention to stay in the industry	Satoh et al. (2017)
11.	COCC and occupational turnover intention #	Chang et al. (2007)
12.	COCC and organizational withdrawal cognitions	Snape and Redman (2003)
13.	OCC and occupational meaningfulness	Ivtzan et al. (2013)
14.	Career commitment and job satisfaction	Carmeli and Freund (2004)
B. Employees' Behavioral Outcomes of OCC		Sources
1.	AOCC and task performance	Yousaf et al. (2015)
2.	AOCC and expert promotor (innovator roles)	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
3.	AOCC and power promotor (innovator roles)	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
4.	NOCC and expert/power/ relationship and champion (innovator roles) #	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
5.	NOCC and process promotor (innovator roles)	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
6.	COCC and all five innovator roles #	Mansfeld et al. (2010)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples; # stands for insignificant result from the studies; AOCC= affective occupational commitment; NOCC= normative occupational commitment; COCC= continuance occupational commitment

2.5.5. Measurement Items of Occupational Commitment

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, different theories of occupational commitment exist in the commitment literature. Thus, different similar scales also exist to measure employees' occupational commitment. The most commonly used scales for occupational commitment are developed by Meyer et al. (1993), which contain three sub-components, affective, normative, and continuance. Another two similar scales are named under the theory of career commitment and professional commitment. This study adopted the scale of occupational commitment, which is also supported by hospitality research to measure kitchen employees' occupational commitment (Hanan & Zainal, 2012).

Table 2.10 A Review of OCC Dimensionality from Previous Empirical Studies

Unidimensional Approach (Occupational Commitment)			
1 Dimension	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
Affective-subtype (emotional attachment)	Yousaf et al. (2015)	ACS-OCC	4 items (Meyer et al., 1993)
	Yousaf et al. (2016)*	ACS-OCC	6 items (Meyer et al., 1993)
Career commitment	Carmeli and Freund (2004); Morrow and Wirth (1989)	CC	8 items (Blau, 1985)
Multidimensional Approach (Occupational Commitment)			
7 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Reputation b) Community c) Knowledge d) Career e) Contact f) Excellence a) Salary	Perry et al. (2016)	Professional commitment	7 items (Wang & Armstrong, 2004)
3 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Career identity b) Career planning c) Career resilience	Niu (2010)*	Career commitment	12 items (Carson & Bedeian, 1994)

Table 2.10 Continued

Multidimensional Approach (Occupational Commitment)			
3 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Affective b) Normative c) Continuance	Chang et al. (2007); Hanan and Zainal (2012)*; Irving et al. (1997); Ivtzan et al. (2013); Mansfeld et al. (2010); Satoh et al. (2017); Snape and Redman (2003)	ACS-OCC, NCS-OCC, CCS-OCC	18 items (Meyer et al., 1993)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples. ACS-OCC= affective occupational commitment scale; NCS-OCC= normative occupational commitment scale; CCS-OCC= continuance occupational commitment scale; PC= professional commitment

2.6. Employee Creative Performance (ECP)

The terms of “creativity” and “innovation” are generally considered as competitive advantages for organizations (Amabile, 1988). A much-debated question is whether two terms can be used interchangeably. Creativity denotes the generations of novel ideas by an individual or small groups (Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993). In contrast, innovation is usually defined as the implementations of new thoughts in organizational contexts (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, & Herron, 1996). Both terms are dissimilar but closely connected. In short, individual and team creativity is essential to achieve organizational innovation (Amabile et al., 1996). In this study, “creativity” is employed to represent employees’ creative behavior in a single occupation of kitchen employees.

Creativity has long been a question of great interest from broad disciplinary or interdisciplinary perspectives in biological, behavioral, clinical, educational, and organizational disciplines (Runco, 2014). Studies over the past two decades have provided important information on creativity, according to the area of products, persons, processes

and interpersonal relations (Amabile, 1983; Runco, 2014; Woodman et al., 1993). Clarification on definitions in literature is always critical to prevent misunderstanding and disappointment.

2.6.1. Conception and Characteristics

The concept of creativity was first introduced by Amabile (1983), who postulated three key components of creative production and performance, namely domain-relevant skills, creativity-relevant skills, and task motivation. They have been widely investigated across sectors and presented new variables under each component in existing research.

Domain-relevant skills refer to related knowledge and expertise in a selected field, usually influenced by education, experiences, and personal cognitive abilities. Several scholars illustrated that previous working experiences and learning have impacts on creativity behavior (Albors-Garrigós, Monzo, & Garcia-Segovia, 2017; Rodan & Galunic, 2004; Sothan, Baoku, & Xiang, 2016). In the catering industry, chefs' gastronomic and technical knowledge normally comes from their educational background and working experiences (C. Johnson et al., 2005). Scholars have recognized knowledge or skills sharing as positive experiences to achieve chefs' gratification (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007; Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2008). An employee who is willing to share their knowledge could be important and enhance their autonomous motivation (Gagné, 2009). Although work experience depends on the obtainment of job knowledge, they are mutually dependent. The preceding experience could help people fix the problems using repeated solutions, prevent individuals to "think out of the box" when coming up with creative ideas. In contrast, it is tough to employ any creative behaviors when individuals

are knowledge-free. At times, creativity is part of the learning process, whereby people acquire new knowledge (Campbell, 1960; Gersh, 2016).

The second component, which was originally called creativity-relevant skills but has recently been renamed as “processes”, focuses on the appropriate methods or steps when developing new ideas or solutions with appropriate cognitive styles or ability (Amabile, 1996). Likewise, researchers have proposed various explanations on creativity to identify as an idea-generating process through personal interactions to stimulate the creative process (Suh, Bae, Zhao, Kim, & Arnold, 2010). Wallas (1926) firstly introduced four stages of creative thinking, including preparation, incubation, illumination, and verification of ideas. A rising body of literature that recognizes similar phases of the creative process was presented (Amabile, 1983; Parnes, Noller, & Biondi, 1977). In addition, Ottehnbacher & Harrinton (2007) investigated and presented seven stages of a product or cuisine development by studying a group of Michelin-starred chefs. Horng and Hu (2009) further identified five stages process specifically for chefs in developing new dishes as a competence. The progression includes idea preparation, idea incubation, idea development, verification of creation, and inventive performance. Gong, Huang, and Farh (2009) mentioned that training in related creative skills and experience in creative activities are likely to positively influence creativity-relevant process and performance. A little empirical study on training for creative problem solving has pointed out that training can enrich employees’ creativeness (Basadur, Graen, & Green, 1982) and performance (Bagri, Babu, & Kukreti, 2010).

The third component suggested by Amabile (1996) is task motivation, which denotes individuals’ attitude, perceptions, and motivation towards the creative task. In

general, it can be categorized as extrinsic or intrinsic. The former, which refers to any sources outside of the task itself as behavioral drivers, might be tangible rewards or psychological in nature, such as praise. As opposed to external motivation, Amabile recommended that intrinsic type should be defined as “any motivation that arises from the individual’s positive reaction to qualities of the task itself; this reaction can be experienced as interest, involvement, curiosity, satisfaction, or positive challenge” (1996, p. 115). Both motivations have been widely investigated in terms of creativity over the decades in the hospitality industry (Chang & Teng, 2017; Wong & Ladkin, 2008). This study aims to explore the antecedents of creative performance from the perspectives of task motivation in terms of employees’ psychological and emotional attachment towards the organization and occupation, which may bring about or diminish employees’ creative performance. Innovative employees within the organization are one of the key assets to create additional values and maintain competitiveness in dynamic business situations (Amabile et al., 1996).

Many scholars and practitioners emphasize the importance of employees’ creative behavior across sectors (Albors-Garrigos, Barreto, García-Segovia, Martínez-Monzó, & Hervás-Oliver, 2013; Barron & Harrington, 1981; Parnes & Noller, 1972; Shalley et al., 2004). Little existing literature gives an exact explanation to define culinary creativity. The adoption of creativity in the catering industry is a discipline and routine practices, which refers to a combination of knowledge in food science, food handling, cooking methods, aesthetics and convention (Horng & Lee, 2009). Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016) further defined it as a blend of different ingredients in a harmonious way to create beautiful and tasty dishes to fulfill the guest’s dream or desire.

Chefs are considered as artists to carry out edible food innovations by applying specialized skills, knowledge, culture, and aesthetic. They also deploy their inventiveness to create exceptional cuisine to sustain their business. The creative process involves the states of personnel and the interaction within a team context to fulfill organizational goals. The past decade has seen the rapid development of creativity research in identifying determinants, including personal factors (Barron & Harrington, 1981; Woodman & Schoenfeldt, 1989), working environment (Amabile et al., 1996; Tesluk, Farr, & Klein, 1997; Woodman et al., 1993) or both (Woodman & Schoenfeldt, 1990) across creative industry, yet it is still not known whether occupational commitment would directly influence employees' creativity.

2.6.2. Antecedents of Employee Creative Performance

According to a content analysis of 24 empirical research from 18 top-tier journals between 2000 and 2017, while 88% of the articles focused on the predictors of employee creativity, the remaining articles studied the antecedents of job performance. Within 24 articles, only 50% of them were hospitality research. The author conducted and summarized a review of the previous empirical studies which investigated the antecedents of employee creative performance, as Table 2.11 shows below.

The antecedents of employee creativity are divided into the individual level and organizational level. The individual characteristics represent the constant and stable feature of a single person that has a direct influence on creative achievements. Personality and cognitive style are not easy to change in a short period of time as every individual grows up with a diverse culture and background (Chang & Teng, 2017). In the literature,

there has been surprisingly little empirical research on the relationship between occupational commitment and employee creativity (Mansfeld et al., 2010), as well as organizational commitment and employee creative performance (Hou et al., 2011; Semedo et al., 2016)

The scale for assessing work environment factors by Amabile et al. (1996) that include five attributes is still embraced by recent scholars. They are company support (Horng & Lee, 2009; Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000; Wong & Ladkin, 2008; Yeh & Huan, 2017), the autonomy of freedom (Mansfeld et al., 2010; Yeh & Huan, 2017), resources (Albors-Garrigos et al., 2013; Semedo et al., 2016; Yeh & Huan, 2017), pressure (Hon et al., 2013) and obstacles towards creativity. In addition, there are several determinants found, such as co-worker relationship (Shalley et al., 2004), job complexity (Wang et al., 2014), or even to leadership style (Semedo et al., 2016). Organizational factors are dependent across sectors, as companies could provide a long distance of working environment to the employees, even in the case of the same organization so that the working climate could be different across departments. Previous scholars have widely studied creativity or innovation in diverse perspectives and circumstance, and have recognized it as a critical factor to succeed and gain competitive advantages for organizations, especially in artistic industries (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2009; Wang et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the impact of the organization and occupational commitment on job satisfaction is understudied in the literature of “creative behavior”, particularly for a labor-intensive industry of kitchen employees, who are normally classified as artists to produce novel products (Robinson, 2005).

Table 2.11 Antecedents of Employee Creative Performance/ Job Performance from Previous Empirical Studies

A. Commitment-related antecedents of ECP		Sources
1.	AOCC and expert promotor (innovator roles)	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
2.	AOCC and power promotor (innovator roles)	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
3.	AOCC and process/ relationship and champion (innovator roles) #	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
4.	AOCC and task performance	Yousaf et al. (2015)
5.	AORC and ECP	Semedo et al. (2016)
6.	COCC and all five innovator roles #	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
7.	NOCC and expert/power/ relationship and champion (innovator roles) #	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
8.	NOCC and process promotor (innovator roles)	Mansfeld et al. (2010)
9.	ORC and ECP	Hou et al. (2011)
10.	ORC and financial performance #	Patiar and Wang (2016)*
11.	ORC and non-financial performance	Patiar and Wang (2016)*
12.	ORC and social and environment performance	Patiar and Wang (2016)*
B. Other antecedents of ECP		Sources
1.	Autonomy and job required creativity	Shalley et al. (2000)
2.	Autonomous or controlled motivation and ECP	Hon (2012)*
3.	Climate for creativity, motivation and ECP	Hon (2012)*
4.	Creativity process engagement and ECP	Hornng, Tsai, Hu, and Liu (2016)*
5.	Creativity self-efficacy and employee innovation	Hu and Zhao (2016); Leung and Lin (2018)*
6.	Coworker support, motivation and ECP	Hon (2012)*
7.	Co-worker relationship and ECP	Shalley et al. (2004)
8.	Employee organizational identification and ECP	Wang, Tang, Naumann, and Wang (2017)
9.	Employee learning orientation and ECP	Gong, Huang, et al. (2009)
10.	Experiential knowledge (firm) and outcome-based creativity #	Suh et al. (2010)
11.	Freedom and creativity (both quantity and quality)	Yeh and Huan (2017)*
12.	Job complexity and ECP	Shalley et al. (2000); Wang et al. (2014)*
13.	Job resourcefulness and ECP	Semedo et al. (2016)
14.	JS and ECP	Hu and Zhao (2016); Spanjol, Tam, and Tam (2015); Zhou and George (2001)
15.	JS and service behavior	Kim, Tavitiyaman, and Kim (2009)*
16.	Leadership, motivation and ECP	Hon (2012)*
17.	Leadership and ECP	Chang and Teng (2017)*; Choi, Anderson, and Veillette (2009); Gong, Huang, et al. (2009); Wang et al. (2014)*; Wang and Cheng (2010); Semedo et al. (2016); Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2011)*
18.	Organizational control and job-required creativity	Shalley et al. (2000)

Table 2.11 Continued

B. Other antecedents of ECP		Sources
19.	Organizational support and job-required creativity #	Shalley et al. (2000)
20.	Personality and ECP	Chang and Teng (2017)*
21.	Promotion focus and ECP	Hornig et al. (2016)*
22.	Resources and creativity (both quantity and quality)	Albors-Garrigos et al. (2013)*; Yeh and Huan (2017)*
23.	Social/ managerial support and creativity (both quantity and quality)	Hornig and Lee (2009)*; Wong and Ladkin (2008)*; Yeh and Huan (2017)*
24.	Task conflict, motivation and ECP	Hon (2012)*
25.	Task feedback and ECP	Hon et al. (2013)*
26.	Team knowledge and process-based creativity	Suh et al. (2010)
27.	Work demand and job-required creativity	Shalley et al. (2000)
28.	Work environment and ECP	Amabile et al. (1996); Choi et al. (2009); Leung and Lin (2018)*; Tsai, Hornig, Liu, and Hu (2015)*
29.	Work stress and ECP	Hon et al. (2013)*

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples. # stands for insignificant results from the studies; AOCC= affective occupational commitment; AORC= affective organizational commitment; COCC= continuance occupational commitment; ECP= employee creative performance; NOCC= normative occupational commitment; ORC= organizational commitment

2.6.3. Research on Creativity in The Hotel Industry

Among the 53 journal articles, 50 of them are empirical research on creativity, as indicated in Appendix I. The research work was studied in an extensive context, for example, manufacturing, telecommunication, software developer, engineers, hotel employees, and students. While 24 out of them used hospitality employees as the samples for research in creativity (Appendix II), nearly half of them gathered data from chefs (Albors-Garrigos et al., 2013; Albors-Garrigós et al., 2017; Hornig & Lee, 2009; Leung & Lin, 2018; Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2008, 2009; Robinson, 2005; Robinson & Beesley, 2010; Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016; Wang et al., 2014; Yeh & Huan, 2017) in a widely-spread regions including Australia, Asia-Pacific (Hong Kong, India,

Singapore, Thailand and Taiwan), Europe (German and Spain) and United States of America. There is a need to study creative performance from the kitchen employee perspectives in China. Table 2.12 shows the key findings from the previous studies in a hospitality context.

Table 2.12 Key Findings from the Creativity Literature in the Hospitality Industry (in chronological order)

Authors	Topic	Major Findings
Makens (1991)	Hotel salespersons: Enhancing their creativity and efficiency	Suggestions to practitioners for enhancing creativity with time management skill and exchange ideas or solutions through in-house training and education.
Wong and Pang (2003)	Motivators to creativity in the hotel industry - perspectives of managers and supervisors	Explore the importance of motivators to enhance employees' creativity, including training, company support, open policy, recognition, and autonomy.
Robinson (2005)	Tradesperson or artist? A critical exploration of chefs' job satisfaction and turnover	The findings suggest that intrinsic work quality (inability to practice learned skills in work and perform creatively) have a stronger association with turnover than poor working conditions.
Ottenbacher and Harrington (2008)	U.S. and German Culinary Innovation Processes: Differences in Involvement and Other Factors	Explore the theory of breadth and depth of involvement to culinary innovation process by comparing the differences of the Michelin-starred chef in New York and Germany.
Wong and Ladkin (2008)	Exploring the relationship between employee creativity and job-related motivators in the Hong Kong hotel industry	Intrinsic job-related motivators were found to encourage the employee to take the risk for creative ideas. They are including opportunities for further development, trustworthiness to staff, appreciation, feelings of being involved, sympathetic assistance on personal issues as well as thought-provoking work.
Hornig and Lee (2009)	What environmental factors influence creative culinary studies?	Supportive family and friendly learning environment are positive antecedents of creativity. Some negative factors limit creativity, including hierarchical system, traditional constraints, mentorship system, organizational culture and social norms.

Table 2.12 Continued

Authors	Topic	Major Findings
Ottenbacher and Harrington (2009)	Institutional, cultural and contextual factors: Potential drivers of the culinary innovation process	Explore the similarities and differences of innovation process between the chefs from Spanish, German, and New York. The main difference in approaches is the level of involvement and the level of customer-focused decision throughout the process.
H. J. Kim et al. (2009)	The effect of management commitment to service on employee service behaviors: The mediating role of job satisfaction	Found that job satisfaction is a mediator between management commitment (i.e., reward, empowerment, and training) and employee service behaviors.
Robinson and Beesley (2010)	Linkages between creativity and intention to quit: An occupational study of chefs	Indicated that intrinsic motivators of creativity scored higher than extrinsic motivators (i.e., pay and working conditions). Female scored higher creativity than male.
Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2011)	What are the drivers for innovative behavior in frontline jobs? A study of the hospitality industry in Norway	Discovered that the impact of employee organizational commitment on creativity, which leads to enhance innovative behaviors.
Hon (2012)	Shaping environments conducive to creativity: The role of intrinsic motivation	Intrinsic motivation is a mediator between the effect of contextual factors (i.e., working climate, empowerment, supportive coworkers, task conflicts) on employee creative performance.
Albors-Garrigos et al. (2013)	Creativity and innovation patterns of haute cuisine chefs	Discovered that chefs in Spain conceive of creative work as a two-stage process based on the generation and implementation of ideas.
Hon et al. (2013)	Overcoming work-related stress and promoting employee creativity in the hotel industry: The role of task feedback from supervisor	Suggested that work stress and task feedback have a significant impact on employee creativity. Positive task feedback strengthens the positive relationship between challenged-related stress and creativity.
Wang, Tsai, and Tsai (2014)	Linking transformational leadership and employee creativity in the hospitality industry: The influences of creative role identity, creative self-efficacy, and job complexity	Investigated that transformational leadership has a positive influence on employee creativity with two mediators, creative role identity, and creative self-efficacy. Four control variables were used on employee creativity, namely, age, gender, work tenure, and educational level.

Table 2.12 Continued

Authors	Topic	Major Findings
Choi et al. (2015)	Inclusive leadership and work engagement: Mediating roles of affective organizational Commitment and creativity	AORC is statistically associated with employee work engagement. Employee creativity is positively linked to their work engagement.
Lane and Lup (2015)	Cooking under fire: Managing multilevel tensions between creativity and innovation in haute cuisine	An inductive study identifies tensions at two distinct levels of the innovation process, idea creation, and implementation. It also suggests tactics for tension management.
Tsai et al. (2015)	Work environment and atmosphere: The role of organizational support in the creativity performance of tourism and hospitality organizations	Working environment (including knowledge sharing, motivation, procedural justice, and promotion) mediates the effect between company support and employee creativity.
Hornig et al. (2016)	The role of perceived insider status in employee creativity: developing and testing mediation and three-way interaction model	A strong relationship between promotional focus and employee creativity when there is a high perceived insider status (sense of belongings) and a high level of process engagement.
Patiar and Wang (2016)	The effects of transformational leadership and organizational commitment on hotel departmental performance	The impact of leadership style on departmental performance (social and environmental performance), and its effect mediated by organizational commitment.
Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)	Creativity and turnover intention among hotel chefs: The mediating effects of job satisfaction and job stress	The direct impact of creativity on job satisfaction and job stress. And the indirect impact of creativity on turnover intention through job satisfaction and stress.
Albors-Garrigós et al. (2017)	Knowledge dynamics as drivers of innovation in Haute Cuisine and culinary services	Identify different knowledge dynamic as drivers for innovation process, namely, symbolic, synthetic, and analytical knowledge.
Chang and Teng (2017)	Intrinsic or extrinsic motivations for hospitality employees' creativity: The moderating role of organization-level regulatory focus	Indicated that creative personality and transformational leadership have a positive association with employee creativity, hence improve job performance.

Table 2.12 Continued

Authors	Topic	Major Findings
Yeh and Huan (2017)	Assessing the impact of work environment factors on employee creative performance of fine-dining restaurants	The work environment is strongly impacting on employee creativity, including social support, resources availability, autonomy, and regulation. Resources can greatly improve the quantity of creativity, but less on the quality aspect.
Leung and Lin (2018)	Exogenous factors of the creative process and performance in the culinary profession	The creative climate at the workplace and creative self-regulatory efficacy have positive impacts on employee creative performance.

2.6.4. Measurement Items of Employee Creative Performance

In the creativity literature, there are mainly two common methods to measure employee creative performance, namely, self-report and non-self-report. For self-reporting performance, employees simply reported their creative behaviors by showing agreement to the measurement statements. For non-self-report approaches, researchers may collect employee creative performance through different channels, including peer-rating, supervisor-rating, or even expert-rating to avoid common method biases. (see Table 2.13)

This study adopted a self-reported rating instead of supervisory ratings of employee creative performance. Although the self-report approach may suffer common method biases, there are still theoretical advantages. Employees are more likely to report their creative behavior accurately because individuals are more aware of their working duties, which might sometimes be difficult to be observed by others (Janssen, 2000). Scholars claimed that self-report approach could measure subtle creative behavior in a comprehensive way (Tsai et al., 2015). Numerous empirical researches have used self-reported creativity to examine employee creative behavior in hospitality context (Horng

et al., 2016; Horng, Tsai, Liu, & Chung, 2015; Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011; Tsai et al., 2015). They used a well-known measurement scale developed by Zhou and George (2001) and verified the scale with sound reliability and validity. The measurement items are mainly related to examine whether employees perform their work creatively. Sample items include “I will suggest new ways to achieve goals and objectives” and “I will search out new technologies, processes, techniques and product ideas”.

On the other hand, different creativity scales existed when measuring different dimensions or aspects as a multidimensional approach. Table 2.14 shows a summary of multidimensional scales from previous research. The study of Wong and Ladkin (2008) identified four dimensions under a creative scale called creativity risk-taking inventory (Byrd, 1971). The four dimensions include personality, thinking style, self-perception, and other situational factors. They tend to measure individual creativity from risk-taking and personality perspectives. Sample items include “New situation challenges me more than frighten me” and “Daydreaming is a useful activity”. Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016) adopted a scale from Robinson and Beesley (2010) with four dimensions while gauging employee creativity. The four dimensions include occupational selection, socialization in one’s occupation, job satisfaction, and occupational satisfaction. The sample items include “Cookery requires creativity”, “I can express my artistic ability,” and “I am passionate about the art of food”. This scale is particularly useful when measuring employee perception on the creative behaviors towards an occupation instead of asking their creative behavior that they may encounter during their work duties.

Apart from four-dimensional approaches, scholars also explored creativity from different perspectives, namely, the process to the outcome, radical to incremental, or even

quantity to quality. Suh et al. (2010) explored employee creativity from process-based and outcome-based aspects in the marketing sector. For process-based, sample items include “The team was highly imaginative in thinking about new or better ways” (Denison, Hart, & Kahn, 1996), whereas outcome-based sample items include “The project was innovative” (Menon, Bharadwaj, Adidam, & Edison, 1999). Wang et al. (2017) measured creativity into two dimensions, namely, radical and incremental creativity adopted from previous studies in the banking industry (Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen, 2011). For measuring radical creativity, sample items include “I am a good source of highly creative ideas”. For incremental creativity, they used “I am very good at adapting already existing ideas”. Finally, there is another creativity construct in concept of quantity and quality dimensions (Amabile, Burnside, & Gyskiewicz, 1995; Yeh & Huan, 2017). Sample items for measuring quantity and quality of employee creative behavior in a catering industry, including “I regularly create new dishes” and “My new dish development is popular amongst customers” respectively. The measurement of creativity not only able to apply on managerial employees in creating new dishes but also able to apply in operational employees in performing the work duties in a creative way to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. As mentioned in Section 2.6.1, scholars defined employee creativity from different perspectives, and no consensus has been made on a single measurement. Therefore, this study will clearly define and adopt one of the common scales from Zhou and George (2001) to measure employee creative behavior.

Table 2.13 A Review of ECP Dimensionality from Previous Empirical Studies

Unidimensional Approach (Employee Creative Performance)			
1 Dimension	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
Peer-rated employee creativity	Choi et al. (2009)	EC	10 items (Zhou & George, 2001)

Table 2.13 Continued

Unidimensional Approach (Employee Creative Performance)			
1 Dimension	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
Self-reported creativity	Horng et al. (2016)*; Tsai et al. (2015)*; Semedo et al. (2016); Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2011)*	EC	13 items (Zhou & George, 2001)
Self-reported creativity	Horng et al. (2015)*	EC	7 items (Choi et al., 2009; Zhou & George, 2001)
Supervisor-rated creativity	Gong, Huang, et al. (2009)	EC	3 items (Oldham & Cummings, 1996) and 4 items developed by the authors
	Hon (2012)*; Hon et al. (2013)*; Wang and Cheng (2010)	EC	13 items (Zhou & George, 2001)
	Wang et al. (2014)*	EC	3 items (Oldham & Cummings, 1996)
	Hu and Zhao (2016); Chang and Teng (2017)*	EI	6 items (Scott & Bruce, 1994)
Multidimensional Approach (Employee Creative Performance)			
4 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Personality b) Thinking style c) Self-perceptions d) Situational factors	Wong and Ladkin (2008)*	Creativity risk-taking inventory	12 out of 20 items (Byrd, 1971)
a) Selection of occupation b) Socialization in one's occupation c) Job satisfaction d) Occupational satisfaction	Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)*	Chef creativity scale	13 items out 16 items (self-reporting) (Robinson & Beesley, 2010)
2 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Process-based b) Outcome-based	Suh et al. (2010)	Process-based and outcome-based creativity	3 items for process-based (Denison et al., 1996) 3 items for outcome-based (Menon et al., 1999) (self-reporting)

Table 2.13 Continued

Multidimensional Approach (Employee Creative Performance)			
2 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Supervisor-rated b) Self-reported	Hou et al. (2011)	Supervisor-rated creativity and Kirton Adoption-Innovation Inventory (KAI)	4 items (supervisor rating) (Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999) 8 items (self-reporting) (Kirton, 1976; Tierney et al., 1999)
a) Radical b) Incremental	Wang et al. (2017)	Radical and Incremental creativity	6 items, 3 items each (self-reporting) (Madjar et al., 2011)
a) Quantity b) Quality	Yeh and Huan (2017)*	Quantity and quality of creativity	3 items each (self-reporting) (Amabile et al., 1995)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples. JS= job satisfaction scale, EC/EI= employee creativity

2.7. Job Satisfaction (JS)

Evidence suggests that employee satisfaction is among the most important factors for human resources issues (Lam, Zhang, & Baum, 2001) and that investigating job satisfaction is a continuing concern in several related disciplines, such as social psychology, organizational commitment, job performance, and human resource management (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Ko, 2012; Lam, Baum, & Pine, 2001; Satoh et al., 2017; Silva, 2006; Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016; Young & Corsun, 2009; Zhou & George, 2001). Recent research recognizes the critical role played by job satisfaction in managing the workforce. However, fewer studies explore the direct linkage between commitments and job satisfaction, which, in turn, leads to employee creativity. This study sheds new light on the need for the impact of kitchen employees' organizational and occupational commitment on job satisfaction, as well as job satisfaction and employee creativity to highlight the importance of human resource management and job performance.

2.7.1. Conception and Characteristics

Job satisfaction states the emotional and cognitive evaluation of an employee of his/her work experience in a current and specific company with some degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Brief, 1998). Hancer & George's (2003) studies further found that the intrinsic elements are the major influential factors on employee satisfaction. According to Silva (2006, p. 325), "employees feel meaningful and a sense of pride in their job by being able to use their artistic ability to perform a variety of tasks in a challenging environment." Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two distinctive emotional states, influenced by intrinsic or extrinsic aspects (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman,

1959). Intrinsic factors are defined as satisfying people's psychological needs including achievement and recognition and extrinsic factors such as working conditions, salary and co-worker relations (Chuang, Yin, & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2009; Herzberg et al., 1959). Scholars have recently started to focus on the intrinsic factor categories to explore and analyze job satisfaction (Chuang et al., 2009; Hancer & George, 2003; Ko, 2012; Robinson, 2005; Shalley et al., 2000; Young & Corsun, 2009).

Since job satisfaction reflects employees' feeling regarding nature of their work, it generates a contribution to numerous consequences including performance, turnover, and absenteeism (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Young & Corsun, 2009). Several cross-sectional studies suggest a strong association between job satisfaction and job performance (Carmeli & Freund, 2004). Satisfied employees tend to be more productive, innovative, and committed to the organization (Syptak, Marsland, & Ulmer, 1999). Also, they are more likely to be engaged in a range of creative and challenging job tasks (Spinelli & Canavos, 2000); positive or negative influences are potentially generated by their organizational and occupational commitment.

2.7.2. Antecedents and Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

In management research literature, empirical research has focused on the antecedents and outcomes of employee job satisfaction. The reliable antecedents have included organizational commitment (Kuruüzüm et al., 2009; Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007), career commitment (Carmeli & Freund, 2004), job demand (Chiang, Birtch, & Cai, 2014) and composite working environment (Shalley et al., 2000).

Job satisfaction has been found to influence both attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. The attitudinal outcomes have included organizational turnover intention (Valentine, Godkin, Fleischman, & Kidwell, 2011), work stress (Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016), and employee commitment (Kim et al., 2005). Satisfied employees tend to have less stress, less intention to leave their organization and have a higher commitment to the organization. Meanwhile, the importance of job satisfaction is that it improves employee job performance, including co-worker cooperation, better service behavior (Kim, Hon, & Crant, 2009) and higher creative performance (Spanjol et al., 2015; Zhou & George, 2001). Job satisfaction has been found to mediate the relationship between career commitment and employee job performance (Carmeli & Freund, 2004). Based on the above empirical evidence, it explains why job satisfaction would influence employee creative performance and have potential mediation effect between employee commitment and their working performance. Table 2.14 summarized the antecedents and outcomes of job satisfaction from previous empirical research.

Table 2.14 Antecedents and Outcomes of Job Satisfaction from Previous Empirical Studies

A. Organizational level – Antecedents of JS		Sources
1.	Affective organizational commitment (or value commitment) and JS	Carmeli and Freund (2004); Çelik et al. (2015)*; Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*; Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*
2.	Career commitment and JS	Carmeli and Freund (2004)
3.	Composite work environment and JS	Shalley et al. (2000)
4.	Corporate ethical values and JS	Valentine et al. (2011)
5.	Continuance organizational commitment and JS (negatively) but insignificant positively #	Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*
6.	Continuance organizational commitment and JS	Carmeli and Freund (2004)
7.	Creativity and JS	Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)*
8.	Empowerment and JS #	H. J. Kim et al. (2009)*
9.	Group creativity and JS	Valentine et al. (2011)
10.	Hotel career management and JS	Kong, Wang, and Fu (2015)*

Table 2.14 Continued

A. Organizational level – Antecedents of JS		Sources
11.	Human Resource Practices (rewards and training) and JS	Chiang et al. (2014)*; H. J. Kim et al. (2009)*
12.	Job demand variability (including customer-driven demand variability and task demand variability) and JS	Chiang et al. (2014)*
13.	Normative organizational commitment and JS #	Namasivayam and Zhao (2007)*
14.	Normative organizational commitment and JS	Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*
15.	Organizational support and JS #	H. J. Kim et al. (2009)*
16.	Service discretion (flexibility to make adjustments according to personal needs, abilities, and circumstances) and JS	Chiang et al. (2014)*
B. Employees' Attitudinal Outcomes		Sources
1.	JS and affective organizational commitment	Kim and Brymer (2011)*; Kim et al. (2018)*; Kim et al. (2016)*
2.	JS and overall organizational commitment	Kim et al. (2005)*
3.	JS and job stress	Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)*
4.	JS and turnover intention #	Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)*
5.	JS and turnover intention	Valentine et al. (2011)
C. Employees' Behavioral Outcomes		Sources
1.	JS and creativity	Spanjol et al. (2015); Zhou and George (2001)
2.	JS and employee innovation	Hu and Zhao (2016)
3.	JS mediates career commitment and job performance	Carmeli and Freund (2004)
4.	JS and service behavior	H. J. Kim et al. (2009)*
5.	JS and co-worker cooperation	H. J. Kim et al. (2009)*

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples; # stands for insignificant results from the studies; JS= job satisfaction

2.7.3. Job Satisfaction in The Hotel Industry

In the 20th century, Shalley et al. (2000) concluded that organizational support for creativity would result in higher job satisfaction and work commitment. Judge et al. (2001) indicated that job satisfaction and job performance are mutually dependent. Robinson and Beesley (2010) further emphasized that kitchen employees would have higher creativity

when occupational satisfaction were achieved. In addition, job satisfaction and occupational commitment are also essential to employees' creative behaviors. Since dissatisfied employees tend to have higher stress and less productivity, their opportunity in coming up with creative solutions is reduced.

On the other hand, the level of commitment in their current occupation will also affect their satisfaction level, hence influencing their creative performance. Thus, job satisfaction might, to some extent influence the employees' creativity. However, the results from previous studies are inconclusive (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). In addition, few scholars studied the impact of job satisfaction on creative behavior and provided implications to the catering industry for chefs' occupation. In other words, there is still a considerable research gap which allows further exploration on a single occupation of being a chef. This study aims to extensively explore the impact of organizational and occupational commitment on creative behavior, as mediated by job satisfaction.

2.7.4. Measurement Items of Job Satisfaction

In the management literature, the measurement scale of job satisfaction has been found in unidimensional and multidimensional approaches. For unidimensional method, scholars tend to measure employees' general job satisfaction with their current work (Bai et al., 2006; Chiang et al., 2014; Hu & Zhao, 2016; Kim et al., 2005; Kuruüzüm et al., 2009; Satoh et al., 2017), sample items include, "Overall, I am satisfied with my current job". The respondents were asked to rate their agreement with the statements. Another approach to measuring general job satisfaction level is to have the respondent report their satisfaction level with their current job. Sample items include "Taking everything into

consideration, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?” (Shalley et al., 2000). Table 2.15 also summarizes a review of job satisfaction scale from previous research.

For multiple dimensions approaches, job satisfaction could be further divided into two dimensions or up to eight dimensions. In 1985, Spector (1985) firstly developed a job satisfaction survey which includes eight aspects, namely, pay or salary, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, rewards, operating conditions, work nature, and communication. Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) also developed five dimensions of job description index for measuring job satisfaction. Those dimensions include work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and coworkers. Balzer, Kim, and Smith (1997) then added another dimension called job in general into the scale from Smith and his colleagues. Weiss, Dawis, and England (1967) and Lucas, Babakus, and Ingram (1990) found job satisfaction scale categorized in three (general, extrinsic and intrinsic) and two dimensions (extrinsic and intrinsic) respectively. They both classified job satisfaction into extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. Sample items of extrinsic job satisfaction include “I am relatively well rewarded financially for my work.” and “I am satisfied with my working conditions”. For intrinsic job satisfaction, sample items include “I feel a sense of pride and accomplishment as a result of the type of work I do”. There are other similar scales to measure extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction in the literature (Chuang et al., 2009; H. J. Kim et al., 2009; Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). This study adopted a unidimensional approach to measure employee job satisfaction, explore its impact on job outcome, and its mediation effect between employee commitment and creative performance.

Table 2.15 A Review of JS Dimensionality from Previous Empirical Studies

Unidimensional Approach (Job Satisfaction)			
1 Dimension	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
Satisfaction level	Shalley et al. (2000)	JS	4 items (Price & Mueller, 1986)
General job satisfaction scale	Chiang et al. (2014)*; Kim et al. (2005)*; Kuruüzüm et al. (2009)*	JS	5 items (Kim et al., 2005; Lytle, 1997)
	Bai et al. (2006)*	JS	6 items (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983)
	Øgaard et al. (2008)*	JS	2 items (Cammann et al., 1983)
	Hu and Zhao (2016)	Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)	5 items (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)
	Satoh et al. (2017)	JS	4 items (McLean, 1979)
Multidimensional Approach (Job Satisfaction)			
8 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Pay b) Promotion c) Supervision d) Fringe benefits e) Contingent rewards f) Operating conditions g) Nature of work h) Communication	Spector (1985)	Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)	9 items
6 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Work itself b) Promotion c) Pay d) Supervision e) Coworkers i) Job in general	Kong et al. (2015)*	JS	6 items (Balzer et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1969)
5 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Work itself b) Promotion c) Pay d) Supervision e) Coworkers	Smith et al. (1969)	Job Description Index (JDI)	17 items

Table 2.17 Continued

Multidimensional Approach (Job Satisfaction)			
3 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) General b) Extrinsic f) Intrinsic	Weiss et al. (1967)	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)	20 items
2 dimensions	Authors	Construct	Measurement Scale
a) Extrinsic b) Intrinsic	Lucas et al. (1990)	Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS)	9 items (5 items for extrinsic, 4 items for intrinsic) (Johnson, 1955)
	Chuang et al. (2009)	JSS	5 items for extrinsic, 3 items for intrinsic (Hancer & George, 2003; Smith, Gregory, & Cannon, 1996; Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999)
	H. J. Kim et al. (2009)*	JS	4 items, 2 items each (Lucas et al., 1990)
	Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)*	JSS	8 items (Chuang et al., 2009)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: * stands for hotel samples. JS/ JSS= job satisfaction scale

2.8. Explication of Constructs and Hypotheses

2.8.1. Organizational Commitment and Work-related Outcomes

2.8.1.1. Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC)

Affective organizational commitment (AORC) refers to the desire to stay with a current workplace as well as the acceptance of organizational goals and values. Employees with high affective commitment with their organization are willing to stay with the company on account of their psychological attachment, which is positively associated with organizational structure (Øgaard et al., 2008). In addition, this commitment subtype also mediates the relation between employees' perception of mentoring (i.e. career development and psychosocial support) and promotional attitude (Chang & Busser, 2017). In other words, when employees are treated well in the company,

they feel more attached and satisfied, hence more willing to share positive employer information in their personal life, resulting in better firm performance in China (Gong, Law, Chang, & Xin, 2009). Correspondingly, this subtype is also positively related to job performance and innovative behavior in the industry of retail (Jafri, 2010), research and development (Mansfeld et al., 2010) as well as engineering (Perry et al., 2016), but there has been a lack of evidence in hospitality research. Kim and Brymer (2011) studied the impact of middle managers' affective organizational commitment in the national and international brands of hotels located in the United States. They found a positive effect on employee willingness to exert extra effort to their work in the workplace. Employees with high AORC are deeply involved and engaged with the organization, leading to better performance. They are more likely to come up with novel ideas and solutions for problems to strive for excellence when improving the performance of the business. Drawing on the above literature, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

***H1a:** Affective organizational commitment (AORC) is **positively** associated with employees' creative performance (ECP).*

Apart from that, Harris and Cameron (2005) found that affective organizational commitment of an individual predicts psychological well-being, which further foresees job satisfaction (S. Johnson et al., 2005). Several hospitality studies found that this sub-commitment have a positive impact on employee satisfaction across different cities and countries (including United States, Turkey, South India, and Cyprus) (Kuruüzüm et al., 2009; Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007; Zopiatis, Constanti, & Theocharous, 2014). However, these findings are dissimilar from other hospitality research. This subtype found an

insignificant positive impact on hospitality students' career satisfaction in the United States (Kang et al., 2015). Much uncertainty still exists about the relationship between value commitment to an organization and job satisfaction in China's hospitality industry, which is an essential component to retain talent and refine organizational performance. Therefore, the researcher could posit the following hypothesis:

*H2a: Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC) is **positively** associated with job satisfaction (JS).*

2.8.1.2. Retention Commitment to an Organization (RCOR)

Apart from affective organizational commitment, there is another type of attitudinal commitment, which called retention commitment to an organization (RCOR). It refers to the willingness to stay with an organization (Porter et al., 1974). This commitment subtype is a similar concept of normative organizational commitment (NORC) from Meyer et al. (1993), which is related to employees' loyalty towards an organization, but with slightly different measurement items. The measurement items for NORC include "This organization deserves my loyalty" and "Even if it was to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now", whereas the items for RCOR include "I feel very little loyalty to this organization (reversely coded)" and "It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization (reversely coded)." Therefore, RCOR and NORC are similar terms in the existing literature. Some studies considered the statement of RCOR as continuance commitment (Lin & Wang, 2012a, 2012b), which confused readers with interpreting this dimensions as identical as the sub-component under Meyer et al.'s (1993) organizational constructs. The normative commitment refers to employee intention to stay within an

organization (like RCOR), while continuance commitment refers to employee commitment to stay because of associated costs or lack of alternatives. The sample items for the latter include “If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.” and “Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.” Therefore, this study would not name the second dimensions of organizational commitment as continuance organizational commitment to avoid confusion.

Scholars found that employees with high NORC were negatively associated with organizational turnover intention most strongly among the three components of organizational commitment (Chang et al., 2007). The results are inconsistent with the study conducted in America (Meyer et al., 2002), where it shows the salience of NORC in a collectivist culture (Vandenberghe, 2003). Meyer et al. (2002) found normative organizational commitment is positively correlated with job performance and absenteeism. In Chinese society, people often seek to maintain interpersonal relationships and harmony; obligation and loyalty towards an organization are, therefore, vitally important (Hofstede, 2011). This being the case, a normative organizational commitment was found to be negatively correlated and insignificantly associated with creative performance in the retail industry in India (Jafri, 2010). The result shows that the effect of organizational commitment is dominated by the other two components, which are affective and continuance subtype.

After reviewed extensive research in the literature, most of the studies applied to Meyer et al.’s (1993) scale to measure employees’ loyalty to an organization. The dimension of Mowday et al.’s (1979) scale has been neglected in some studies, which also

measures their commitment to retain in an organization (Bai et al., 2006; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Patiar & Wang, 2016). Limited empirical research has been done to consider RCOR as a sub-component under organizational commitment scale and explored its impact on job outcomes (Alyami, 2013; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001). Besides, its impact is relatively less significant than that of affective subtype but greater than that of continuance subtype. Based on the above arguments, very little has been known about the impact of retention commitment under organizational commitment construct in the hospitality industry, especially for employees who are working in the back of the house. There is a need to examine the impact of RCOR on creative performance from the kitchen employees' perspective. This study proposes the following hypothesis:

***H1b:** Retention commitment to an organization (RCOR) is **negatively** associated with ECP.*

Normative organizational commitment, like retention commitment to an organization, was found to exert a positive impact on job satisfaction but statistically insignificant, because the effect is also dominated by affective subtype (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007). "Individuals feel constrained to reciprocate with commitment as a result of received awards from the organization" (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007, p. 1216). When employees received awards such as the staff of the month nominated by the department head or long service award at 5 or 10 years, they feel a sense of obligation and loyalty to stay with the current organization. Meanwhile, once they shared the organizational recognition to peers and family members, employees may develop a sense of emotional satisfaction because of meeting the normative expectations of important others, including

their parents or co-workers. Kuruüzüm et al. (2009) studied and compared the impact of organizational commitment among three subtypes (affective, normative, and continuance). The normative organizational commitment had a greater impact on job satisfaction than affective-subtype with a higher significance level. Fisher et al. (2010) compared the two-dimensions (affective and RCOR constructs) under organizational commitment between the hotel workers in Mexico and China, which show similarity in national culture as collectivism. It shows a large difference between the two groups of workers, which further emphasized that different employee behavior may also be shaped by different countries with similar nation culture. Zopiatis et al. (2014) further explored the impact of normative-subtype on intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, which have significant positive associations.

Again, little research used Mowday et al.'s (1979) scale to measure employee commitment to retain their organizational membership (Alyami, 2013; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001; Fisher et al., 2010). In a labor-intensive industry, NORC and RCOR are a meaningful variable to explore among Chinese hospitality and food service employee with the Chinese culture in mainland China. It is still not known whether RCOR has a significant influence on their satisfaction. This study postulates the following hypothesis:

***H2b:** Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR) is **positively** influenced by JS.*

2.8.2. Occupational Commitment and Work-Related Outcomes

2.8.2.1. Affective Occupational Commitment (AOCC)

Affective commitment (AOCC) represents the degree of desire to stay in the existing occupation (Meyer et al., 1993). This type of individual has already demonstrated fulfillment of occupational participation, such as opportunities provided to complete gratified duties or develop valuable skills. Mansfeld et al. (2010) studied the impact of occupational commitment on employee innovative behaviors, in comparison with five different job positions in research and development (R&D) department of international firms from four European countries. The role of positions comprised expert, power, process, relationship promoter, and champion. The expert promoter has specific technical know-how to advance the idea and develop new solutions. The role of power refers to an individual who has the hierarchical power to lead the project in providing resources and overcome obstacles. Process promoter supports the project using his or her knowledge in the form of internal communications. Relationship promoter is akin to the role of process in that he or she supports the project through external communications, including suppliers, clientele, and other outside institution. Finally, champion denotes whether he or she supports the project through his or her enthusiasm and persistence. In that situation, AOCC was found to exert significant influences on two out of five roles, which are positively associated with the expert role and negatively associated with power promoter. In other words, employees with professional technical knowledge within the organization were found to have a positive effect of affective occupational commitment. Meanwhile, employees with organizational power had a negative impact on AOCC. This type of mindsets could be independent and have different degrees of effects towards

several roles of employees across sectors. In short, different occupations or job positions may reflect a dissimilar perception of occupational commitment.

In another research on scientists and engineers, employee innovation orientation shows a positive association with professional commitment (Perry et al., 2016), which is a different term with a similar concept of affective occupational commitment in this study. Yousaf et al. (2015) also studied the mediating effect of commitment between motivation and task performance by collecting data from doctors in Pakistan. Their study found that AOCC was a significant mediator. They are less sensitive to perceived costs or obligations for decision making on the intention to leave the profession. When an employee decides to stay or leaves their current occupation, their decision would reveal their emotional identification and attachment to the profession rather than a normative burden. This type of commitment could be strengthened by positive work experiences (Meyer & Espinoza, 2016). In a study of chefs within Indonesian restaurant, Yousaf et al. (2016) examined the relationship between a high commitment human resource management, as well as their intention to leave the industry and their workplace. They suggested that occupational turnover intention is not only influenced by a high commitment human resource management system but is also greatly affected by employee perception and commitment with their current occupation. Very little is known about the impact of affective occupational commitment on kitchen employees' creative behaviors in the region of China.

Given the above findings, the affective type of commitment might positively influence employees' creativity as a work-related outcome among professionals. Following these arguments, the researcher could posit that:

*H3a: Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) is **positively** associated with ECP.*

Strongly affective-committed employees might be more likely to join and participate in relevant associations to further develop their career instead of leaving the profession. Chang et al. (2007) explored the relationship between OCC and occupational turnover intention by interviewing nursing staff in Taiwan. AOCC was found to be the strongest predictor of turnover intention among the three components. This affective-subtype under occupational commitment is positively correlated with job satisfaction (Satoh et al., 2017). May et al. (2002) found a positive impact of AOCC on discretionary work effort and overall job satisfaction in the research of financial and telecommunication companies. This finding is supported by other studies on lawyers in Israel (Carmeli & Freund, 2004) and nursing industry in Japan (Caricati et al., 2014; Satoh et al., 2017), but there has been no finding in hospitality research. In a study of casino hotel chef in Las Vegas, researchers found that employees have a higher satisfaction on their work itself (Chuang et al., 2009), which shows employees might have a high affective commitment with the profession. Ko (2012) researched chefs with Chinese cuisine certificate in Taiwan, and he found that professional competence had a positive association with job satisfaction, which builds their career development confidence. The dimensions under professional competence include culinary knowledge, culinary creativity, culinary skill, communicational skill, and their working attitude. Employees with good working attitude and sufficient professional knowledge could maintain their professional competences,

which leads to having a better job satisfaction. Based on the above literature, this study proposes:

***H4a:** Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) is **positively** associated with JS.*

2.8.2.2. Normative Occupational Commitment (NOCC)

The second component is a normative commitment (NOCC), which represents the degree of willingness to stay with the occupation regarding a sense of obligation to continue (Meyer et al., 1993). Similar to AOCC and COCC, employees with a strong normative commitment to stay with their occupation because they believe they ought to do so. For instance, employees may bind a contract to pay back the department due to their extensive training or/ and education funding support. NOCC was found to exert a positive impact on the innovative behavior of experts who are in technical know-how in an R&D department (Mansfeld et al., 2010). Recent studies emphasize the correlation between organizational commitment and creativity (Hou et al., 2011; Jafri, 2010; Rahdarpour & Taboli, 2016), but there has been little discussion on occupational commitment, in terms of normative subtype (Mansfeld et al., 2010). Previous scholars tended to investigate affective-subtype (Yousaf et al., 2016; Yousaf et al., 2015), and NOCC has been neglected in some of the studies within the research of occupational commitment. Little evidence accounted for the effect of a sense of obligations on creative behaviors. Following these arguments, the researcher could posit that:

***H3b:** Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) is **positively** associated with ECP.*

According to Kang, Twigg, and Hertzman (2010), American chefs maintain their professionalism under extreme pressures. Robinson et al. (2014) justified that there is a shared culture of professional behavior or performance, which is considered as a code of conduct for each occupational member. Employees with high normative occupational commitment tend to stay with the occupation because of a sense of obligation to pay back for the industry after receiving training in society. They feel a responsibility to stay in the industry upon training for at least a reasonable period and might feel guilty if they leave the professional industry (Meyer et al., 1993). In research on nursing, Chang et al. (2007) exhibited that normative occupational commitment has a negative impact on occupational turnover intention, which leads to their intention to leave their current organization. Satoh et al. (2017) further confirmed that NOCC is positively correlated with job satisfaction. Based on the above literature, this study proposes:

***H4b:** Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) is **positively** associated with JS.*

2.8.2.3. Continuance Occupational Commitment (COCC)

Continuance commitment (COCC) would denote all potential losses or values of a person's investment if he or she attempted to leave their current occupation (Meyer et al., 1993). Employees with higher COCC are less likely to leave the occupation because there is a perceived high cost of changing occupations. After Carson, Carson, and Bedeian (1995) developed the scale of career entrenchment; scholars identified the indicators that greatly overlap with Meyer et al.'s (1993) continuance component. Blau (2003) has further proposed and combined a four-dimensional model for measuring occupational

commitment by reframing the continuance commitment to include associated costs and limited occupational choices acknowledged by Carson et al. (1995). COCC might be expected to correlate negatively with the tendency to engage in a consistent line of activities or behaviors (Meyer et al., 1993). There is an insignificant impact found between COCC and innovative behaviors in the R&D department in the European context (Mansfeld et al., 2010). COCC has positive or negative correlations with different roles of employees. For instance, COCC has found positive correlations with the employees who are in the role of process and relationship promoters. Whereas a negative correlation appears on the employees in the role of expertise, hierarchical power control, and champion. The current study employed Meyer's et al. (1993) construct, supported by Satoh et al. (2017), in measuring continuance occupational commitment from another perspective and context to explore and analyze its impact on employee creativity. Given these effects, the researcher could posit the following hypothesis:

***H3c:** Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) is **negatively** associated with ECP.*

Carson, Carson, Roe, and Phillips (1996) found that employees with high career entrenchment indicated a high level of normative organizational commitment, lower intention to leave the industry and longer in career tenure. Similarly, Chang et al. (2007) also confirmed COCC had a negative association with occupational turnover intention in a study of nursing. Satoh et al. (2017) further discovered that COCC and job satisfaction have a positive correlation in the nursing industry. So far, no research has been done on hotel employees within the hospitality sector. Cheung, Kong, and Song (2014) showed

that if hotel organizations have a higher concern on employee career development and career training, it leads to higher job satisfaction and brand performance. This impact might be strengthened on the hotel employees with high occupational commitment. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

*H4c: Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) is **positively** associated with JS.*

2.8.3. Job Satisfaction and Employee Creative Performance

Dissatisfied employees tend to be more stressful and less productive (Savery, 1988). Creativity was found positively correlated with job satisfaction and intention to leave (Shalley et al., 2000). Pratten (2003) has found that a lack of motivation and traditional authoritarianism amongst chefs are major issues present in the industry. Hospitality employees are dealing with the limited resource in providing high demand in a stressful working environment (Chuang et al., 2009). A large proportion of chefs are commonly found to have long working hours. Excessive workload and feeling undervalued are common factors to cause stress in the chefs' occupation (Murray-Gibbons & Gibbons, 2007; Rowley & Purcell, 2001). To minimize absenteeism and turnover, job satisfaction is an important issue to retain talent and enhance employees' creativity. Thus, cheerful employees who are committed to their work are considered an invaluable asset in the hospitality industry. Job satisfaction becomes a mediating role between career commitment and job performance (Carmeli & Freund, 2004).

The intrinsically motivated individual in participating or engaging related activities because of their interest or a sense of satisfaction and fulfillment (Hennessey &

Amabile, 1988), which results in better job performance (Amabile, 1993). Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016) recommended practitioners should enhance kitchen employee's job satisfaction by providing a working environment which allows them to demonstrate their creativity because of the strong association between job satisfaction and employee creative behaviors in the workplace (Robinson, 2005). Wong and Ladkin (2008) further suggested that researchers should investigate the relationship between creativity and job satisfaction. Akgunduz, Kizilcalioglu, and Sanli (2018) found that intrinsic job satisfaction has a positive impact on employee creativity in the research of exhibition employees in Turkey. However, there is an insignificant impact of extrinsic job satisfaction. Scholars have widely examined job satisfaction in different contexts due to the importance of staff retention in the occupation of nurses (Satoh et al., 2017), hospitality employees (Øgaard et al., 2008), and chefs (Ko, 2012; Young & Corsun, 2009). Nonetheless, there has been limited study to understand its direct effect on employee creative behaviors (Akgunduz et al., 2018; Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5: Job Satisfaction (JS) is positively impacting ECP.

2.8.4. The Role of Job Satisfaction

In the literature of organizational behavior, employee commitment was found as a mediation role between leadership style and work engagement (Choi et al., 2015), career development and promotional attitude (Chang & Busser, 2017), high commitment human resource management and turnover intention (Yousaf et al., 2016), as well as extrinsic motivation and employee performance (Yousaf et al., 2015). For instances, employees

with high commitment with an organization tend to have a higher work engagement when they perceived inclusive leadership style in their workplace. Similarly, committed and satisfied employees might have a higher engagement with their work duties and perform their work creatively.

Although job satisfaction could directly affect employee creativity, it might also be conceived as a variable which mediates the impact of organizational or occupational commitment on ECP. In the research of Thai hotel employees, they found that empowered employees are more satisfied and exert a positive service behavior (H. J. Kim et al., 2009). Job empowerment is one of the strategies to increase employee commitment with their organization; job satisfaction might also be a potential mediator on the relationship between employee commitment and their creative behavior. Job satisfaction and job stress were found as mediators between creativity and intention to leave the chef profession in Bangkok (Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). Although organizations may provide a working environment for employees to perform creatively, which might result in enhanced job satisfaction, high job stress might have them consider leaving their work. In a study of nurse profession in Japan, job stress and intention to stay in a profession do not have a direct effect, and it was mediated by job satisfaction and occupational commitment (Sato et al., 2017). Job stress might lead to intention to leave the industry. However, the influence could be diminished by a mediator of high job satisfaction. Likewise, different types of commitment to organization and occupation might bring about employee creative behaviors, and the results might be mediated by the degree of job satisfaction. They need a parameter about job satisfaction to evaluate the work and further consider their creative behavior. Part of the aim of this research is to explore the

mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between organizational commitment and employee creative performance, as well as their occupational commitment and employee creativity. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 and 7 are postulated in the conceptual framework:

***H6a:** Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **AORC** and **ECP**.*

***H6b:** Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **RCOR** and **ECP**.*

***H7a:** Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **AOCC** and **ECP**.*

***H7b:** Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **NOCC** and **ECP**.*

***H7c:** Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **COCC** and **ECP**.*

2.9. Defining Key Constructs

One notable manifestation of the multiplicity issue lies in the tendency of scholars to define key factors of creativity in a different way. This reflects the issue of multiple terminologies in the creativity literature. For the sake of conceptual and terminological clarity and consistency, this study has developed working definitions of the key factors, which are summarized in Table 2.16.

Table 2.16 Definition of Key Concepts

Variables	Definitions	Sources
Organizational Commitment (ORC)	The relative strength of an employee's identification with and involvement in the current organization. Consists of three components, value, effort, and retention commitment.	Porter et al. (1974, p. 604)
Affective Organizational commitment (AORC)	"A strong belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values."	Porter et al. (1974, p. 604)
Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)	"A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization." "A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization."	
Occupational Commitment (OCC)	Occupational commitment denotes the strength of motivation to work in a chosen career role. Consists of three components, affective, continuance, and normative.	Meyer et al. (1993)
Affective Occupational Commitment (AOCC)	A person's desire to stay in the occupational role.	Meyer et al. (1993)
Normative Occupational Commitment (NOCC)	With a sense of obligation, a person remains in the current occupation.	Irving et al. (1997)
Continuance Occupational Commitment (COCC)	A person remains in the existing occupation because of perceived leaving costs.	
Employees' Creative Performance (ECP)	The generation of new ideas to resolve any problems or difficulties within human activities.	Amabile (1996)
Job Satisfaction (JS)	A reflection of employee attitude, which is changeable and fragile.	Carmeli and Freund (2004)

2.10. Hypothesized Relationship Among the Major Constructs

This study examines the structural relationship among organizational commitment (ORC), occupational commitment (OCC), job satisfaction (JS), and employees' creativity (ECP). Based on the above literature review, the following hypotheses were proposed. In this research, the hypotheses focus on the perception of kitchen employees as follows.

H1a: Affective organizational commitment (AORC) is **positively** associated with ECP.

H1b: Retention commitment to an organization (RCOR) is **positively** associated with ECP.

H2a: Affective organizational commitment (AORC) is **positively** associated with JS.

H2b: Retention commitment to an organization (RCOR) is **positively** influenced by JS.

H3a: Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) is **positively** associated with ECP.

H3b: Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) is **positively** associated with ECP.

H3c: Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) is **negatively** associated with ECP.

H4a: Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) is **positively** associated with JS.

H4b: Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) is **positively** associated with JS.

H4c: Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) is **positively** associated with JS.

H5: Job Satisfaction (JS) is **positively** impacting ECP.

H6a: Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **AORC** and ECP.

H6b: Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **RCOR** and ECP.

H7a: Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **AOCC** and ECP.

H7b: Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **NOCC** and ECP.

H7c: Job satisfaction (JS) would **mediate** the relationship **COCC** and ECP.

2.11. Conceptual Framework

Based on the research presented in the literature review as well as research objectives of the current study, a conceptual model of the relationships among organizational and occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee creativity was developed and displayed in Figure 2.1.

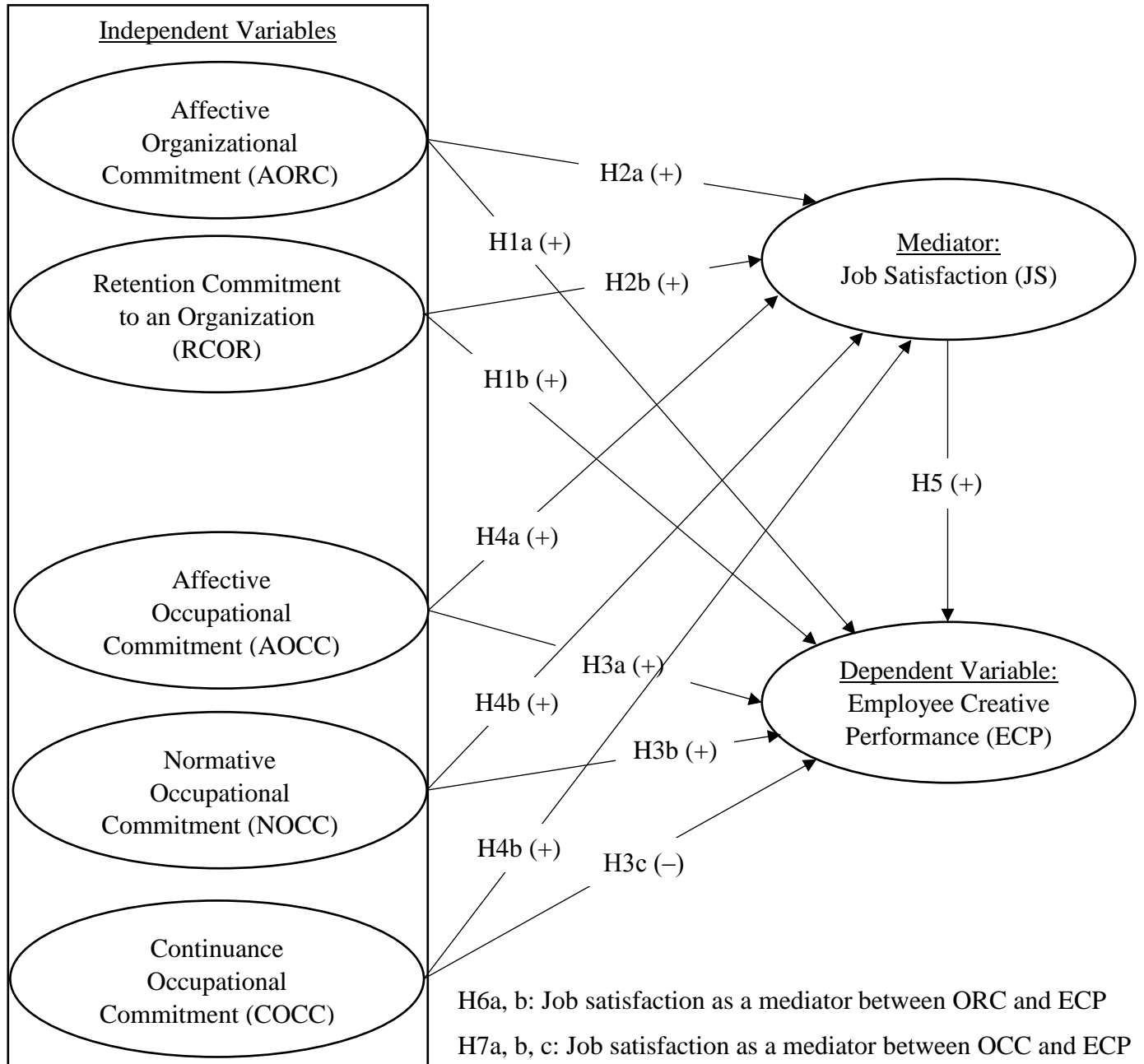


Figure 2.1 Proposed Conceptual Model of the Study

2.12. Chapter Summary

To conclude, this chapter provides comprehensive literature related to three main focused areas in the study. After reviewing the literature, the possible determining factors, namely ORC, OCC, JS, and ECP, are discussed. In summary, ORC consists of two dimensions (i.e. affective organizational commitment - AORC and retention commitment to an organization - RCOR) (Mowday et al., 1979) and OCC consist of three dimensions, namely, affective (want to stay), continuance (have to stay due to associated cost) and normative (ought to stay with obligation) (Blau & Holladay, 2006). The indicator of JS comprises intrinsic (achievement, recognition) and extrinsic factors (working condition, salary, co-workers relations) (Chuang et al., 2009; Herzberg et al., 1959). However, this study only included intrinsic job satisfaction for investigation.

The concept of ECP has been widely investigated from individual and organizational perspectives, except for occupational commitment. In addition, job satisfaction was commonly found to be a consequence of creativity, but the two entities are mutually dependent. This indicates a need to understand the occupational commitment and job satisfaction as independent variables towards employees' creativity. After measuring the ORC, OCC, JS, and ECP, the employees' overall of feelings about the profession were indicated, and the mediating effects of job satisfaction were examined.

Finally, this chapter demonstrates that there is a lack of prior research by integrating these four components (ORC, OCC, JS, and ECP) to study a sample of the chef profession. With the support of wide-ranging journal articles, the connections among ORC, OCC, JS, and ECP of kitchen employees can be explored. The proposed hypotheses

and conceptual model among these three constructs are presented in the last section of this chapter.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Chapter Introduction

This chapter describes a rationale for research design, methodology selection, and survey setting. The reason for targeting the professionals is because the job title itself involves creative behaviors and practices in the working environment. The methods for sampling and the sample size are determined according to the research objectives and feasibility. Data analysis methods are described, including the analytical approaches, methods for reliability, and validity test of the scales. The measurement scale for three main constructs is presented, including occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee creativity, which are adopted from previous studies.

3.2. Research Design

3.2.1. Research Philosophy

The choice of research design should be determined by the research goals and objectives. Positivism and phenomenology are two common research philosophies. A positivist approach aims to determine the uncovering of facts through the formulation and testing of hypotheses to generalize findings from empirical studies (Lincoln & Denzin, 2000). This approach is associated with quantitative data collection, including experiments and surveys. It is more appropriate for a researcher to observe a developed theory rather than to build a ground theory. The phenomenological approach aims to expand the in-depth understanding of what is happening and to set up propositions from the inductive approach. Qualitative methods include observation, in-depth interviews, and/or focus group. Both methods are distinct to serve with different research objectives.

Positivist research relies on quantitative technique and statistical analysis with the purpose of reducing bias and enhancing the rigidity of findings. This approach produces simple and sterile results, which do not account for intangible factors like feeling, and emotions. Phenomenological research has its limitations. More specifically, the findings might be subjective or unreliable. Qualitative methods intend to have a holistic understanding of the phenomenon being studied, which is normally applied to grounded theories instead of the existing ones. This study aims to test and confirm the relationship between existing theories. Thus, the positivist research method is more appropriate to answer the research questions.

3.2.2. Research approach

This study aims to look into the impact of organizational and occupational commitment on employee creative behaviors in Mainland China hotel industry, more specifically in four and five-star rating hotels. The role of job satisfaction as a mediator was also investigated. The research was conducted according to the research procedures proposed by Churchill (1979) and Clark and Watson (1995) as shown in Figure 3.1.

The foremost step is to establish specific research objectives. The evidence that occupational commitment and job satisfaction are associated with creativity is weak and inconclusive. This study aims to investigate the relationships among occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee inventive behaviors. For this reason, a comprehensive critical evaluation of existing literature was undertaken. Creativity and occupational commitment were reviewed, and the related literature on job satisfaction was examined. It was found that scholars have recently considered organizational and

occupational commitment as antecedents of job performance (Carmeli & Freund, 2004). With the support of existing literature, theoretical constructs were specified and developed. Based on the theoretical constructs, a conceptual framework was proposed with specific research hypotheses for investigation. An instrument was established using the information obtained from the literature review. Follow by an expert panel review with academic and industry professionals, the questionnaire was translated into traditional Chinese by adopting back-to-back translation technique, and a pilot study was conducted to ensure that the instruments fit the research context of chef profession in China.

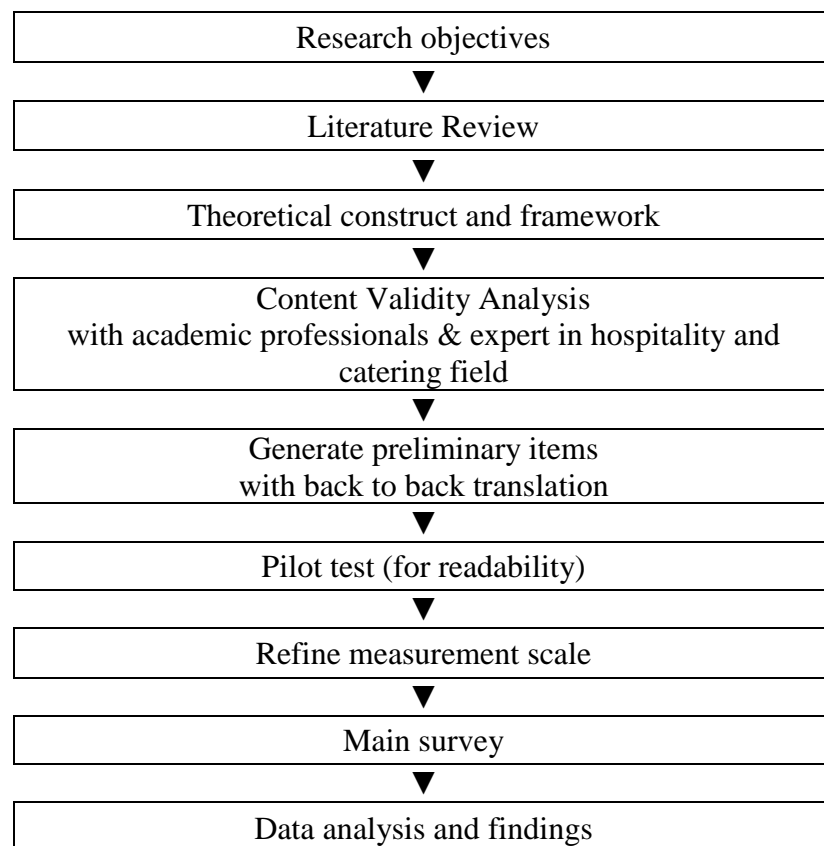


Figure 3.1. Research Design

3.3. Survey Setting, Population, and Sample

3.3.1. Survey Setting and Population

The survey setting for this study included kitchen employees who specialized in Western cuisine in hotel properties in the region. In a fast-changing environment, innovation is an essential factor to be competitive (Hjalager, 2010). Correspondingly, employees are important assets while achieving and maintaining innovation in a labor-intensive industry. Therefore, this study aims to explore the relationship between both commitments and job satisfaction towards employees' creativity. In addition, one of the objectives is to test the mediating effect of job satisfaction between commitments and creative behaviors. Hence, emphasizing the kitchen employee and setting can increase the validity of the test. To reduce common method biases, the questionnaire was designed anonymously and the name of the variables was concealed to reduce the doubts of the respondent when answering the questions. Meanwhile, the measurement items were randomly assigned to the respondents. This study also applied reserve-coded items in the measurement scale to avoid respondents from reducing the motivation of respondents to consistently answer the questions.

This research specifically focuses on kitchen employees in restaurants of 4-star and 5-star hotels in China. During the past five years, around 3,000 restaurants have been introduced in the region. There are currently more than 26,000 restaurants with international cuisine in the territory (China Industrial Research Institute, 2018, April). Under this competitive environment, organizations rely on employees to perform creatively in order to maintain their competitive edge. Therefore, well-developed catering industry and market such as China is an ideal setting for the current research. However,

the perception of organizational commitment may vary from freestanding restaurant to hotel properties. Therefore, this study aims to collect data from kitchen employees who are currently working (at least more than six months) in the hotel properties in the region. With the support of related education, it is imperative to further explore the level of employees' organizational and occupational commitment in the industry and its consequences or effects on job satisfaction as well as employee creativity.

Kitchen employees refer to two groups according to job levels, namely, (1) managerial level, and (2) operational level. The managerial level of chefs consists of a culinary director, executive chef, executive sous chef, executive pastry chef, pastry chef, chef de cuisine and sous chef, who are responsible for developing new menus, creating the standard of food quality and hygiene and coordinating with other departments for business and management purpose. Kitchen employees, under operational level, are to ensure that the preparation of food items are ready in time for daily operation, which also includes senior cooks and junior cooks. In this academic study, the lowest level of staff in the kitchen titled with commis I/II/III or junior cook A/B/C is also taken into account as an operational employee. Although the operational staff is not required to create the dish, they might also use a certain level of creativity when performing the work duties such as solving problems or coming up with a faster way to perform daily tasks.

3.3.2. Sample Size

Sample size should be considered and decided based on the information included in a sample of the population. Sample size determination depends on four factors, which are population size, desired precision (i.e., sampling error, the margin of error, or confidence interval), as well as variability and confidence level (Cochran, 1977). Each factor may influence the result of the desired sample size. Generally, a large sample size is considered as a better approach than a small one if they are both randomly selected (Anderson, Sweeney, Williams, Camm, & Martin, 2011). Due to the time and budget limitations, the researcher needs to strike a balance between optimal sample sizes and feasibility. Besides, estimation becomes more sensitive to the difference which may bring about a poor fit in goodness-of-fit indices with a large sample. In this regard, researchers should not always maximize sample without reflective consideration (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Based on the SEM approach, the opinions on a minimum number of the sample are different. Sample sizes are considered as large when there are either over 200 or calculation of 5 or 10 cases per parameters (Kline, 2005) in the study of SEM, irrespective of the fact that Stevens (1996) claimed that sample size should be larger than 400 to avoid model misspecification. Many researchers determined the sample size based on the concept of rules. In the following, Hair et al. (2010, p. 662) suggested a minimum sample size based on the model complexity and basic measurement model characteristics in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Minimum Sample Size Determination

Minimum Sample Size	Model Complexity and Basic Measurement Model Characteristics (Hair et al., 2010, p. 662)
100	Models containing five or fewer constructs, each with more than three items (observed variables), and with high item communalities (.6 or higher).
150	Models with seven or fewer constructs, modest communalities (.5) and no under-identified constructs.
300	Models with seven or fewer constructs, lower communalities (below .45) and/or multiple under-identified (fewer than three items) constructs.
500	Models with large numbers of constructs, some with lower communalities, and/or having fewer than three measured items.

After considering the suggestion of Hair et al. (2010) mentioned above, the researcher has selected 500 to be a lower bound for the optimal sample size. Therefore, this study decided to collect over 500 samples representing the population of kitchen employees in hotel properties of the region.

3.3.3. Sampling

This study adopted criteria and convenience sampling. There are 860 hotel properties rated as five-stars hotel, located in Mainland China in different provinces, grouped according to three economic zones, known as East, middle and west districts (Ministry of Commerce, 2017). East district has 582 five-star hotel organizations, which is greater than the middle (145) and West district (133) (Daily headlines, 2018). Due to a large sample size requirement, this study also considered collecting data from four-star hotel properties in Mainland China from the three districts. The main survey was conducted in any kitchens, situated in four-star and five-star hotels in Mainland China. To reach the minimum sample size, the researcher contacted at least 40 hotel properties

(4-star and 5-star hotels) for each district in Mainland China, including different provinces listed in Table 3.2.

An invitation letter was sent to general managers, human resource managers, and/or executive chefs of hotels in Mainland China with a research package explaining the nature of this study. Once they showed interest to participate, the researcher sent follow up emails and made personal phone calls to explain the survey process. Depending on the number of kitchen employees, around 60 to 100 sets of survey pack were then mailed to the interested hotels. Each survey pack included a cover letter, questionnaire, and an envelope. The responsible persons were asked to distribute the survey to the kitchen employees by convenience sampling. After the participated hotels received the survey packs, researchers further communicate with the managerial employees or persons in charge to explain the nature of the study and survey process. The participants were asked to report their organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and their creative performance in their workplace. There were not any other restrictions foisted during the process. Participants were instructed to place the completed surveys into the envelope and seal it before passing it to the person in charge to ensure confidentiality. There was no inducement or pressure to augment the number of samples. All the completed surveys with individual envelopes were returned to researchers by post. The data collection period was conducted from 16 January to 30 July 2018.

Table 3.2 Numbers of 5-star Hotels in Mainland China Grouped into Three Districts (As of updated by the end of 2017)

District	Province	No. of 5-stars Hotels	Subtotal
East District	1. Beijing	61	582
	2. Fujian	50	
	3. Guangdong	108	
	4. Hainan	27	
	5. Hebei	21	
	6. Jiangsu	86	
	7. Liaoning	27	
	8. Shandong	30	
	9. Shanghai	75	
	10. Tianjin	15	
	11. Zhejiang	82	
Middle District	1. Anhui	25	145
	2. Heilongjiang	6	
	3. Henan	20	
	4. Hubei	20	
	5. Hunan	19	
	6. Jiangxi	17	
	7. Jilin	5	
	8. Shaanxi	16	
	9. Shanxi	17	
West District	1. Chongqing	28	133
	2. Gansu	3	
	3. Guangxi	12	
	4. Guizhou	6	
	5. Inner Mongolia	10	
	6. Ningxia	0	
	7. Qinghai	3	
	8. Sichuan	33	
	9. Tibet	4	
	10. Xinjiang	15	
	11. Yunnan	19	

Source: Daily headlines (2018)

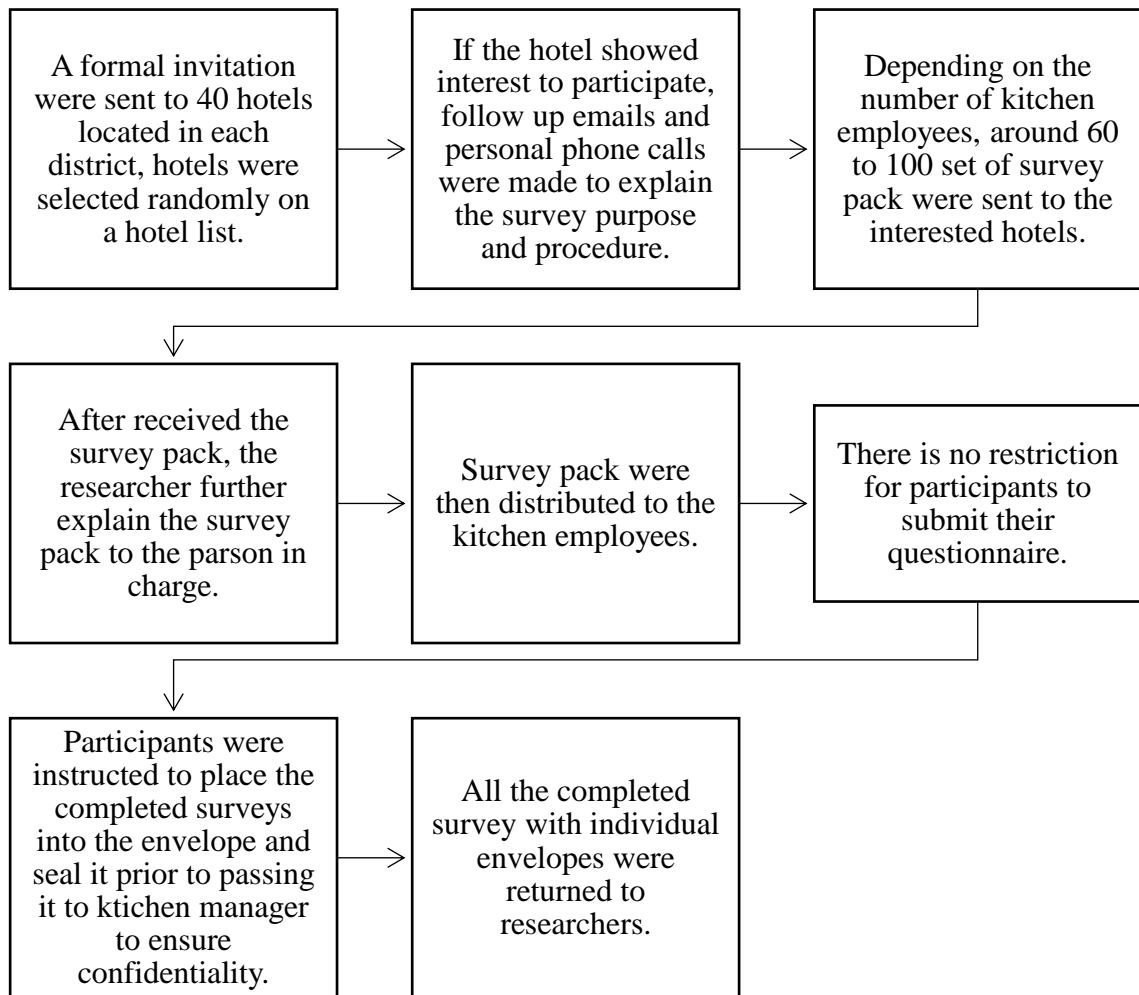


Figure 3.2 Sampling Procedure

3.4. Research Instrument Development

This study employed a questionnaire to measure all variables. The questionnaire includes five sections for participants. Section one includes organizational commitment. Section two and three consists of occupational commitment and job satisfaction, respectively. Section four includes employee creative performance for participants to self-reporting. Section five aims to obtain the demographic profile of respondents (see Appendix III).

According to the procedures obtained from previous studies, the development of the measurement items for this study contains the following phases, (1) recognizing the field of construct, (2) generating sample items, (3) data collection for pilot test, (4) purifying the measure, (5) collect data for main study, (6) reviewing reliability of new data, (7) assess construct validity, and finally (8) developing norms (Churchill, 1979). These steps are discussed to be the most appropriate procedures to develop a reliable and valid multi-item instrument (Getty & Thompson, 1994).

To begin the process, the domain of the construct has been addressed in chapter two. Based on the literature, the main constructs for this study are ORC, OCC, JS, and ECP. Then, items under each construct are identified from the relevant literature, mainly hospitality and catering research. Following the expert panel review, the instrument is ready for back to back translation to create a drafted survey, after which a small sample of 20 is selected for a pilot study to ensure the readability of the questionnaire. Finally, the final survey with valid and reliable measurement scale items is established for the main study.

3.4.1. Measurement Scale of Organizational Commitment

The measurement of ORC has been adopted from Mowday et al. (1979), which is supported by current studies in hospitality and catering research (Bai et al., 2006; Øgaard et al., 2008; Patiar & Wang, 2016). The scale measures organizational commitment in two main areas, namely, affective organizational commitment (9 items) and retention commitment towards an organization (6 reversely coded items), making a 15-items scale, indicated in Table 3.3. Multiple items measured by seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) are employed.

Table 3.3 Measurement Items for Organizational Commitment

Measuring Variables	Statements by Mowday et al. (1979)	Supported by Hospitality Research
Affective organizational commitment (AORC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organization be successful. 2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. 3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment to keep working for this organization. 4. I find that my values and the organization's value are very similar. 5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. 6. This organization inspires the very best in the way of job performance. 7. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for others. 8. I care about the fate of this organization. 9. For me, this is the best of all possible organization for which to work. 	Bai et al. (2006); Bozeman and Perrewé (2001); Øgaard et al. (2008); Patiar and Wang (2016)

Table 3.3 Continued

Measuring Variables	Statements by Mowday et al. (1979)	Supported by Hospitality Research
Retention commitment to an organization (RCOR)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (R) 2. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R) 3. There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (R) 4. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on an important matter relating to its employees. (R) 5. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. (R) 6. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (R) 	<p>Bai et al. (2006); Bozeman and Perrewé (2001)</p>

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Note: Items denoted with (R) are reversely scored.

3.4.2. Measurement Scale of Occupational Commitment

Meyer et al. (1993) developed an instrument to measure the occupational commitment into three components (AOCC, COCC and NOCC), which are supported by existing studies (Chang et al., 2007; Irving et al., 1997; Mansfeld et al., 2010; Satoh et al., 2017; Snape & Redman, 2003; Yousaf et al., 2015) and hospitality and catering research (Hanan & Zainal, 2012; Yousaf et al., 2016). This study borrowed the statements to evaluate employees' commitment to their current profession shown in Table 3.4. The wordings of "nurse" in the original scale have been replaced by "chef" or "culinary" for this study. Examples of such measurement items include, "I am proud to be in the culinary profession" for measuring affective occupational commitment. "It would be costly for me to change my profession now" for indicating continuance occupational commitment. For normative type, the sample item is "I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period" Multiple items by

seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) are employed. The measurement items are positively and negatively stated; therefore, reversed coding was needed for items which are negatively stated and highlighted in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Measurement Items for Occupational Commitment

Measuring Variables	Statements by Meyer et al. (1993)	Support by Catering, Hospital and Nursing Research
Affective occupational commitment (AOCC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The chef is important to my self-image. 2. I regret having entered the chef profession. (R) 3. I am proud to be in the culinary profession. 4. I dislike being a chef. (R) 5. I do not identify with the chef profession. (R) 6. I am enthusiastic about the chef or culinary. 	Chang et al. (2007); Hanan and Zainal (2012); Yousaf et al. (2015); Yousaf et al. (2016); Satoh et al. (2017)
Normative occupational commitment (NOCC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period. 2. I do not feel any obligation to remain in the culinary profession. (R) 3. I feel a responsibility to the culinary profession to continue in it. 4. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave the culinary industry now. 5. I would feel guilty if I left the culinary industry. 6. I am in a chef position because of a sense of loyalty to it. 	Chang et al. (2007); Hanan and Zainal (2012); Satoh et al. (2017)
Continuance occupational commitment (COCC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I have put too much into the culinary profession to consider changing now. 2. Changing professions now would be difficult for me to do. 3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession. 4. It would be costly for me to change my profession now. 5. There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions. (R) 6. Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice. 	Chang et al. (2007); Hanan and Zainal (2012); Satoh et al. (2017)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Note: Items denoted with (R) are reversely scored.

3.4.3. Measurement Scale of Employee Creative Performance

Employees were asked to self-report their creative behavior and performance. The measurement scale with 13 items was borrowed from Zhou and George (2001), which has been supported by previous research (George & Zhou, 2007; Shin & Zhou, 2003) and validated in hospitality research (Hon, 2012; Hon et al., 2013; T.-Y. Kim et al., 2009). Sample items are as follows, “Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives” and “Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and product ideas”. Employees’ creativity was measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree” (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5 Measurement Items for Employee Creative Performance

Measuring Variable	Statements by Zhou and George (2001)	Supported by Hospitality and Catering Research
Employee Creative Performance (ECP)	1. Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives.	T.-Y. Kim et al. (2009); Hon (2012); Hon et al. (2013)
	2. Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance.	
	3. Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and product ideas.	
	4. Suggests new ways to increase quality.	
	5. He/ She is a good source of creative ideas.	
	6. Not afraid to take risks.	
	7. Promotes and champions ideas to others.	
	8. Exhibits creativity on the job when allowed.	
	9. Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.	
	10. Often has new and innovative ideas.	
	11. Often has a fresh approach to problems.	
	12. Comes up with creative solutions to problems.	
	13. Suggests new ways of performing work tasks.	

(Source: Compiled by the author)

3.4.4. Measurement Scale of Job Satisfaction

This study adopted a job satisfaction scale with five-items from Lytle (1997), supported by hospitality research (Chiang et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2005) and in-depth expert interviews. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they are satisfied with their current work duties ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Table 3.6 Measurement Items for Job Satisfaction

Measuring Variable	Statements from Lytle (1997)	Supported by Catering Research
Job Satisfaction (JS)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I consider my job pleasant. 2. I feel fairly-well satisfied with my present job. 3. I definitely like my work. 4. My job is pretty interesting 5. I find real enjoyment in my work. 	Kim et al. (2005); Chiang et al. (2014)

(Source: Compiled by the author)

3.4.5. Demographic Variables

Data on individual and work-related variables were collected as control variables. Despite the fact that it is not a direct interest of this study, prior studies controlled by a set of demographic variables (gender, age, education background, and year(s) with current company) to reduce potential confounds on employee creative performance (Hon, 2012; Shalley et al., 2004; Zhou & George, 2001). Besides, this study attempted to collect additional information from participants, such as year(s) working in the current occupation, year(s) working with the current supervisor, number of employees in the kitchen, and types of cuisines for future research.

3.4.6. Overall Questionnaire Statements

The construction of the survey instrument includes surveys for chefs and kitchen employees with all levels of positions. The instrument is designed for employees to report their organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-reporting employee creative performance. All the ratings are on a 7-point Likert scale of the agreement or satisfaction level over the statements. The last part is the demographic data collection. All the measurement scales are adopted and supported by previous literature. Therefore, the two-step approach of CFA and SEM was used to analyze the data upon data collection (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Based on the arguments on the number of factors extracted for organizational commitment scale (indicated in Section 2.3), this study also conducted exploratory factor analysis to identify the number of factors extracted from the scale.

Table 3.7 Overall Preliminary Questionnaire Statements

Measuring Variables	Statements Reported by Employees
Affective organizational commitment (AORC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organization be successful. 2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. 3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment to keep working for this organization. 4. I find that my values and the organization's value are very similar. 5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. 6. This organization really inspires the very best in the way of job performance. 7. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for others. 8. I care about the fate of this organization. 9. For me, this is the best of all possible organization for which to work.

Table 3.7 Continued

Measuring Variables	Statements Reported by Employees
Retention commitment to an organization (RCOR)	10. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (R) 11. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (R) 12. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R) 13. There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (R) 14. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on an important matter relating to its employees. (R) 15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. (R)
Affective occupational commitment (AOCC)	16. The chef is important to my self-image. 17. I regret having entered the chef profession. (R) 18. I am proud to be in the culinary profession. 19. I dislike being a chef. (R) 20. I do not identify with the chef profession. (R) 21. I am enthusiastic about the chef or culinary.
Normative occupational commitment (NOCC)	22. I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period. 23. I do not feel any obligation to remain in the culinary profession. (R) 24. I feel a responsibility to the culinary profession to continue in it. 25. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave the culinary industry now. 26. I would feel guilty if I left the culinary industry. 27. I am in a chef position because of a sense of loyalty to it.
Continuance occupational commitment (COCC)	28. I have put too much into the culinary profession to consider changing now. 29. Changing professions now would be difficult for me to do. 30. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession. 31. It would be costly for me to change my profession now. 32. There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions. (R) 33. Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice.
Job Satisfaction (JS)	34. I consider my job pleasant. 35. I feel fairly-well satisfied with my present job. 36. I definitely like my work. 37. My job is pretty interesting. 38. I find real enjoyment in my work.

Table 3.7 Continued

Measuring Variables	Statements Reported by Employees
Employee Creative Performance (ECP)	39. Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives. 40. Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance. 41. Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and product ideas. 42. Suggests new ways to increase quality. 43. Is a good source of creative ideas? 44. Not afraid to take risks. 45. Promotes and champions ideas to others. 46. Exhibits creativity on the job when allowed. 47. Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas. 48. Often has new and innovative ideas. 49. Often has a fresh approach to problems. 50. Comes up with creative solutions to problems. 51. Suggests new ways of performing work tasks.

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Note: Items denoted with (R) are reversely scored.

3.4.7. Expert Panel Review

Since the measurement items in this study were developed based on extensive literature in other countries, an expert panel review was undertaken to examine and enrich the relevance and importance of the items. The experts included 5 academic researchers and 5 professional chefs who are currently working in Hong Kong. It conducted from 15 December 2017 to 15 January 2018. An invitation letter was sent to 10 selected experts in person or via email to solicit their assistance to review the items from previous stages, after which a screening form was sent to them for revision.

The panel was invited to rate the degree of relevance under each of the 54 measurement items. The degree of relevance is divided into three levels, not relevant (1), relevant (2), and very relevant (3). The experts were asked to assess the representativeness of the items of each construct in the survey and to check if any inappropriate or misleading items should be amended (Grant & Davis, 1997). The wordings, structure, and sentences

of the items were then modified, where necessary. The criteria for retaining an item are based on the agreement if five or more experts rate the item as very relevant or six of the experts judge the item to be either relevant or very relevant to the construct (Ap & Crompton, 1998).

3.4.8. Back to Back Translation

After the expert panel review, a draft survey was compiled. As the food service employees in China are the target sample, a bilingual version of the questionnaire was designed for better understanding. The measurement statements for this study were developed based on the English context, back to back-translation method was applied to translate the English version of statements into Traditional Chinese by two bilingual experts to guarantee its accuracy.

3.4.9. Pilot Study

After the development and translation of the survey, a pilot test was undertaken. The drafted survey instruments were evaluated through an investigation of measurement errors, reliability, and construct validity (both convergent and discriminant validity) to create a reliable survey for the main study. It aims to identify and remedy potential difficulties of the initial instruments, including ambiguities, biases, and missing attributes of wording. The results were used to amend and modify the design, structure, and wordings to ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire.

The initial survey was distributed to 20 employees who are working in the kitchen operation of hotels in China. The pilot study was conducted from 15 December 2017 to 15 January 2018.

3.5. Methods for Data Analysis

3.5.1. Analytical Approaches

After the data collection and screening, this study performed descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and structural equation modeling (SEM). This study also performed Bootstrapping methods and Sobel testing to examine the mediation effect. The framework is shown in Figure 3.3. SEM has been widely adopted in the analysis of multiple constructs, especially in the analysis of causal links between latent constructs. The application of SEM in hospitality industry studies has been justified (Reisinger & Turner, 1999). In this study, the main research question concerns the commitment from two perspectives (i.e., organization and occupation), and about these, several variables must be considered. For this type of complex relationship with multiple observed variables, a few of which may have impacts on others, and so SEM analysis is a suitable choice (Reisinger & Turner, 1999).

The purpose of the descriptive analysis is to profile the respondents' demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education level, work tenure, working positions, types of specialized cuisine, and types of restaurant. They will be used to compare the mean values and standard deviations for each scale by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

The measurement scale of four main constructs was proved and obtained from the existing literature. Data analysis will be conducted by using the software of SPSS and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS). This study performed a pilot test to ensure accessibility and readability of the survey in both English and Chinese for the kitchen employees in the context of China to refine and confirmed the measurement scales.

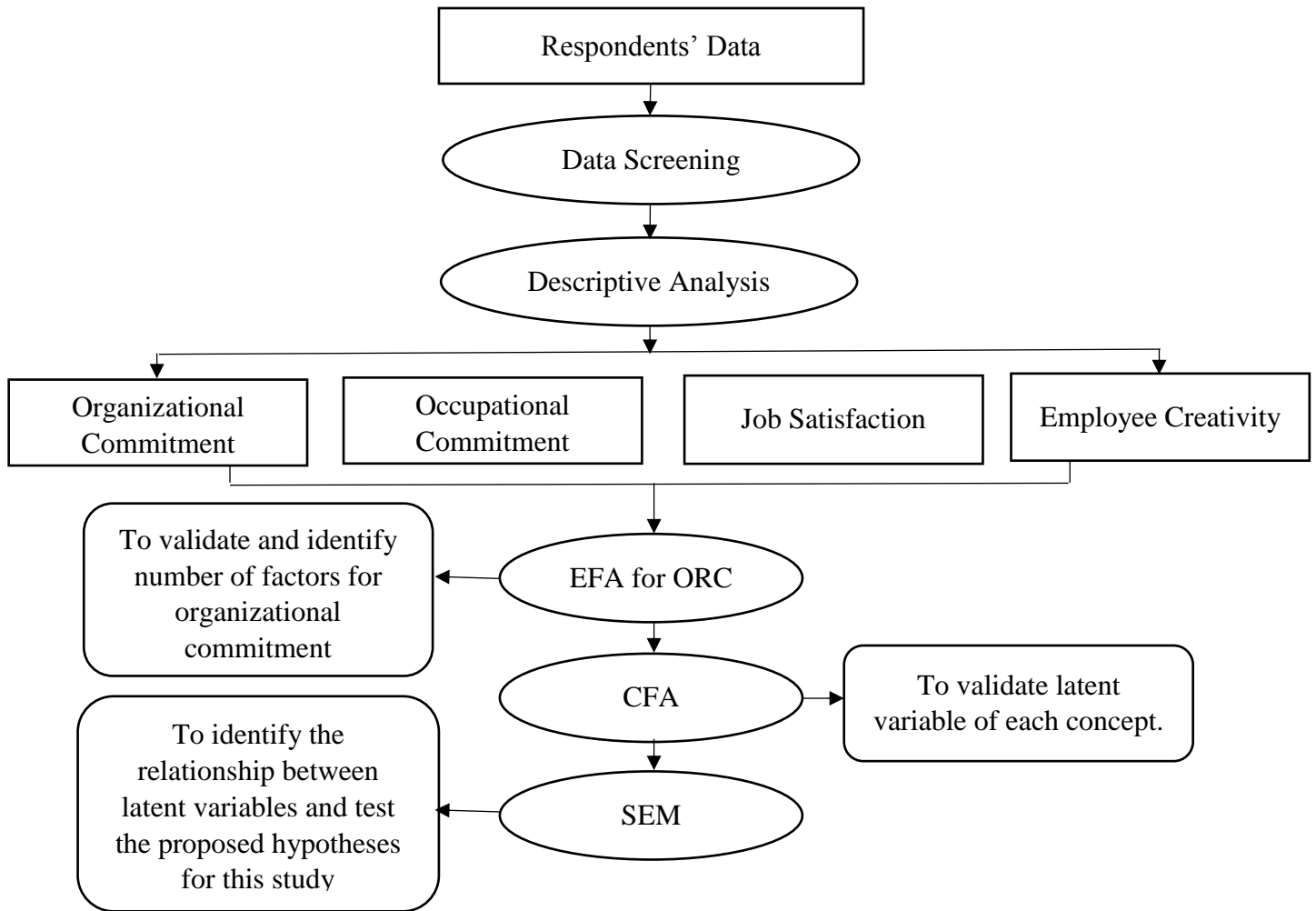


Figure 3.3 Data Analysis Procedure

All the measurement scales used in this study were widely tested and assessed in the existing literature, except for organizational commitment scale. Scholars have found one to three factors extracted from the same scale. Therefore, this study performed an exploratory factor analysis for this construct to identify a number of factors in this context before conducting Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The main study was conducted with a refined survey. The overall model will be confirmed by CFA before conducting SEM. Lastly, the hypotheses, including direct and mediating effects, will be tested based on the structural model.

3.5.2. Testing the Reliability and Validity of the Measurements

The present study used Cronbach's alpha (α) to measure the reliability of each measurement. It is a widely-used parameter to evaluate the internal consistency of scales composed of multiples items by examining the correlations between items with the data. The Cronbach alpha coefficient should be higher than 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011) to be considered acceptable and reliable for basic research.

In addition, this study also confirmed the convergent and discriminant validity by using AMOS. All factor loadings are above 0.7 with a squared factor loading larger than 0.5, and convergent validity was recognized later (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). As for discriminant validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) is commonly used to estimate the overall amount of variance explained by a construct about the variance causing measurement error. The AVE test for each construct should exceed 0.5 to achieve discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3.5.3. Testing the Mediating Effects

The mediating effect is defined as the situation when the relationship between the dependent variable (ECP) and independent variables (ORC & OCC) can be explained by a third variable as a mediator (JS). After running SEM by using a software of AMOS, Bootstrapping method and Sobel testing were used to test the indirect effect. Sobel (1982) suggested z-test to estimate the indirect effect and its significance. If the Sobel test is significant at 0.05, the mediation is significant.

3.6. Chapter Summary

This chapter introduces the research methodology for this study. First, it delivers an explanation of the research design with a forecasted time plan. The next section clarified the selection of measurement items for each variable of the conceptual model. Afterward, it addresses the implementation of data collection for both the pilot test and the main study. Finally, the discussion of data analysis techniques for this study, in terms of tools, procedures, and criteria were mentioned.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

4.1. Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the main survey, including data screening, descriptive analysis, normality testing, CFA results. The final section presents the findings of the overall measurement model, structural model, and indirect effect tests for proposed hypotheses.

4.2. Data Screening

The data used for the main study were screened to guarantee their appropriateness for further investigation. The target samples for this study are kitchen employees who have been working full time in 4-stars or 5-star hotel properties in Mainland China for at least more than six months. Those who are working part-time in a hotel or working full-time in the hotel for less than six months were excluded in the study. Hence, two screening questions were included in the survey, “Are you a full-time kitchen employee in this hotel?” and “Did you have 6-months working experience in this hotel?” Only respondents who identified themselves as full-time employees and who have been working in the hotel property for more than six months were invited to complete the questionnaire. A total of 1,447 responses remained at this stage after data screening. As requested by the managers of the participating hotels, the hotel names were kept strictly confidential. Finally, 1,447 questionnaires were collected from eighteen 4-star hotels and thirty-five 5-star hotels.

4.3. Missing Data and Outliers

The next step is to screen the data set to see whether there are missing data and outliers. Inspired by Kline (2011), missing data can pose problems for multivariate data analysis. In this study, 30 respondents did not answer more than one-fourth of the survey. They were, therefore, removed for further investigation. This study also conducted Box plots and descriptive analysis by using SPSS to identify outliers. Finally, 29 outliers were detected and removed, leaving 1,388 responses ready for a CFA and SEM analysis.

4.4. Descriptive Statistics and Normality Test

Table 4.1 shows the normality test for the measurement items. It is an essential step before conducting SEM analysis by analyzing skewness and kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). Negative or positive values of skewness mean that most of the scores are either higher or lower than the mean score, respectively. In this situation, the majority of the indicators were higher than the mean score. The positive value of kurtosis refers to heavy tail and flatter than normal, whereas the negative values indicate a higher peak than normal. According to the guideline from Kline (2011), the absolute cutoff value for skewness is 3, and the value larger than 3 is considered as greatly skewed.

Meanwhile, the cutoff point for kurtosis value was set at 8.0 in the present study. The absolute values of skewness were between 0.04 and 0.94. The kurtosis values were between 0.16 and 5.81, and as a result of that indicating univariate normal distribution assumption was not severely violated.

Table 4.1 Normality Test for Measurement Items ($n=1388$)

Constructs	Items	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistics	S.E.	Statistics	S.E.
Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC)	AORC1	5.80	-1.77	0.07	3.35	0.13
	AORC2	5.73	-1.61	0.07	2.53	0.13
	AORC3	5.25	-0.92	0.07	0.19	0.13
	AORC4	5.34	-1.13	0.07	0.96	0.13
	AORC5	5.73	-1.56	0.07	2.63	0.13
	AORC6	5.45	-1.21	0.07	1.25	0.13
	AORC7	5.64	-1.41	0.07	2.19	0.13
	AORC8	5.80	-1.58	0.07	2.76	0.13
	AORC9	5.26	-0.90	0.07	0.38	0.13
Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)	RCOR1	5.65	-1.45	0.07	1.17	0.13
	RCOR2	4.23	-0.04	0.07	-1.20	0.13
	RCOR3	5.01	-0.72	0.07	-0.39	0.13
	RCOR4	5.31	-1.04	0.07	0.22	0.13
	RCOR5	4.39	-0.16	0.07	-1.02	0.13
	RCOR6	5.72	-1.52	0.07	2.14	0.13
Affective Occupational Commitment (AOCC)	AOCC1	6.09	-2.03	0.07	5.81	0.13
	AOCC2	5.751	-1.50	0.07	1.91	0.13
	AOCC3	5.95	-1.70	0.07	3.50	0.13
	AOCC4	5.80	-1.59	0.07	2.45	0.13
	AOCC5	5.81	-1.72	0.07	2.44	0.13
	AOCC6	6.04	-1.78	0.07	4.08	0.13
Continuance Occupational Commitment (COCC)	COCC1	5.31	-0.95	0.07	0.40	0.13
	COCC2	4.85	-0.61	0.07	-0.57	0.13
	COCC3	4.69	-0.48	0.07	-0.70	0.13
	COCC4	4.31	-0.20	0.07	-0.95	0.13
	COCC5	2.68	0.94	0.07	0.31	0.13
	COCC6	4.85	-0.63	0.07	-0.49	0.13
Normative Occupational Commitment (NOCC)	NOCC1	5.65	-1.34	0.07	1.48	0.13
	NOCC2	5.38	-0.99	0.07	0.16	0.13
	NOCC3	5.00	-0.62	0.07	-0.50	0.13
	NOCC4	4.58	-0.34	0.07	-0.88	0.13
	NOCC5	4.68	-0.37	0.07	-0.80	0.13
	NOCC6	5.37	-0.95	0.07	0.33	0.13
Job Satisfaction (JS)	JS1	5.56	-1.27	0.07	1.63	0.13
	JS2	5.45	-1.12	0.07	1.14	0.13
	JS3	5.71	-1.32	0.07	1.89	0.13
	JS4	5.57	-1.21	0.07	1.48	0.13
	JS5	5.45	-1.05	0.07	0.79	0.13

Table 4.1 Continued

Constructs	Items	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistics	S.E.	Statistics	S.E.
Employee Creative Performance (ECP)	ECP1	5.66	-1.27	0.07	2.10	0.13
	ECP2	5.74	-1.33	0.07	2.54	0.13
	ECP3	5.74	-1.35	0.07	2.60	0.13
	ECP4	5.78	-1.44	0.07	2.94	0.13
	ECP5	5.60	-1.11	0.07	1.75	0.13
	ECP6	5.50	-1.22	0.07	1.47	0.13
	ECP7	5.71	-1.14	0.07	1.76	0.13
	ECP8	5.79	-1.28	0.07	2.32	0.13
	ECP9	5.78	-1.35	0.07	2.74	0.13
	ECP10	5.78	-1.29	0.07	2.30	0.13
	ECP11	5.63	-1.17	0.07	1.86	0.13
	ECP12	5.75	-1.22	0.07	2.18	0.13
	ECP13	5.67	-1.16	0.07	1.87	0.13

4.5. Demographic Profile of the Respondents

4.5.1. Respondents Categorized in 4 Stars or 5 Stars Hotel by Province ($n=1388$)

Table 4.2 shows the breakdown of participants from different provinces with the number of participated hotels. There are 53 hotels in total that agreed to participate in this research project. 18 out of 53 are four-star hotels, and the rest of the 35 hotel properties are rated as five-star ranking. To be specific, the data were collected from 12 four-star and 24 five-star hotels located in East district, 5 four-star and 5 five-star hotels in middle district, as well as 1 four-stars and 6 five stars hotel in West district. Of the 1,388 respondents, most are working in East district (1007), followed by middle district (237) and West district (144).

Table 4.2 Respondents Categorized in 4-star or 5-star Hotels by Province ($n=1388$)

District	Province	No. of Respondent(s)	Percentage	No. of hotel(s)
East District	Beijing	178	12.8	6
	Fujian	233	16.8	6
	Guangdong	357	25.7	9
	Hainan	90	6.5	8
	Hebei	8	0.7	1
	Shanghai	121	8.7	3
	Zhejiang	20	1.4	3
Middle District	Anhui	82	5.9	1
	Hunan	11	0.8	1
	Jilin	100	7.2	5
	Shaanxi	9	0.6	1
	Shanxi	35	2.5	2
West District	Chongqing	19	1.4	2
	Guizhou	19	1.4	1
	Yunnan	106	7.6	4
Total		1,388	100	53

Table 4.3 indicates the profile of the respondents. Among the respondents, 79.4% were male, and 20.6% were female. Their age ranged are equally spread to mainly four groups, namely, 25-34 (35.6%), below 24 (23.6%), 35-44 (27.4%) and 45 or above (13.3%). 98.1% of the respondent have secondary school qualifications or above. Only a minority of respondents are equipped with bachelor qualification or above. In terms of culinary education, 80.5% of them had a culinary-related certificate or education.

The respondents come from different types of restaurants, including fine dining (36.5%), buffet (33.2%), preparation kitchen (13.8%), followed by causal restaurant (7.3%), pastry kitchen (4.7%), banquet kitchen (3.5%) and café/ lounge (1.1%). The respondents are also requested to answer the types of cuisines that they are responsible for during working hours up to three choices. Therefore, the majority of respondents respond with Chinese (62.0%) and Western (40.4%), followed by pastry (11.5%),

Japanese (6.2%), ice craving or vegetable craving (1.8%) as well as southeast Asian cuisine (0.4%). The current position of respondents is also divided into Chinese and non-Chinese kitchen outlets for future investigation. The respondents are mainly from the western kitchen (77.7%), Chinese kitchen (20.3%). 24.2% of respondents are managerial employees, and 75.8% are operational employees. Half the respondents mention their weekly working hours are 41-50 hours (50.8%), followed by 51-60 hours (24.3%), 61-70 hours (13.0%), less than 40 hours (6.1%) and more than 71 hours (5.8%).

Table 4.3 Demographic Profile of the Respondents ($n=1388$)

Items	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	1102	79.4
	Female	286	20.6
Age	18-24	328	23.6
	25-34	494	35.6
	35-44	381	27.4
	45-54	174	12.5
	55 or above	11	0.8
Education Level	Primary school	26	1.9
	Secondary school/ college	1150	82.9
	Diploma/ higher diploma	185	13.3
	Bachelor	22	1.6
	Master's degree or above	5	0.4
Culinary Education	With Culinary Certificate/ Education	1117	80.5
	Without Culinary Certificate/ Education	271	19.5
Types of Restaurant	Fine Dining	507	36.5
	Buffet	461	33.2
	Cafe/ Lounge	15	1.1
	Casual Restaurant	91	7.3
	Preparation Kitchen	191	13.8
	Pastry Kitchen	65	4.7
	Canteen/ Banquet	48	3.5
Types of Cuisine* (*Respondents could choose up to 3 types)	Chinese	861	62.0
	Western	560	40.4
	Japanese	86	6.2
	Pastry	160	11.5
	Ice Craving/ Vegetable Carving	25	1.8
	Southeast Asian cuisine	5	0.4

Table 4.3 Continued

Items	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Current Position (Non-Chinese Kitchen)	Commis	552	39.8
	Demi Chef	28	2.0
	Chef de Partie	170	12.2
	Sous Chef	86	6.2
	Chef de Cuisine	196	14.1
	Exe. Sous Chef	28	2.0
	Exe. Chef	20	1.4
Current Position (Chinese Kitchen)	Cook	24	1.7
	Chopping Chef	58	4.2
	Cold Kitchen Chef	40	2.9
	Stove Chef	41	3.0
	Plating Chef	8	0.6
	Dim Sum Chef	62	4.5
	Wok Chef	8	0.6
	Barbecue Chef	20	1.4
	Steam Chef	32	2.3
	Braise Chef	8	0.6
	Section Head	1	0.1
	Chef de Cuisine	2	0.1
	Exe. Chef	4	0.3
Level of Job Position	Operational Employees	1036	74.6
	Managerial Employees	352	25.3
Working hours	Less than 40hrs	85	6.1
	41-50hrs	705	50.8
	51-60hrs	337	24.3
	61-70hrs	181	13.0
	More than 71hrs	80	5.8
No. of years in the current hotel (Organizational tenure)	Less than 5 years	835	60.2
	5-10 years	440	31.7
	More than 10 years	113	8.1
No. of years in the industry (Occupational tenure)	Less than 5 years	361	26.0
	5-10 years	539	38.8
	More than 10 years	488	35.2
Hotel Star	4-star	485	34.9
	5-star	903	65.1

4.6. Descriptive Statistics

In the following sections, Tables 4.5 to 4.8 show the descriptive information for the four main constructs. Each table includes the mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum values for every measurement item.

4.6.1. Organizational Commitment

Table 4.4 describes the descriptive statistics of employee organizational commitment. By comparing the two different forms of organizational commitment, affective organizational commitment (5.56) had the highest average mean score, followed by retention commitment (5.35). Within the dimension of affective organizational commitment, AORC1 (*I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organization be successful.*) and AORC8 (*I care about the fate of this organization.*) enjoy higher scores than AORC3 (*I would accept almost any type of job assignment to keep working for this organization*) and AORC9 (*For me this is the best of all possible organization for which to work*). In general, the results show that employees have a relatively high affective commitment to the organization, and they are willing to exert effort. In terms of retention commitment, all statements are reversely coded. RCOR1 (*I feel very little loyalty to this organization.*) and RCOR6 (*Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part*) have a higher score than the other indicators with lowest mean values, they are RCOR2 (*I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar*) and RCOR5 (*Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matter relating to its employees*).

Table 4.4 Descriptive Statistics for Employee Organizational Commitment ($n=1388$)

Constructs	Items	Statements	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC)	AORC1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organization be successful.	1	7	5.80	1.34
	AORC2	I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	1	7	5.73	1.38
	AORC3	I would accept almost any type of job assignment to keep working for this organization.	1	7	5.25	1.50
	AORC4	I find that my values and the organization's value are very similar.	1	7	5.34	1.42
	AORC5	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1	7	5.73	1.30
	AORC6	This organization inspires the very best in the way of job performance.	1	7	5.45	1.38
	AORC7	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for others.	1	7	5.64	1.30
	AORC8	I care about the fate of this organization.	1	7	5.80	1.27
	AORC9	For me, this is the best of all possible organization for which to work.	1	7	5.26	1.44
Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)	RCOR1	I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (R)	1	7	5.65	1.64
	RCOR2	I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (R)	1	7	4.23	1.79
	RCOR3	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R)	1	7	5.01	1.59
	RCOR4	There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (R)	1	7	5.31	1.58
	RCOR5	Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on an important matter relating to its employees. (R)	1	7	4.39	1.69
	RCOR6	Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. (R)	1	7	5.72	1.34

Note: Items denoted with (R) are reversely scored.

4.6.2. Occupational Commitment

Table 4.5 indicates the mean scores for each measurement items under occupational commitment constructs. Affective occupational commitment (5.91) has the highest average mean scores by comparing with the other two dimensions, which are normative (5.11) and continuance (4.45) subtypes. AOCC1 and AOCC6 are the two highest scores. It shows that respondents have a relatively high agreement on “*The chef is important to my self-image*” and “*I am enthusiastic about the chef or culinary.*” In terms of normative occupational commitment, NOCC1 (*I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period of time.*) has the highest scores among others, whereas NOCC4 (*Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave the culinary industry now*) has the lowest score. In the factor of continuance occupational commitment, COCC1 (*I have put too much into the culinary profession to consider changing now.*) and COCC5 (*There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions *this statement is reversely coded*) are the two distinct measurement items having the highest and lowest scores respectively.

Table 4.5 Descriptive Statistics for Employee Occupational Commitment ($n=1388$)

Constructs	Items	Statements	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Affective Occupational Commitment (AOCC)	AOCC1	The chef is important to my self-image.	1	7	6.09	1.04
	AOCC2	I regret having entered the chef profession. (R)	1	7	5.75	1.37
	AOCC3	I am proud to be in the culinary profession.	1	7	5.95	1.19
	AOCC4	I dislike being a chef (R)	1	7	5.8	1.34
	AOCC5	I do not identify with the chef profession. (R)	1	7	5.81	1.47
	AOCC6	I am enthusiastic about the chef or culinary.	1	7	6.04	1.11

Table 4.5 Continued

Constructs	Items	Statements	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Normative Occupational Commitment (NOCC)	NOCC1	I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period.	1	7	5.65	1.36
	NOCC2	I do not feel any obligation to remain in the culinary profession. (R)	1	7	5.38	1.53
	NOCC3	I feel a responsibility to the culinary profession to continue in it.	1	7	5.00	1.63
	NOCC4	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave the culinary industry now.	1	7	4.58	1.71
	NOCC5	I would feel guilty if I left the culinary industry.	1	7	4.68	1.63
	NOCC6	I am in a chef position because of a sense of loyalty to it.	1	7	5.37	1.44
Continuance Occupational Commitment (COCC)	COCC1	I have put too much into the culinary profession to consider changing now.	1	7	5.31	1.43
	COCC2	Changing professions now would be difficult for me to do.	1	7	4.85	1.65
	COCC3	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession.	1	7	4.69	1.65
	COCC4	It would be costly for me to change my profession now.	1	7	4.31	1.71
	COCC5	There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions. (R)	1	7	2.68	1.41
	COCC6	Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice.	1	7	4.85	1.63

Note: Items denoted with (R) are reversely scored.

4.6.3. Job Satisfaction

The descriptive statistic for job satisfaction construct indicates in Table 4.6. In general, all five measurement items are rated between 5.45 and 5.71. It shows that the respondents are satisfied with their current job.

Table 4.6 Descriptive Statistics for Employee Job Satisfaction ($n=1388$)

Constructs	Items	Statements	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Job Satisfaction (JS)	JS1	I consider my job pleasant.	1	7	5.56	1.28
	JS2	I feel fairly-well satisfied with my present job.	1	7	5.45	1.32
	JS3	I definitely like my work.	1	7	5.71	1.21
	JS4	My job is pretty interesting.	1	7	5.57	1.25
	JS5	I find real enjoyment in my work.	1	7	5.45	1.36

4.6.4. Employee Creative Performance

Table 4.7 presents the descriptive of the employee creativity performance construct, which contains 13 statements. All the statements are scored between 5.50 and 5.79. ECP8 (*At work, I exhibited creativity on the job when allowed*), ECP4 (*At work, I suggested new ways to increase quality*), ECP9 (*At work, I developed adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas*) and ECP10 (*At work, I had new and innovative ideas*) are the four highest scores among others. It shows that the respondents are willing to exhibit their creativity when their organization provides them opportunities. ECP6 (*At work, I did not feel afraid to take risks*) has a relatively lower score than the rest.

Table 4.7 Descriptive Statistics for Employee Creative Performance (Self-reporting)

(n=1388)

Constructs	Items	Statements	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Employee Creative Performance (ECP)	ECP1	At work, I suggested new ways to achieve goals or objectives.	1	7	5.66	1.12
	ECP2	At work, I came up with new and practical ideas to improve performance.	1	7	5.74	1.07
	ECP3	At work, I searched out new technologies, processes, techniques, and product ideas.	1	7	5.74	1.10
	ECP4	At work, I suggested new ways to increase quality.	1	7	5.78	1.10
	ECP5	At work, I am a good source of creative ideas.	1	7	5.60	1.15
	ECP6	At work, I did not feel afraid to take risks.	1	7	5.50	1.31
	ECP7	At work, I promoted and champions ideas to others.	1	7	5.71	1.09
	ECP8	At work, I exhibited creativity on the job when allowed.	1	7	5.79	1.06
	ECP9	At work, I developed adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.	1	7	5.78	1.04
	ECP10	At work, I had new and innovative ideas.	1	7	5.78	1.06
	ECP11	At work, I had a fresh approach to problems.	1	7	5.63	1.12
	ECP12	At work, I came up with creative solutions to problems.	1	7	5.75	1.02
	ECP13	At work, I suggested new ways of performing work tasks.	1	7	5.67	1.09

4.7. Exploratory Factor Analysis for Organizational Commitment

According to the literature, nine items for affective organizational commitment and six items for retention commitment to an organization were found for measuring employee organizational commitment. In this study, each factor was categorized with clear underlying factors, which provides evidence to support Porter et al.'s (1974) construct is multidimensional construct (two-factor model) rather than on single dimension. The factor loading of the fifteen items ranged from 0.659-0.885, exceeding the minimum requirement of 0.4. The result of Total Variance Explained the information and the Rotated Components Matrix demonstrated that fifteen items obtained two factors

with eigenvalues greater than 1, with a cumulative variance of 58.8%. KMO value was 0.931, which was good. Reporting Cronbach's coefficients were 0.918 and 0.824 for two factors; the factors could thus be regarded as stable and internally consistent. The EFA results for organizational commitment are shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 EFA Results for Organizational Commitment ($n=1388$)

Items	Factor Loading	Eigen Value	% Var.	I-T Co.	α if item Deleted	α
Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC)		6.517	43.447			0.918
AORC1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organization be successful.	.741		.681	.911	
AORC2	I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	.811		.772	.905	
AORC3	I would accept almost any type of job assignment to keep working for this organization.	.685		.601	.917	
AORC4	I find that my values and the organization's value are very similar.	.796		.741	.907	
AORC5	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	.846		.810	.903	
AORC6	This organization inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	.775		.728	.908	
AORC7	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for others.	.795		.769	.905	
AORC8	I care about the fate of this organization.	.690		.684	.914	
AORC9	For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	.763		.632	.911	

Table 4.8 Continued

	Items	Factor Loading	Eigen Value	% Var.	I-T Co.	α if item Deleted	α
Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)			2.310	15.397			0.824
RCOR1	I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	.690			.524	.810	
RCOR2	I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.	.659			.498	.819	
RCOR3	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization	.771			.672	.779	
RCOR4	There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.	.783			.708	.771	
RCOR5	Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on an important matter relating to its employees.	.671			.539	.808	
RCOR6	Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	.721			.650	.788	

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) = 0.931, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-square = 10805.088, df= 105, p < 0.000, % Var = Percentage of Variance explained

4.8. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

According to Hair et al. (2010), there are four stages needed when conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The first stage is to define individual constructs. However, this could be achieved by borrowing well-established constructs from the literature. As discussed in the methodology chapter, all the constructs that are used in this present study are well developed and confirmed with satisfactory validity from the literature. Therefore, this study will not be necessary to perform exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and CFA for each construct before moving to CFA for the overall

measurement model, which is regarded as stage two. In stage three, researchers could test and verify their proposed measurement constructs. If there are low factor loadings, the measurement items might be removed to achieve a better model fit. However, this study also applied a “three-indicator rule” for every construct. In other words, all factors should have at least three significant measurement items. The final stage is to assess the discriminant and convergent validity of the measurement model before conducting SEM analysis.

4.8.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of The Overall Measurement Model ($n=1388$)

Before accessing the structural or path model, the measurement model should access and confirm the underlying dimensions and items extracted in order to guide model respecification (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The model fit in CFA is a guideline for the researcher to examine how well the proposed measurement model fits the data set (Kline, 2011). Hair et al. (2010) suggested several indices for examining the model fit, namely, normed chi-square statistic (χ^2/df), root mean square error approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI).

Table 4.9 Goodness of Fit Indices

Goodness-of-fit indices	Explanation	Acceptable level	Sources
Factor Loading	Defined as the standardized regression weight	>0.6	Hair et al. (2010)
Parsimonious Fit			
Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df)	Determines differences between the assessed covariance matrices	2.0–5.0	Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, and Summers (1977)

Table 4.9 Continued

Goodness-of-fit indices	Explanation	Acceptable level	Sources
Absolute Fit			
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	How well a model with unknown observed estimates fits the populations' covariance matrix	<0.08	Hair et al. (2010)
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	A measure of fit between the hypothesized model and the observed covariance matrix	>0.90	Hair et al. (2010)
Incremental Fit			
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	The relative centrality between the hypothesized model and the null model of the modified independence where only error variances are estimated	>0.90	Bentler (1990)
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	Analyzes the discrepancy between the chi-squared value of the hypothesized model and the chi-squared value of the null model	>0.90	Bentler and Bonett (1980)
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	A comparison of the normed Chi-square values for the null and specified models	>0.90	Bentler and Bonett (1980)

After running the initial CFA for the proposed measurement model (1), the researcher examined the fitness indices obtained for the model by comparing the acceptable level in Table 4.9 (2). If the indexes obtained do not reach the acceptable level, the factor loadings for every measurement item would then be checked (3). For well-established constructs, the factor loading that is below 0.6 is considered problematic (4). As a result, the researcher would need to select and delete an item with lowest factor loadings (5) and run the model again (6). The researcher might need to repeat stage two to six until the model achieved an acceptable fit. If the fitness index is still not achieved after removing all the items with low factor loadings, the researcher should explore the

modification indices (MI). If there is an MI value larger than 15, it shows that there are redundant items in the model. The researcher might then delete one of the items with lower factor loading and run the mode again.

The initial results of the analysis included all the indicators and variables. It shows an acceptable model fit of $\chi^2/df= 3.177$ ($\chi^2=3418.708$, $df=1076$); $GFI=0.908$; $RMSEA=0.040$; $CFI= 0.957$; $TLI= 0.950$. All seven variables are inter-correlated by the two-headed arrows. Therefore, the model was being modified by eliminating a measurement item with low factor loading (<0.6) once at a time. The process of elimination measurement items was recorded in Table 4.9. After 7 times of eliminations, the final model achieved a good model fit $\chi^2/df= 2.965$ ($\chi^2=2404.853$, $df=811$, $p=0.000$); $GFI=0.928$; $RMSEA=0.038$; $CFI= 0.969$; $TLI= 0.962$. However, the chi-square is sensitive to the large sample size. Therefore, the goodness-of-fit analysis was conducted based on their GFI, RMSEA, CFI, and TLI, all of which achieved a satisfactory level.

Table 4.10 Summary of Overall Measurement Model Improvements ($n=1388$)

Model	χ^2/df	GFI	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	Items Elimination (factor loadings)
1	3.177 (3418.708/1076)	0.908	0.040	0.957	0.950	Initial result
2	3.203 (3298.722/1030)	0.910	0.040	0.958	0.950	AOCC5 (0.361)
3	2.854 (2814.120/986)	0.922	0.037	0.966	0.959	NOCC2 (0.490)
4	2.886 (2718.479/942)	0.923	0.037	0.966	0.960	AOCC4 (0.515)
5	2.877 (2583.947/898)	0.925	0.037	0.968	0.961	RCOR2 (0.531)
6	2.924 (2500.437/855)	0.926	0.037	0.968	0.962	RCOR5 (0.568)
7	2.965 (2404.953/811)	0.928	0.038	0.969	0.962	RCOR1 (0.563)

4.8.2. Validity and Reliability

As shown in Table 4.11, the standardized factor loading of each measurement item ranged from 0.554 to 1.211, demonstrating that all the measurement items exceed the threshold of 0.5. The AVE values for constructs ranged from 0.533 to 0.748, which was higher than 0.53, and so convergent validity was established. All CR value for each construct was higher than 0.8, which exceeds the threshold of 0.7. Thus, the criteria for convergent validity were met.

The AVE values were then compared with correlation coefficients to examine discriminant validity (see Table 4.12). All the AVE values of constructs were greater than the highest squared correlation coefficients for corresponding constructs (or the square root of the AVE should be greater than the correlation). Either way, it shows the measurement model indicated discriminant validity. Therefore, the overall data set fit all the criteria for the proposed conceptual model. In summary, the proposed model is sufficiently reliable and valid to run as a structural model to test the hypotheses.

Table 4.11 CFA Results for the Overall Measurement Model ($n=1388$)

Constructs	Items	Estimate	S.E.	t-value	p-value	Std. factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	AVE	CR
Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC)	AORC1	1				0.705	0.885	0.568	0.921
	AORC2	1.172	0.037	31.849	***	0.801			
	AORC3	0.983	0.047	20.987	***	0.618			
	AORC4	1.154	0.045	25.882	***	0.768			
	AORC5	1.175	0.042	28.224	***	0.854			
	AORC6	1.139	0.045	25.169	***	0.779			
	AORC7	1.154	0.044	26.064	***	0.842			
	AORC8	0.918	0.04	22.976	***	0.682			
	AORC9	1.069	0.046	23.487	***	0.700			

Table 4.11 Continued

Constructs	Items	Estimate	S.E.	t-value	p-value	Std. factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	AVE	CR
Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)	RCOR3	1				0.708	0.809	0.606	0.821
	RCOR4	1.168	0.045	25.784	***	0.831			
	RCOR6	0.944	0.037	25.283	***	0.791			
Affective Occupational Commitment (AOCC)	AOCC1	1				0.731	0.838	0.565	0.837
	AOCC2	1.123	0.055	20.242	***	0.623			
	AOCC3	1.309	0.046	28.733	***	0.843			
	AOCC6	1.151	0.039	29.383	***	0.793			
Normative Occupational Commitment (NOCC)	NOCC1	1				0.665	0.854	0.559	0.863
	NOCC3	1.426	0.064	22.183	***	0.79			
	NOCC4	1.424	0.071	20.194	***	0.753			
	NOCC5	1.324	0.067	19.821	***	0.735			
Continuance Occupational Commitment (COCC)	COCC1	1				1.19	0.872	0.895	0.980
	COCC2	0.751	0.042	17.865	***	0.774			
	COCC3	0.766	0.045	17.204	***	0.786			
	COCC4	0.759	0.047	16.136	***	0.753			
	COCC5	1.007	0.04	25.29	***	1.213			
	COCC6	0.805	0.044	18.093	***	0.836			
Job Satisfaction (JS)	JS1	1				0.854	0.938	0.749	0.937
	JS2	0.997	0.021	46.92	***	0.83			
	JS3	1.003	0.026	38.062	***	0.909			
	JS4	0.994	0.025	40.283	***	0.872			
	JS5	1.069	0.028	37.527	***	0.86			
Employee Creative Performance (ECP)	ECP1	1				0.906	0.967	0.706	0.969
	ECP2	0.916	0.023	40.267	***	0.869			
	ECP3	0.827	0.026	31.516	***	0.746			
	ECP4	0.888	0.022	39.981	***	0.877			
	ECP5	0.871	0.025	34.517	***	0.808			
	ECP6	0.918	0.019	48.212	***	0.863			
	ECP7	0.969	0.022	44.63	***	0.891			
	ECP8	0.926	0.023	40.538	***	0.851			
	ECP9	0.964	0.024	39.926	***	0.846			
	ECP10	0.824	0.034	24.537	***	0.637			
	ECP11	0.915	0.024	37.967	***	0.847			
	ECP12	0.896	0.023	38.204	***	0.852			
	ECP13	0.925	0.022	42.144	***	0.895			

$\chi^2 (811) = 2404.953$, $\chi^2/df = 2.965$ ($p = 0.000$); GFI = 0.928; RMSEA = 0.038; CFI = 0.969; TLI = 0.962

Table 4.12 Inter-constructs Correlations (Squared correlations), Mean, Standard Deviations and the Square-root of AVE ($n=1388$)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. AORC	0.754[^]						
2. RCOR	.542** (0.29)	0.778[^]					
3. AOCC	.684** (0.47)	.485** (0.24)	0.752[^]				
4. NOCC	.627** (0.40)	0.318** (0.5)	.738** (0.54)	0.747[^]			
5. COCC	.407** (0.17)	.254** (0.06)	.441** (0.19)	.546** (0.30)	0.946[^]		
6. JS	.771** (0.59)	.500** (0.25)	.783** (0.61)	.718** (0.52)	.453** (0.21)	0.865[^]	
7. ECP	.650** (0.42)	.403** (0.16)	.740** (0.55)	.662** (0.44)	.423** (0.18)	.766** (0.59)	0.840[^]
Mean	5.56	5.35	5.97	5.05	4.89	5.55	5.70
SD	1.07	1.29	0.94	1.24	1.24	1.15	0.93

Notes: AORC= Affective organizational commitment; RCOR= Retention commitment to an organization; AOCC= Affective occupational commitment; COCC= Continuance occupational commitment; NOCC= Normative occupational commitment; JS= Job satisfaction; ECP= Employee creativity performance;

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed);

[^] Square-root of average variance extracted (AVE) in bold format should be larger than any inter-correlations between constructs (without brackets), OR

Square of inter-correlations in bracket format should be smaller than the average variance extracted (AVE)

4.8.3. Common Method Variance

The present study measured all variables through self-reported surveys from hotel employees. Even the survey was applied anonymously, mixing the questions' order, reverse-coded items, and hidden variable names to avoid potential common method biases, there is a need for the researcher to examine common method variance by using Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). This is one of the widely used techniques to diagnose common method variance. All the variables from each construct in the study are loaded into an exploratory factor analysis to see whether one single factor does emerge

or whether one general factor does account for most of the covariance between measures (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Aulakh & Gencturk, 2000).

The researcher entered all the variables into exploratory factor analysis, using unrotated principal component factor analysis to determine the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the variables. The results revealed the presence of 6 distinct factors with eigen values greater than 1.0, rather than a single factor. The 6 factors accounted for 67.998 percent of the total variance, and the first largest factor was found to account for 18.7 percent of the variance. The result is far away from the cutoff point 50 percent, while it still shows that common method variance is not a pervasive issue.

This study further assesses the severity of method variance by conducting confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995). If method variance is a significant issue, a single factor model should fit the data as same as a more complex model. Preliminary CFA was conducted on all measurement items for seven constructs, containing AORC, RCOR, AOCC, NOCC, COCC, JS, and ECP. This seven-factors model yields a better fit of the data (GFI=0.894; RMSEA=0.044; CFI= 0.948; TLI= 0.939) than a single-factor model (GFI=0.469; RMSEA=0.115; CFI= 0.661; TLI= 0.644). The difference in the chi-square statistic between the single factor and seven-factor model was significant ($\Delta\chi^2=15935.054$, $\Delta df=132$, $p<0.001$) (Loehlin, 1987). The normed chi-square, GFI, and RMSEA metrics of the single-factor model, was not at an acceptable level. Korsgaard and Roberson (1995) suggested that this procedure does not eliminate the threat of method variance. However, it provides evidence that the inter-item correlations in the sample data set are not driven purely by method biases.

4.9. Control Variables

After conducting the CFA, reliability, and validity of the measurement model were achieved. Before processing the SEM, a correlation analysis on the corresponding constructs with the demographic variables was conducted to check for potential control variables, which might confound the results. Except for nominal variables in this study, there are also some categorical variables such as types of restaurant and types of cuisine, as well as other ordinal variables (age, education level, occupational tenure, organizational tenure, working hours). This study coded the categorical variables (types of restaurant and types of cuisine) into numerous of dummy variables for further analyses. The dummy variables under types of the restaurant include fine dining, buffet, café/lounge, casual dining, preparation kitchen, pastry kitchen, and canteen/ banquet. For types of cuisines, dummy variables were created for Chinese, Western, Japanese, pastry, ice/vegetable craving, and Southeast Asian cuisine. In Table 4.13, ten out of twenty-three demographic variables were correlated with the corresponding constructs, which are also common control variables for job satisfaction and employee creativity. They are gender (George & Zhou, 2007; Shin & Zhou, 2003), age (Gu, Duverger, & Yu, 2017; Madjar, Oldham, & Pratt, 2002), level of job position (Baer, Oldham, & Cummings, 2003; Oldham & Cummings, 1996), types of restaurant including dummy variables of fine dining, buffet and preparation kitchen (Ellen Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2012), types of cuisine (including dummy variables of Chinese cuisine), occupational tenure (Hon et al., 2013), organizational tenure (Gong, Huang, et al., 2009; Shin & Zhou, 2003; Wang et al., 2014) and hotel star rating (Gu et al., 2017), which would be then considered as control variables in further analysis.

Table 4.13 Inter-constructs Correlations with Demographic Characteristics (n=1388)

	Correlations						
	AORC	RCOR	AOCC	NOCC	COCC	JS	ECP
Gender #	-.025	-.052	.064*	.031	.069**	-.023	.016
Age	.108***	.120***	.017	.151***	.131***	.086**	.096***
Level of Job Position #	.071**	.100***	.122***	.139***	.132***	.098***	.147***
Education Level	-.039	.005	.028	-.009	-.026	-.027	-.003
Culinary Education #	.056*	.021	-.050	.011	.044	.031	-.013
Types of Restaurant	-.030	-.058*	-.073**	-.068*	-.011	-.064*	-.092**
Fine Dining #	.104***	.100***	.106***	.122***	.085**	.106***	.129***
Buffet #	-.114***	-.074**	-.054*	-.083**	-.103***	-.070**	-.065*
Café/Lounge #	-.025	.017	.003	-.026	.008	-.005	-.014
Casual #	.060*	.000	-.022	-.003	.020	.019	.001
Preparation Kitchen #	-.025	-.017	-.055*	-.030	-.001	-.062*	-.068*
Pastry Kitchen #	.022	-.027	.012	-.018	-.009	.018	-.016
Canteen/ Banquet #	-.028	-.018	-.023	-.013	.021	-.026	-.020
Types of Cuisine							
Chinese Cuisine #	.083***	.056*	.055*	.080**	.082**	.021	.075**
Western Cuisine #	-.068**	-.022	-.027	-.044	-.085**	-.023	.029
Japanese Cuisine #	-.030	.008	-.021	-.049	-.028	-.004	-.011
Pastry #	.010	.014	.017	-.055*	-.048	-.008	.028
Ice/ Vegetable craving #	-.063*	-.066*	-.014	-.061*	-.040	-.031	-.002
Southeast Asian Cuisine #	.015	.040	.044	-.005	.001	.013	.013
Occupational Tenure	.108***	.156***	.101**	.117***	.118***	.112***	.145***
Organizational Tenure	.011	.048	.047*	.086**	.073**	.050	.075**
Working Hours	-.027	.046	.034	-.009	.054*	-.024	.043
Hotel Star Rating #	-.048	-.034	-.077**	-.058*	-.040	-.071**	-.078**
District Location	-.006	.018	.065*	.025	.019	.002	.049

Notes:

represents binary variables;

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.10. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) (n=1388)

SEM was undertaken to test the conceptual model with the main seven hypotheses of the present study. A maximum likelihood estimation method was used to estimate the conceptual model. This method aims to check whether the hypothesized model was consistent with the data sets of this study.

The model fit before adding control variables was assessed. First, the chi-square value was insignificant, demonstrating that the model did not appropriately fit the data ($\chi^2(811) = 2404.953, p = 0.000$). As discussed earlier, the insignificant chi-square might result because of the large sample size. Therefore, other indices should be checked. The normed chi-square value was 2.965, which is acceptable. The other indices included GFI=0.928; RMSEA=0.038; CFI= 0.969 and TLI= 0.962, supported the conceptual model.

After adding the control variables in the model, the model fit was slightly different ($\chi^2/df = 2.459, \chi^2 = 3068.328, df = 1248, p = 0.000$; GFI=0.925; RMSEA=0.032; CFI= 0.967; TLI= 0.960). The normed chi-square value was between 2 to 5 and acceptable. The GFI, CFI, and TLI were all above 0.9. RMSEA value is far less than 0.08. Thus, the model fit indices supported the conceptual model.

Tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF) were further analyzed to check whether multicollinearity problem existed between independent variables and the outcome variables. If the tolerance values are less than 0.1 and VIF values are higher than 10, then research could claim that the regression equation has multicollinearity problem, which shows high intercorrelations or inter-association among variables (Kleinbaum, Kupper, & Muller, 1988). The tolerance and VIF values ranged from 0.338 to 0.777 and 1.287 to 2.958, respectively. Hence, multicollinearity was not a concern in the present study.

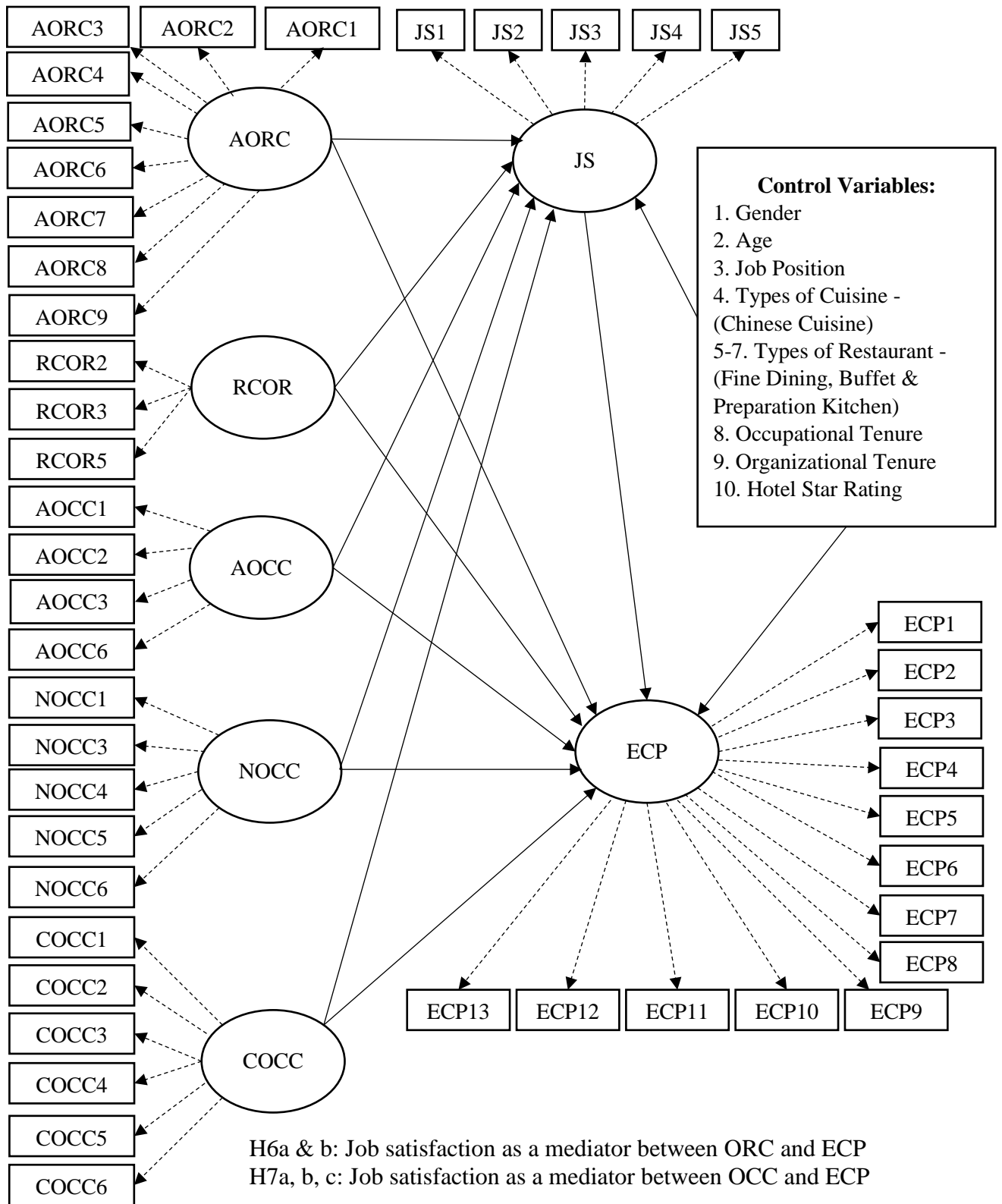


Figure 4.1 Structural Model with Control Variables

4.11. Hypotheses Testing

In the following section, 11 direct and 5 indirect relationships between paths were investigated in the present study. Hypothesis 1 and 2 comprise 2 sub-hypotheses for the direct effect of organizational commitment. Hypothesis 3 and 4 comprise 3 sub-hypotheses for the direct effect of occupational commitment. Hypothesis 5 examines the direct effect of job satisfaction on employee creative performance. Finally, mediating effect testing was employed to examine another 5 sub-hypotheses (under Hypothesis 6 and 7), which are related to the mediation effect of job satisfaction among independent and dependent variables.

4.11.1. Direct Effects

In the present study, the proposed direct regression paths among 7 constructs were examined to test 11 hypotheses. The proposed structural model and its results are updated and displayed in Figure 4.1 and 4.2, respectively. Table 4.13 also showed the overall statistical results of each path. There are 10 out of 11 estimated path coefficients that were statistically significant at either the 0.05, 0.01 or 0.001 level.

Hypothesis 1a states that affective organizational commitment is likely to positively affect employee creative performance. The results indicated that the path coefficient was slightly significant ($\beta = 0.076$, $t = 2.169$, $p < 0.05$). This means that employees who have a high affective organizational commitment have a direct positive influence on their creative performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 1a is supported.

Hypothesis 1b states that retention commitment to an organization is likely to positively affect employee creative performance. The results indicated that the path

coefficient was insignificant ($\beta = -0.030$, $t = -1.376$, $p > 0.05$). This means that employees who have a high normative organizational commitment do not have a direct positive influence on their creative performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 1b is not supported.

Hypothesis 2a states that affective organizational commitment is likely to positively affect job satisfaction. The results revealed that the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.431$, $t = 12.143$, $p < 0.001$). This means that employees who have a high affective organizational commitment are likely to perceive higher job satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 2a is supported. (see Table 4.14)

Hypothesis 2b proposes that normative organizational commitment is likely to positively affect job satisfaction. The results revealed that the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.061$, $t = 2.692$, $p < 0.001$). However, the result shows a positive association between two variables instead of a negative association. This means that employees who have a high normative organizational commitment are likely to have higher job satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 2b is supported. (see Table 4.14)

Hypothesis 3a states that affective occupational commitment is likely to positively affect employee creative performance. The results revealed that the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.402$, $t = 7.315$, $p < 0.001$). It shows that employees who have a high affective occupational commitment are likely to perform a better creative performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 3a is supported. (see Table 4.14)

Hypothesis 3b proposes that normative occupational commitment is likely to positively affect employee creative performance. The results revealed that the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.088$, $t = 2.296$, $p > 0.05$). This means that

employees who have a high normative organizational commitment are likely to perform a better creative performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 3b is supported. (see Table 4.14)

Hypothesis 3c states that continuance occupational commitment is likely to negatively affect employee creative performance. Surprisingly, the results revealed that the path coefficient was slightly significant and positively associated with the outcome ($\beta = 0.018$, $t = 2.466$, $p < 0.05$). It shows that employees who have a high continuance occupational commitment are likely to perform a better creative performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 3c is partially supported.

Hypothesis 4a states that affective occupational commitment is likely to positively affect job satisfaction. The results revealed that the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.478$, $t = 8.978$, $p < 0.001$). It shows that employees who have a high affective occupational commitment are likely to have higher job satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 4a is supported. (see Table 4.14)

Hypothesis 4b proposes that normative occupational commitment is likely to positively affect job satisfaction. The results revealed that the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.250$, $t = 5.988$, $p < 0.001$). This means that employees who have a high normative organizational commitment are likely to perceive higher job satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 4b is supported. (see Table 4.14)

Hypothesis 4c states that continuance occupational commitment is likely to positively affect job satisfaction. The results revealed that the path coefficient was slightly significant ($\beta = 0.018$, $t = 2.357$, $p < 0.05$). It shows that employees who have a high continuance occupational commitment have a positive association with employee job satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 4c is supported. (see Table 4.14)

Hypothesis 5 proposes that job satisfaction is likely to positively affect employee creative performance. The path coefficient from job satisfaction to employee creative performance was statistically significant ($\beta= 0.376$, $t= 8.839$, $p< 0.001$). Therefore, employees who are satisfied with their job are likely to perform better creative performance. Hypothesis 5 is supported. (see Table 4.14)

This study included ten demographic variables in SEM analysis to avoid confounding the results. The ten variables are gender, age, level of job position, occupational tenure, organizational tenure, hotel star rating, and four dummy variables regarding types of cuisine and restaurants. (see Table 4.14) The results show that only Chinese cuisine has a slightly significant effect on job satisfaction and employee creative performance. This study provides evidence and suggestions for future studies in exploring their behavioral differences between employees who are working in Chinese cuisine sector and non-Chinese cuisine sector within the hotel and catering industry.

Table 4.14 Results of the Direst Path for the Structural Model (n=1388)

Hypothesis Paths			Std. coef.	t-value	Decision
H1a	Affective occupational commitment (AORC)	→ ECP	0.076	2.169*	Accept
H1b	Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)	→ ECP	-0.030	-1.376	Reject
H2a	Affective occupational commitment (AORC)	→ JS	0.431	12.143***	Accept
H2b	Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)	→ JS	0.061	2.692*	Accept
H3a	Affective occupational commitment (AOCC)	→ ECP	0.402	7.315***	Accept
H3b	Normative occupational commitment (NOCC)	→ ECP	0.088	2.296*	Accept
H3c	Continuance occupational commitment (COCC)	→ ECP	0.018	2.466*	Accept
H4a	Affective occupational commitment (AOCC)	→ JS	0.478	8.978***	Accept
H4b	Normative occupational commitment (NOCC)	→ JS	0.250	5.988***	Accept
H4c	Continuance occupational commitment (COCC)	→ JS	0.018	2.357**	Accept
H5	Job Satisfaction (JS)	→ ECP	0.376	8.839***	Accept
Control Variables					
Gender		→	-0.065	-1.398	0.162
Age		→	-0.014	-0.601	0.548
Job Position		→	-0.018	-0.406	0.685
Types of Cuisine (Chinese)		→	-0.093	-2.222	0.026
Types of Restaurant (Fine Dining)		→ JS	0.030	0.550	0.582
Types of Restaurant (Buffet)		→	0.005	0.090	0.928
Types of Restaurant (Preparation Kitchen)		→	-0.041	-0.623	0.533
Occupational Tenure		→	0.027	0.897	0.370
Organizational Tenure		→	0.021	0.695	0.487
Hotel Star Rating		→	-0.037	-1.006	0.314
Gender		→	-0.039	-0.875	0.381
Age		→	-0.001	-0.048	0.961
Job Position		→	0.072	1.695	0.090
Types of Cuisine (Chinese)		→	0.079	1.970	0.049
Types of Restaurant (Fine Dining)		→ ECP	0.041	0.784	0.443
Types of Restaurant (Buffet)		→	0.037	0.735	0.462
Types of Restaurant (Preparation Kitchen)		→	-0.052	-0.830	0.407
Occupational Tenure		→	0.035	1.218	0.223
Organizational Tenure		→	0.022	0.756	0.450
Hotel Star Rating		→	-0.012	-0.338	0.736
$\chi^2/df= 2.459, \chi^2=3068.328, df=1248, p=0.000; GFI=0.925; RMSEA=0.032;$ $CFI= 0.967; TLI= 0.960$					

Notes: JS= Job Satisfaction; ECP= Employee Creative Performance; Gender (Male=1, Female=0); Age (18-24=0, 25-34=1, 35-44=2, 45-54=3, above 55=4); Job Position (Operational=0, Managerial=1); Types of Cuisine (Chinese cuisine=1, Non-Chinese cuisine=0); Types of Restaurant (Fine dining) (Fine Dining=1, Non-fine dining=0); Types of Restaurant (Buffet) (Buffet=1, Non-buffet=0); Types of Restaurant (Preparation Kitchen) (Preparation Kitchen=1, Non-preparation kitchen=0); Occupational Tenure (< 5years=0, 5-10yrs=1, >10yrs=2); Organizational Tenure (<5years=0, 5-10yrs=1, >10yrs=2); Hotel Star (5-stars=1 vs. 4-stars=0)

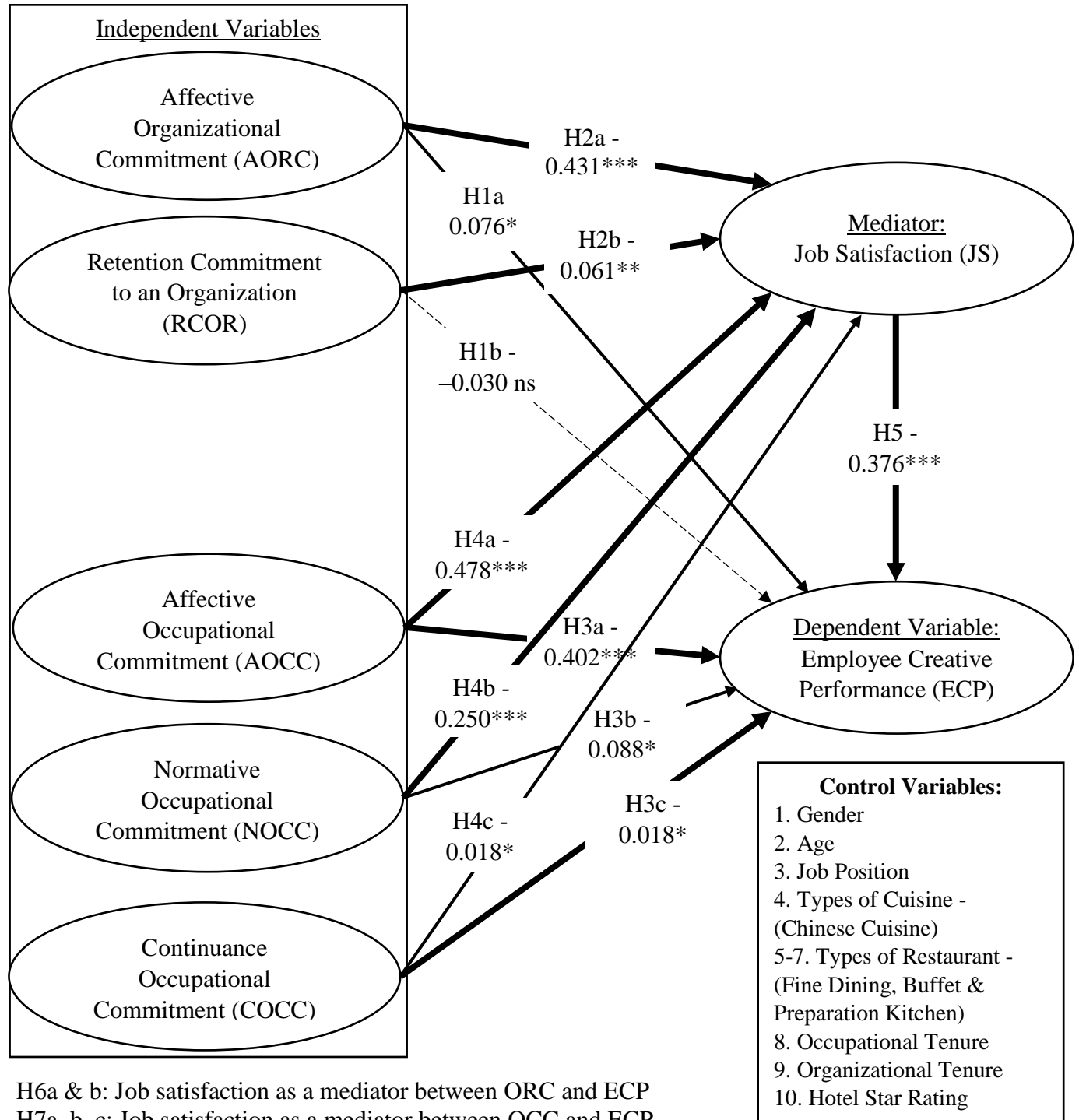


Figure 4.2 Results of the Direct Path for the Structural Model with Control Variables (n=1388)

4.11.2. Indirect Effects

This stage of the data analysis aims to check the mediating effect of job satisfaction (JS). JS was hypothesized to mediate the relationship between (H6a) AORC and ECP, (H6b) RCOR and ECP, (H7a) AOCC and ECP, (H7b) NOCC and ECP as well as (H7c) COCC and ECP. There are prerequisites for the mediating effects. First, there is a significant relationship between the independent variable (i.e. AORC/ RCOR/ AOCC/ NOCC/ COCC) and the dependent variable (i.e. ECP) (Rule 1). Second, there is a significant relationship between the independent variable (i.e. AORC/ RCOR/ AOCC/ NOCC/ COCC) and the mediator (i.e. JS) (Rule 2). Third, there is a significant relationship between the mediator (i.e., JS) and the dependent variable (i.e., ECP) in controlling for the independent variables (Rule 3). Fourth, the mediator shows significant mediation effect on the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Rule 4). Table 4.15 shows the results of the direct path for the structural model without a mediator (i.e., job satisfaction) to check the prerequisite for further mediation testing. In total, 4 out of 5 paths were statistically significant, as indicated in Figure 4.3.

Table 4.15 Results of the Direct Path for the Structural Model **without** Mediator

(*n*=1388)

	Hypotheses Paths	Std. coeff.	t-value	p-value	Decision
H1a	Affective organizational commitment (AORC) → ECP	0.236	7.208	0.000	Accept
H1b	Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR) → ECP	-0.007	-0.287	0.231	Reject
H3a	Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) → ECP	0.570	10.545	0.000	Accept
H3b	Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) → ECP	0.176	4.393	0.000	Accept
H3c	Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) → ECP	0.025	3.046	0.002	Accept
$X^2/df = 2.457$ ($X^2=2501.260$, $df=840$); $GFI=0.933$; $RMSEA=0.032$; $CFI= 0.968$; $TLI= 0.961$					

Notes: ECP= Employee Creative Performance

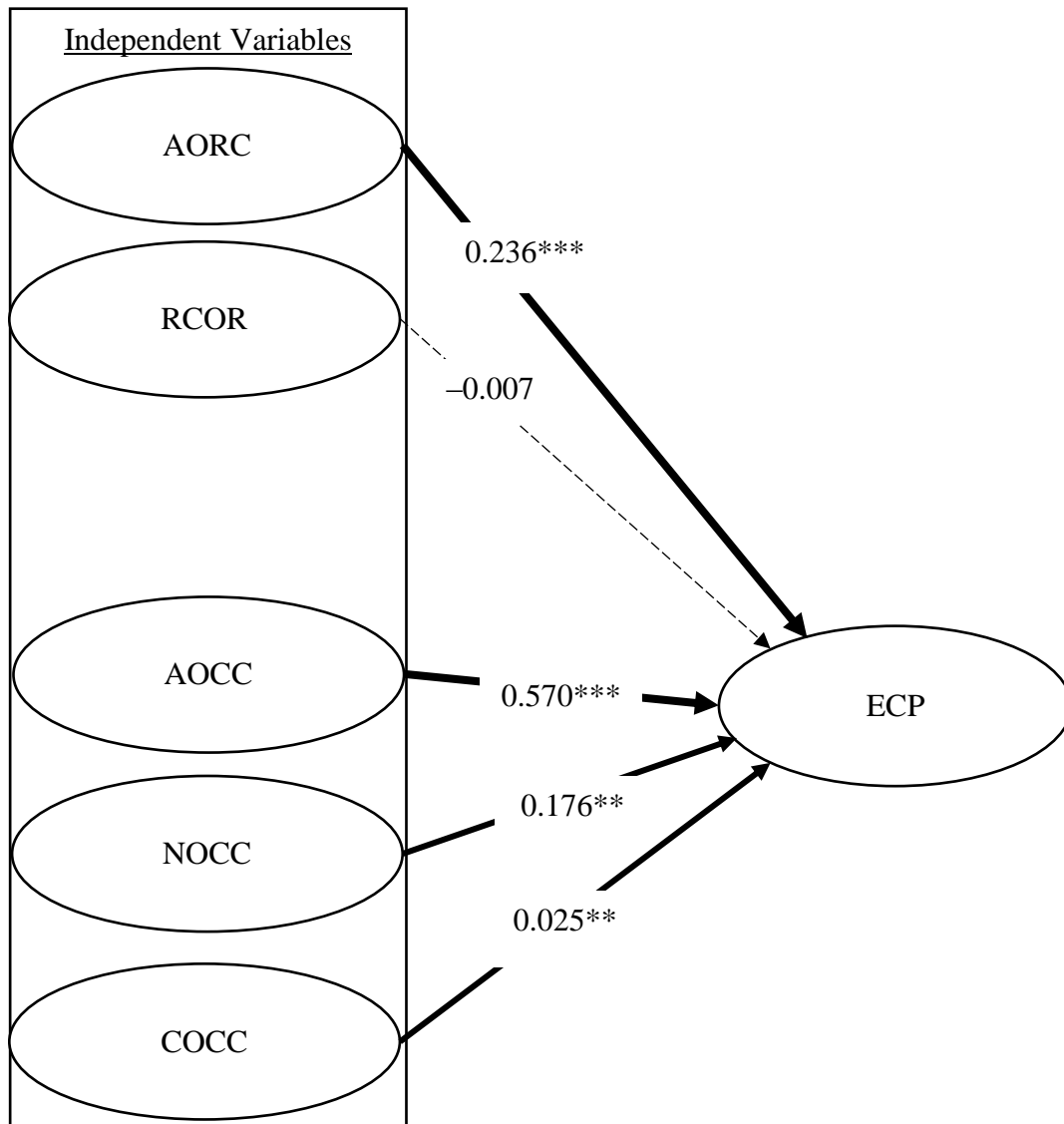


Figure 4.3 Structural Model (without mediator)

In the previous section, the affective organizational commitment had a slightly significant impact on employee creative performance, whereas normative organizational commitment was regarded as an insignificant path. After running the model without a mediator, it shows that affective organizational commitment has a stronger significant path to employee creative performance, while normative subtype remains insignificant. Similar to affective organizational commitment, normative and continuance occupational

commitment were found as a slightly significant path in the structural model with the mediator. When researcher ran the model without a mediator, it showed that a stronger significant path to the outcomes. In short, job satisfaction may have partial mediation effects on relationships.

As shown in the summary Table 4.16, four out of five hypotheses satisfied the three prerequisites. Job satisfaction may have a mediating effect between (H6a) AORC and ECP, (H7a) AOCC and ECP, (H7b) NOCC and ECP as well as (H7c) COCC and ECP. JS may either have no mediation effect or inconsistent mediation between (H6b) RCOR and ECP. If inconsistent mediation exists, then it could be the case that Rule 1 would not be met. It is the case where a direct effect of an independent variable on the dependent variable was opposite in sign when analyzing third and fourth rules.

Table 4.16 Relationship Comparison on Two Models (without or with a mediator)

Paths	Model 1 (Without Mediator)	Model 2 (With Mediator)	Proposed Decisions on the mediating effect of JS
H1a Affective organizational commitment (AORC) → ECP	√	√	Partial Mediation
H2a Affective organizational commitment (AORC) → JS	-	√	
H1b Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR) → ECP	X	X	No or inconsistent Mediation
H2b Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR) → JS	-	√	
H3a Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) → ECP	√	√	Partial Mediation
H4a Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) → JS	-	√	
H3b Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) → ECP	√	√	Partial Mediation
H4b Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) → JS	-	√	
H3c Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) → ECP	√	√	Partial Mediation
H4c Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) → JS	-	√	
H5 Job Satisfaction (JS) → ECP	-	√	Prerequisite to support above decisions

Notes: JS= Job Satisfaction; ECP= Employee Creative Performance

The two common methods for examine mediations are the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) and Bootstrapping method (Bollen & Stine, 1990). Sobel test is one of the simplest methods used by researchers to find out statistic estimation of mediation effect (Barron & Harrington, 1981; Sobel, 1982). Bootstrapping is an increasingly popular method, which is claimed to provide higher power than the Sobel's test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). This study firstly adopted the Sobel test for mediation analysis and supplemented with the Bootstrapping results from SEM. Both methods share the same findings on the mediation effect of job satisfaction with the identical corresponding indirect coefficients. The indirect effect from the Sobel test is equal to a combined effect of a (the path coefficient between exogenous variables and the mediator) and b (the path coefficient between the mediator and endogenous variable). For the bootstrapping method, its principle is to shape a new sample with the original data (equal sample size) set by resampling with replacement. The bootstrap was performed with 5000 bootstrap samples and a 95% bias-corrected confidence level by using AMOS. After 5000 times of resampling, a distribution of the coefficient of the indirect effect is computed. As a result, the Z test was conducted to examine whether the mean of distribution equals to zero.

Table 4.17 shows the results of the Sobel test and Bootstrapping method. Four out of five hypotheses have a significant partial mediation effect on the relationship between commitments and creative performance. One hypothesis found that job satisfaction has inconsistent mediation between commitment and creative performance.

For Hypothesis 6a, the result of mediation effect of JS on the relationship between AORC and ECP were as follows: indirect coefficient (Sobel)= 0.162, Sobel test statistic (t value) = 7.130, p-value= 0.000; indirect effect (Bootstrap)= 0.162, p-value= 0.000. It

confirms a partial mediation effect. For Hypothesis 6b, the mediation effect of JS on the relation between RCOR and ECP was inconsistent mediation (indirect coefficient= 0.023, Sobel test statistic (t value) = 2.538, p-value= 0.000; indirect effect (Bootstrap)= 0.023, p-value= 0.000). Table 4.16 shows the direct coefficients of RCOR on ECP with negative total effect (insignificant results, $\beta = -0.007$) and direct effect (insignificant result, $\beta = -0.030$) were opposite in sign with the indirect effect. Both tests show a significant statistic on mediation effect even if the total effect was insignificant.

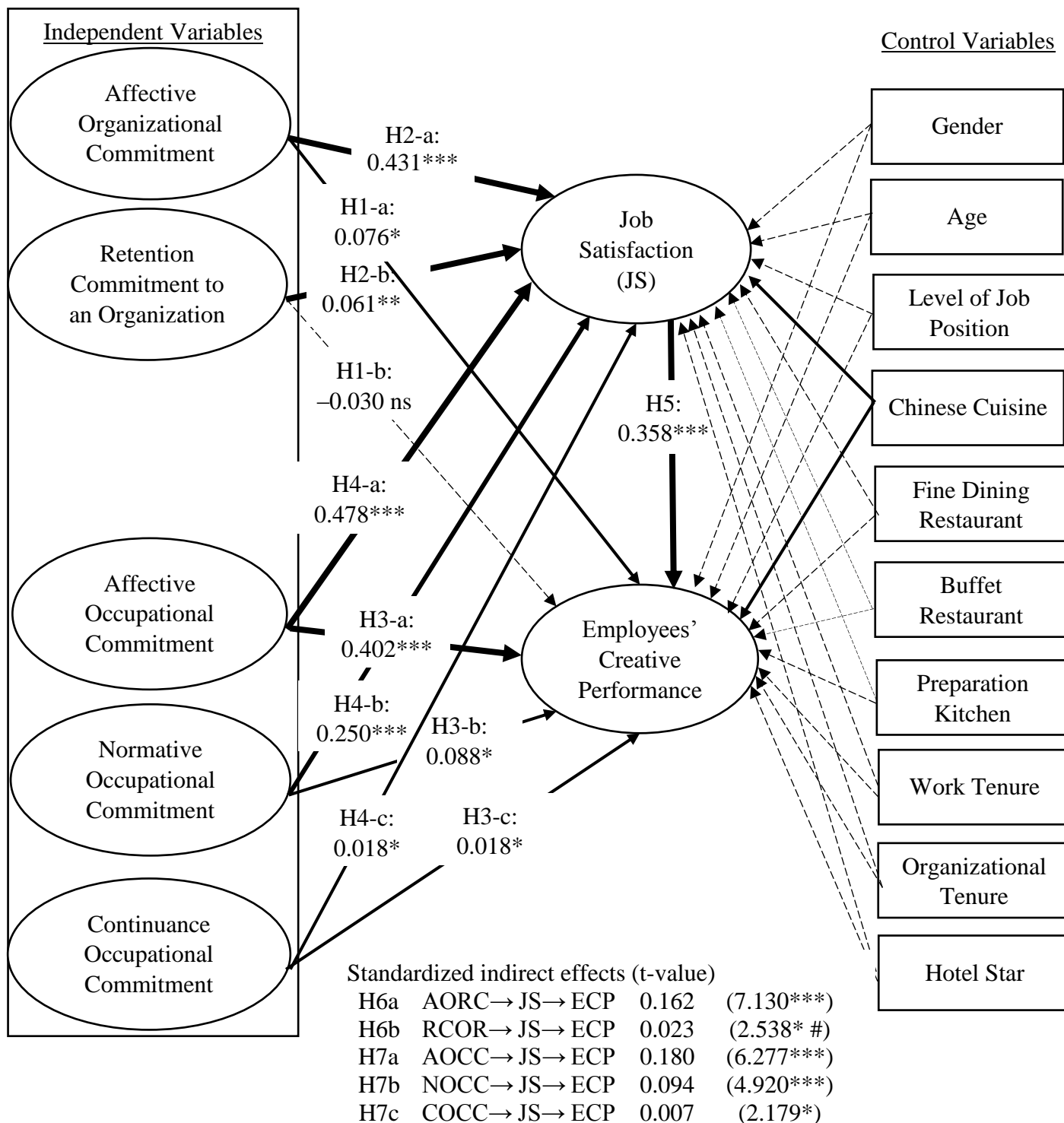
For Hypothesis 7a, JS was found a partial mediation effect on the relationship between AOCC and ECP (indirect effect (Sobel)= 0.180, t value = 6.277, p=0.000; indirect effect (Bootstrap)= 0.180, p-value=0.000). In other words, AOCC still has a significant relationship on ECP after included JS into the model. For Hypothesis 7b, there is also a partial mediation effect of JS between NOCC and ECP (indirect coefficient (Sobel)= 0.094, t value = 4.920, p=0.000; indirect effect (Bootstrap)= 0.094, p=0.000). NOCC has a stronger significant impact on ECP when JS excluded in the model. The impact of NOCC turned to relatively less significant results when including JS in the structural model. Therefore, JS is partially mediating the effect between NOCC and ECP. For Hypothesis 7c, there is a partial mediation effect of JS which was found between COCC and ECP. Akin to Hypothesis 7b, COCC has a significant and direct impact on ECP, and its impact has less significance when JS was added in the model. Therefore, it confirms that JS also partially mediate the relation between COCC and ECP. Figure 4.4 shows a summary of the results of the structural model test and Sobel test for examining the mediation effect.

Table 4.17 Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction (Sobel Testing and Bootstrapping Results)

Hypothesis	Path	Sobel Testing			Mediation
		Indirect	t-value	p-value	
H6a	AORC → JS → ECP	0.162	7.130	0.000	Partial
H6b	RCOR → JS → ECP	0.023	2.538	0.011	Inconsistent
H7a	AOCC → JS → ECP	0.180	6.277	0.000	Partial
H7b	NOCC → JS → ECP	0.094	4.920	0.000	Partial
H7c	COCC → JS → ECP	0.007	2.179	0.029	Partial

Hypothesis	Path	Bootstrapping Method			Mediation
		Total effect	Direct effect	Indirect	
H6a	AORC → JS → ECP	0.236 ***	0.076 *	0.162 ***	Partial
H6b	RCOR → JS → ECP	-0.007 ns	-0.030 ns	0.023 *	Inconsistent
H7a	AOCC → JS → ECP	0.570 ***	0.402 ***	0.180 ***	Partial
H7b	NOCC → JS → ECP	0.176 **	0.087 *	0.094 ***	Partial
H7c	COCC → JS → ECP	0.025 **	0.018 *	0.007 *	Partial

Note: *** p<0.001; **p<0.01; *p<0.05; ns= not significant



JS is an inconsistent mediator, even RCOR is not a significant predictor of JS and ECP.

Figure 4.4 Summary of Structural Model Test Results (n=1388)

4.12. INVARIANCE TESTS

4.12.1. Measurement and Structural Invariances

In the following, multigroup analysis testing was conducted to examine whether the measurement model and structural model were equivalent across different demographic subgroups. First, measurement invariance was tested to confirm configural invariance to ensure that the constructs are fit across groups. At this stage, the researcher needs to create two models, namely, unconstrained and constrained models by using AMOS. Unconstrained model refers to the free multiple groups (freely estimated separately) as a baseline model for comparison of subgroups (Hair et al., 2010). Then create a constrained model to test construct-level metric invariance by imposing equality constraints on the factor loading across subgroups.

Although all model fit indices are also available for a set of group models, the main purpose for comparison is the chi-square difference which could be tested with a statistically significant level (Hair et al., 2010). When the chi-square difference is not significantly different, therefore, the model is recognized as being equivalent across groups (Byrne, 2001).

In the study, demographic characteristics were already added as control variables in SEM analysis. This study further investigated the model differences among the subgroups of two demographic information, which are job position (Operational and Managerial employees) and types of cuisines (Chinese cuisine vs. Non- Chinese cuisine). Although these additional results are not as part of the main research objectives, it may provide insightful results for implications. First, subgroups were formed by using respondents' demographic information, which is job position (Operational and

Managerial employees) and types of cuisine (Chinese vs. Non-Chinese). Multigroup analysis testing was conducted on both the measurement model and the structural model. The overall results for two different subgroups are indicated in Table 4.18. If measurement invariance testing was rejected, it would be deemed that the structural model invariance across subgroups could not be evaluated because some indicators might show measurement non-invariance due to the different background of respondents. If the measurement invariance test is supported, further path analysis will be conducted in the following section to find out which path(s) might different across subgroups.

Table 4.18 Overall Results for Multigroup Analysis

Group Comparisons	Multiple Group Analysis	Measurement/ Structural Invariance
Job Position (2groups) Operational (n=1036) Managerial (N=352)	Measurement Invariance Test	
	Unconstrained Model	$\chi^2=3599.333$, df=1622
	Full metric invariance of CFA model (L(X)Y=IN*)	$\chi^2=3656.015$, df=1667
	Difference	$\Delta\chi^2(45) = 56.682$, p=0.114 (p>0.1)
	Structural Invariance Test	
	Full Metric Invariance Model	$\chi^2=3599.333$, df=1622
	Full path invariance model (L(X)Y=IN, GA=IN, BE=IN)	$\chi^2=3662.130$, df=1671
Difference	$\Delta\chi^2(49) = 62.797$, p=0.089 (p<0.1)	
Types of Cuisine (2groups) Chinese cuisine (n=861) Non-Chinese cuisine (n=527)	Measurement Invariance Test	
	Unconstrained Model	$\chi^2=3668.608$, df=1622
	Full metric invariance of CFA model (L(X)Y=IN*)	$\chi^2=3735.960$, df=1667
	Difference	$\Delta\chi^2(45) = 67.154$, p=0.018 (p<0.5)

The first measurement invariance test for job position was supported by full metric invariance, which means that the model is recognized as equivalent across subgroups. Therefore, the structural invariance test was then further conducted to check if there is a significant difference at the model level between subgroups. As shown in Table 4.18, the result of structural invariance test is not supported; in short, some paths are differences among operational and managerial employees. The result of the multigroup analysis is reported in Section 4.12.2.

For examine the measurement invariance test at the model level among employees who are specialized in Chinese cuisine and non-Chinese cuisine, the result shows that the measurement model is different across the group. Thus, the structural model invariance could not be further evaluated.

4.12.2. Invariance Test for The Paths

4.12.2.1. Multigroup Analysis: Job Position (Operational vs. Managerial)

Two groups based on job position (operational employees=1036, managerial employees= 352) were formed. Researcher allocated both sample groups onto the AMOS 23.0 for examination using the group management function. The overall model fit for the unconstrained model, the parameters of which were estimated without constraints for these two groups, was $\chi^2 = 3599.333$, $df = 1622$, $p = 0.000$, $CFI = 0.962$, $TLI = 0.953$, $RMSEA = 0.030$, $GFI = 0.898$, and $AGFI = 0.870$, which represented an acceptable model fit.

The results of invariance tests for operational and managerial employees indicate that significant chi-square differences were found on four paths out of eleven direct paths.

The coefficient value of the path from “affective organizational commitment” to “employee creative performance” in the operational level group was significantly differenced with the management group, and they are opposite in sign. Within the group of operational employees, affective organizational commitment has a positive impact on employee creative performance. Surprisingly, this relationship becomes a negative impact on the managerial group. For the path between “affective organizational commitment” and “job satisfaction”, the coefficient value in the operational group was significantly greater than the coefficient value in the managerial group. Significant chi-square differences between the operational and managerial employees on the path between “normative occupational commitment” and “job satisfaction”. The coefficient value in managerial employees was greater than the operational group. Finally, the path coefficient value of the link between “job satisfaction” and “employee creative performance” in the managerial group was greater than the operational group.

Table 4.19 Results of the Invariance Tests of Paths (Job Position)

Operational vs. Managerial Employees					
	Hypothesis Paths		χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2/df$	Findings
	Freely estimated Model		3599.333/1622		
H1a	Affective organizational commitment (AORC) → Employee Creativity Performance (ECP)		3605.729/1623	6.396/1**	O > M 0.135 > -0.061
H1b	Normative organizational commitment (NORC) → Employee Creativity Performance (ECP)		3599.673/1623	0.340/1	
H2a	Affective organizational commitment (AORC) → Job Satisfaction (JS)		3611.174/1623	11.841/1***	O > M 0.507 > 0.229
H2b	Normative organizational commitment (NORC) → Job Satisfaction (JS)		3601.448/1623	2.115/1	
H3a	Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) → Employee Creativity Performance (ECP)		3600.327/1623	0.994/1	
H3b	Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) → Employee Creativity Performance (ECP)		3599.555/1623	0.222/1	
H3c	Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) → Employee Creativity Performance (ECP)		3601.041/1623	1.708/1	
H4a	Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) → Job Satisfaction (JS)		3599.370/1623	0.037/1	
H4b	Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) → Job Satisfaction (JS)		3602.631/1623	3.298/1*	O < M 0.199 < 0.390
H4c	Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) → Job Satisfaction (JS)		3599.854/1623	0.521/1	
H5	Job Satisfaction (JS) → Employee Creativity Performance (ECP)		3602.227/1623	2.894/1*	O < M 0.332 < 0.541

Note: *source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.1}(1) = 2.706$)

**source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.1}(1) = 3.841$)

***source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.1}(1) = 6.635$)

4.13. Chapter Summary

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the main survey. Firstly, the raw data was checked with a normality test, and problematic cases were screened out for further analysis. A thousand three hundred and eighty-eight samples were deemed valid for data analysis. All the constructs adopted in this study are well developed and examined by

extensive scholars. As such, two steps approach were mainly used for data analysis, namely, CFA and SEM. However, there are some arguments on organizational commitment constructs with one-, two- or three-factors model. Therefore, this study performed an EFA for the construct of organizational commitment, which explored and confirmed the scale as a two-factors construct. Later, the proposed individual measurement models were validated by using CFA. After examining the measurement model, a structural model with seven constructs was then examined with selected control variables. The models fit the data well, and seven hypotheses were tested.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Chapter Introduction

This chapter recalls the research objectives of the present study. It presents a discussion of findings in the previous chapters and the implications derived from the results. This chapter concludes with a discussion of theoretical and practical implications.

5.2. Research Objective 1: To investigate the relationship between the two-component model of organizational commitment impact, job satisfaction and creativity in kitchen operations

The first hypothesis incorporated two sub-hypotheses, which were developed to examine the effects of employee organizational commitment on employee creative performance. The findings of this study indicate that affective and normative organizational commitment did not have any significant influence on employee creative performance in Mainland China.

First, Hypothesis 1a, “affective organizational commitment is likely to have a positive effect on employee creative performance,” was supported ($\beta=0.076$, $t=2.169$, $p<0.05$) with the presence of job satisfaction as a mediator in the conceptual model. Surprisingly, if the researcher took out job satisfaction in the model, affective organizational commitment shows a stronger significant path toward employee creative performance ($\beta=0.236$, $t=7.208$, $p<0.001$). It shows that affective organizational commitment has a direct effect on employee creative behavior when employees are satisfied with their job duties. This result is close to researcher’s expectation because

several previous studies indicated that employees with high affective organizational commitment are likely to generate a positive effect toward their creative behavior (Jafri, 2010; Mansfeld et al., 2010; Perry et al., 2016). Jafri (2010) analyses the affective organizational commitment of retail employee and finds that it showed a positive effect toward employee creative behaviors, and this result is supported by other studies in the field of engineering (Perry et al., 2016). This interpretation differs from the innovative behavior study of Mansfeld et al. (2010), who discovered affective organizational commitment was only significantly and positively impacting on one out of five innovator roles, namely, champion. Champion refers to an employee who shows tenacity in overcoming any obstacles and difficulties. However, there is no significant and positive impact on the other four innovator roles, which are expert, process, power, and relationship promotor. It might provide a hint that the impact of affective organizational commitment on employee creativity depending on job positions and work duties or fully mediated by other potential variables. As employee affective organizational commitment was found a direct effect on creative performance, it is important for an organization to put effort into arousing employee commitment. Øgaard et al. (2008) suggested that an organic and mechanic working environment could arouse employee affective commitment with an organization and their working performance. Organic working environment means an organization empowered their employees with openness and freedom, whereas mechanic environment emphasizes efficiency, repetition, and formalization. They suggested both ways are not in opposite poles, but complementary of each other in achieving organizational effectiveness. When employees feel more attached

and satisfied, they are proud to be part of the organization, which leads to a better working performance (Gong, Law, et al., 2009; Kim & Brymer, 2011).

Second, Hypothesis 1b, “retention commitment to an organization is likely to have a positive effect on employee creative performance,” was also not supported ($\beta = -0.030$, $t = -1.376$, $p > 0.05$) with the presence of job satisfaction (mediator) in the conceptual model. This study found an insignificant negative impact of normative subtype on ECP. Dissimilar to Hypothesis 1a, this result is somewhat counterintuitive. The impact of normative organizational commitment remained insignificant impact on employee creative performance when job satisfaction was absent in the model ($\beta = -0.007$, $t = -0.287$, $p > 0.05$). This interpretation extended the meta-analysis findings of Meyer et al. (2002), who suggested their commitment to stay within an organization is positively correlated with job performance. However, the impact might change when other influential variables are considered in the conceptual model.

On the other hand, both path results were insignificant, and as a result of that, this result extends the finding from the previous study that normative organizational commitment does not have a significant effect on employee creative performance (Jafri, 2010). This study confirms that employees with only high willingness to stay within an organization do not generate a positive impact on their job performance, which in turn, diminishes their creative performance. This result hints that the main effect might be dominated by affective organizational commitment or might be mediated by other hidden factors.

There is limited empirical study to explore the indirect effect led by other potential variables such as job satisfaction, which reflects employees’ sense of accomplishment to

derives their job duties in the hospitality industry. This study fills the gap and provides insight into the potential mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between organizational commitment and employee creative performance in the upcoming section 5.4.

The second hypothesis also incorporated two sub-hypotheses, which were developed to examine the effects of employee organizational commitment on job satisfaction. The findings of this study indicate that affective and normative organizational commitment have significant effects on job satisfaction in Mainland China.

Hypothesis 2a, “affective organizational commitment is likely to have a positive effect on job satisfaction,” was supported ($\beta=0.431$, $t=12.143$, $p<0.001$). This result supported the findings in previous hospitality research in Turkey (Kuruüzüm et al., 2009), Cyprus (Zopiatis et al., 2014), South India (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007) and United States (Kang et al., 2015) but different from a research of master students in Malaysia which found a significant negative impact (Lee & Kamarul, 2009). Silva (2006) also found a positive correlation between overall organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the research of two major hotel chains in the western part of the United States. Similarly, Yang (2010) found a positive correlation between AORC and JS from the sample of frontline employees who are working in international tourist hotels in Taiwan. Employees who are “*proud to tell others that they are part of the organization*” tend to have a higher emotional attachment with the organization, leading to higher job satisfaction. Employees with high affective commitment with their current organization, also find that “*their value and organizational value are very similar.*” They also indicated

that they are willing to “*put in an extra effort in order to assist their organization be successful*”.

Hypothesis 2b, “retention commitment to an organization is likely to have a positive effect on job satisfaction,” was supported ($\beta=0.061$, $t=2.692$, $p<0.001$). Employees with high retention commitment with their organization tend to have a higher satisfaction level on their job duties. They perceived themselves “*making the right choice to work for their current organization.*” Interestingly, this finding supports the hospitality studies in Western Asia (Turkey) and European country (Cyprus) (Kuruüzüm et al., 2009; Zopiatis et al., 2014) but different result from South India (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007). Namasivayam and Zhao (2007) found employees with high normative commitment to stay within an organization have an insignificant positive effect on their job satisfaction and identified that affective-subtype of organizational commitment nominated the main impact on job satisfaction. Although affective subtype had a larger impact, this study confirmed that retention commitment also had a significant positive impact on their job satisfaction in China's hospitality industry. Hotel organizations should be sensitive and aware of their employees' needs and want to maintain and arouse their commitment and satisfaction (Kuruüzüm et al., 2009). During measurement refinement, three statements of normative organizational commitment was removed, namely, “*It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization*”, “*There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely*”, “*Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part*” They are all reversely coded statements. This study leaves rooms for scale refinement in future research.

5.3. Research Objective 2: To explore the correlation between the three-component model of occupational commitment impact, job satisfaction and creativity in kitchen operations

The third hypothesis incorporated three sub-hypotheses, which were developed to examine the effects of employee occupational commitment on creative performance. The findings of this study indicate that affective and continuance occupational commitment have significant effects on employee creative performance in Mainland China, but the insignificant effect of normative occupational commitment.

Hypothesis 3a, “affective occupational commitment is likely to have a positive effect on employee creative performance,” was supported ($\beta=0.402$, $t=7.315$, $p<0.001$). This result also supported the findings from other studies on research and development department (Mansfeld et al., 2010), doctors in Pakistan (Yousaf et al., 2015), as well as scientists and engineers industry (Perry et al., 2016). Similar to scientists, chefs, or kitchen employees are in the role of creating a new product by combining different ingredients for business success. Employees with high affective occupational commitment perceived “*chef occupation is important to their self-image*” and “*a sense of proud to be in the profession,*” could be strengthened by positive and happy work experience (Meyer & Espinoza, 2016). Scholars also suggested that employees with high occupational commitment tend to actively join the professional activities, including professional development program or professional meetings (Irving et al., 1997; Snape & Redman, 2003). They also felt enthusiastic about their profession and other related culinary knowledge. This may also be explicated by a strong intrinsic motivation to the work duties itself, which leads to higher job involvement and better creative performance. In the

findings of Robinson et al. (2014, p. 72), "*Chefs have got their professionalism inside them. So the job has got to be done, and it has got to be done well. It does not matter how long it takes*". They suggested that it is a common culture of occupational behavior and expected conduct of occupational members. Yousaf et al. (2016) mentioned that occupational turnover intention is influenced by a human resource management system and their occupational commitment. This study extended their findings in that employee creative behavior is not only influenced by the supervisory style and work group support (Amabile et al., 1996) but also affected by their occupational commitment. During CFA, this study removed two indicators from the construct to achieve discriminant validity, which are "I dislike being a chef (reversely coded)" and "I do not identify with the chef profession. (reversely coded)". Future studies might reassess the measurement scale that captures the appropriate meaning of affective commitment mindset towards an occupation.

Hypothesis 3b, "normative occupational commitment is likely to have a positive effect on employee creative performance," was supported ($\beta=0.088$, $t=2.692$, $p<0.05$). This result is similar to previous studies in the research and development field (Mansfeld et al., 2010). Mansfeld et al. (2010) indicated that normative occupational commitment is likely to have different impacts on several innovator roles within an organization. For example, the normative occupational commitment had a significant and negative impact on process promotor (with influence from organizational know-how and intra-organizational networks) but an insignificant and positive impact on power promotors (with hierarchical power for needed resources). However, there is an insignificant and negative impact on relationship promotor (with strong internal and external personnel communication). There is an insignificant impact of NOCC for four out of five innovators,

which are expert promotor (with technical know-how) and champion (who pursue new project ideas). Their results emphasized that this subtype of mindsets could be an independent and generative either positive or negative impact on employee creativity according to the roles of employees within an organization or across departments. The current study found that this normative subtype has a slightly significant and positive effect on the consequence. Employees with high NOCC believe they have a responsibility to stay in a profession for a reasonable period upon education or related training and a sense of loyalty with the profession, which brings a direct impact on creative performance, is found. Again, this study removed one statement “*I do not feel any obligation to remain in the culinary profession. (reversely coded)*” during scale refinement. It provides rooms for future study to explore and assess the scale in different context across countries.

Hypothesis 3c, “continuance occupational commitment is likely to have a negative effect on employee creative performance,” was partially supported ($\beta=0.018$, $t=2.466$, $p<0.05$). Surprisingly, this result was opposite to the original hypothesis and dissimilar from preceding research (Mansfeld et al., 2010). Mansfeld et al. (2010) indicated that continuance occupational commitment is likely to have an insignificant and negative effect on employee creative behavior with expertise and technical know-how. However, this study found that continuance-subtype has a slightly significant and positive effect on the consequence. Employees with high COCC perceived themselves as “*have(ing) put too much into the profession; it is hard for them to consider changing other occupation, which requires considerable personal sacrifice.*” The current study indicated that respondents are less likely to leave the occupation because there is a perceived high cost or lack of alternatives. However, this subtype of mindset did not diminish their creative performance.

On the contrary, it aroused their creativity in the workplace. This interesting finding might be explained by the unique setting of kitchen employees who are working in 4 to 5-star hotel in mainland China. Food service employees who are working in hotel properties (with a relatively higher level of salary and benefits) might have a higher COCC than those who worked in small-sized restaurants.

Akin to the third hypothesis, the fourth hypothesis has three sub-hypotheses to investigate the effects of employee occupational commitment on job satisfaction. This study found that affective and normative occupational commitment have significant effects on their job satisfaction. However, there are insignificant effects of continuance occupational commitment on their job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4a, in which “affective occupational commitment is likely to have a positive effect on job satisfaction”, was supported ($\beta=0.478$, $t=8.978$, $p<0.001$). This result supports previous findings in research of knowledge workers in large corporations (financial and telecommunication companies) (May et al., 2002), a study of lawyers in Israel (Carmeli & Freund, 2004) and nurses in Japan (Caricati et al., 2014; Satoh et al., 2017). In the commitment literature, a limited study was found to explore the impact of occupational commitment on the job-related outcome, particularly in the hospitality industry. The results of the current study filled the gap in the literature in confirming a positive and significant impact of affective occupational commitment on employee job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Employees with high emotional attachment on their current occupation tend to have actively involved with their work duties and enhance their job satisfaction to build their confidence for career development (Ko, 2012). This effect does not only apply to the occupations that require high educational level such as

lawyers but also extend to other occupations within the hospitality industry, such as chefs and kitchen employees in this study. In a qualitative study of chefs, a respondent mentioned that “*you are always making something... it’s a short-term thing like you have created something and cooked it, tasted it; it tastes good, you are happy*” (Robinson et al., 2014). It further explained employees with high affective occupational commitment tends to have a higher intrinsic motivation and job involvement, which leads to satisfying their job duties and maintaining professional competences.

Hypothesis 4b, “normative occupational commitment is likely to have a positive effect on job satisfaction,” was supported ($\beta=0.250$, $t=5.988$, $p<0.001$). This finding further supports the positive correlation results from Satoh et al. (2017) in the research of Japanese nurses. The impact of organizational commitment on job satisfaction has been widely investigated in the hospitality industry (Silva, 2006; Yang, 2010). However, occupational commitment has been neglected in most of the hospitality research in the commitment literature. The present study included three mindsets of occupational commitment in the model and explore its impact on job satisfaction. Employees, who perceived themselves as having a relatively high sense of obligation on their current occupation, also have better job satisfaction. Although normative occupational commitment had a positive and significant impact on the consequence, affective occupational commitment dominated the major impact on job satisfaction, which is consistent with previous studies on the related consequence including job satisfaction and turnover intention (Satoh et al., 2017; Yang, 2010). When an individual feels a sense of loyalty with their job position or occupation, they have a higher occupational commitment and job involvement, which leads to better job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4c, “continuance occupational commitment is likely to have a positive effect on job satisfaction,” was supported ($\beta=0.018$, $t=2.357$, $p<0.05$). The current study found that continuance occupational commitment has a positive and slightly significant impact on the consequence, which further extended our understanding in different types of occupational commitment in previous studies (Robinson et al., 2014). This result indicated that this subtype or mindset is not the main concern for respondents to decide to work in their current occupation. It might be costly for employees to change this profession. However, there is not much pressure forcing them to change occupation. Carson et al. (1996) indicated career enrichment (including career investment, emotional costs and career alternatives) has a positive impact on employee organizational commitment and negative impact on intention to leave, which is also supported by Chang et al. (2007) in their study of nurses. Although this study does not find a strong significant relationship between continuance-subtype of occupational commitment and job satisfaction, this study leaves rooms for future studies to explore its hidden impact on other job outcome variables, such as the intention to leave the hospitality industry or their workplace in the region.

5.4. Research Objective 3: To examine the mediating effect of job satisfaction between organizational commitment and creativity in kitchen operations

Before exploring the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relation between organizational commitment and creativity, the researcher needs to confirm the relationship between the mediator and the endogenous variable.

Hypothesis 5, “job satisfaction is likely to have a positive effect on employee creative performance,” was supported ($\beta=0.376$, $t=8.839$, $p<0.001$). This result supported

the findings from previous studies among hotel chefs in Bangkok, Thailand (Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016), exhibition employees in Turkey (Akgunduz et al., 2018), as well as a result from a qualitative study of chefs (Robinson, 2005). As expected, job satisfaction and employee creativity have a strong connection among hotels' kitchen employees in China. Employees with high job satisfaction tend to have a higher willingness to engage in organizational activities, which leads to better job performance and creativity. This result is different from the study of Pratten (2003), who found an absence of motivation and job satisfaction among chefs in the restaurant industry in the United Kingdom. It may further indicate that employees who are working in the restaurant industry might shape different employee behavior and commitment in comparison with employees who are working in hotel properties, particularly in 4 and 5-star hotels.

Hypothesis 6a, "job satisfaction is likely to mediate the relationship between affective organizational commitment and employee creative performance," was supported as partial mediation (H1a: $\beta=0.076$, $t=2.169$, $p<0.05$; H6a: (Sobel) $\beta=0.431*0.376=0.162$, $t=7.130$, $p<0.001$). From bootstrapping technique, the estimate of the indirect effect from job satisfaction to employee creativity was found to be positive (0.162) and significant ($p< 0.001$). Job satisfaction has partially mediated the relationship between affective organizational commitment and employee creativity in China. In other words, kitchen employees with high organizational commitment may have a better creative performance when they are content with their job duties. If they feel job dissatisfaction, employees with high AORC may not be willing to perform creatively. Therefore, the intermediate variable is visibly important for explaining the total effect (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). The

results indicated that employee job satisfaction could strengthen or weaken the effect of affective organizational commitment on employee creativity. Thus, it seems to contribute to the added value of human resource management in the hotel industry in China. If potential employees exhibit job dissatisfaction, then managerial employees should attempt to find out the problems that they encounter and enhance their job satisfaction level with the current organization. It helps to arouse their job involvement and perform the work itself creatively.

The last relationship considered in this objective, Hypothesis 6b, “job satisfaction is likely to mediate the relationship between retention commitment to an organization and employee creative performance”, was partially supported as an inconsistent mediation even if the total effect is insignificant (MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007) (H1b: $\beta = -0.030$, $t = -1.376$, $p > 0.05$; H6b: (Sobel) $\beta = 0.061 * 0.376 = 0.023$, $t = 2.538$, $p < 0.001$; (Bootstrap) indirect = 0.024, $p < 0.001$). For inconsistent mediation, it could be the case that independent variable might not significantly impact dependent variable when the mediator is absent in the model, but there is still mediation effect found when entering mediator into the model. In this study, retention commitment had a negative and insignificant impact on employee creative performance when ignoring job satisfaction in the structural model. After adding the mediator, the impact of retention commitment on employee creative performance remains an insignificant negative impact. This negative and direct impact is opposite in sign with the indirect effect (which comprises the positive impact between RCOR and JS, as well as JS and ECP). In this situation, the mediator acts as a suppressor variable. Presumably, the direct effect is negative, and the higher the retention commitment, the lower the performance. Surprisingly, the effect of retention

commitment on job satisfaction is likely to be positive (higher commitment, higher satisfaction) and the effect of job satisfaction on employee creative performance is positive (higher satisfaction, better creative performance), therefore making the indirect effect positive. The total effect of RCOR on employee creative performance is likely to be very small ($\beta = -0.007$) because the direct and indirect effects will tend to offset each other. This study provides rooms for future research to repetitively explore this mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between retention commitment to an organization and employee creativity in other context or countries to reconfirm its inconsistent mediation.

5.5. Research Objective 4: To examine the mediating effect of job satisfaction between occupational commitment and creativity in kitchen operations

This objective consisted of three sub-hypotheses in investigating the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between different mindsets of occupational commitment and employee creative performance.

Hypothesis 7a, “job satisfaction is likely to mediate the relationship between affective occupational commitment and employee creative performance”, was supported as partial mediation (H4a: $\beta = 0.478$, $t = 8.978$, $p < 0.001$; H7a: (Sobel) $\beta = 0.478 * 0.376 = 0.180$, $t = 6.277$, $p < 0.001$; (Bootstrap) indirect = 0.180, $p < 0.001$). As expected, employees who emotionally attached to their occupation tends to have a better creative performance, and this impact is partially mediated by higher job satisfaction. This result supported and extended the results from the previous study in exploring job satisfaction as a mediator between management commitment and hotel employee behavior in Thailand (H. J. Kim et al., 2009). It provides hints to managerial employees

for human resource management. Hiring potential candidates from the culinary or hospitality-related institution, they might build a relatively higher emotional attachment with the occupation through training and education. Managerial employees are also recommended to be sensitive to employee responses and behaviors during work hours, as it might reflect their satisfaction level. Hotel organizations might also create a system for employees to voice out their ideas or reflection on work, which helps to arouse employee job satisfaction (Kim et al., 2018).

Hypothesis 7b, “job satisfaction is likely to mediate the relationship between normative occupational commitment and employee creative performance”, was supported as partial mediation (H4b: $\beta=0.250$, $t=5.988$, $p<0.001$; H7b: (Sobel) $\beta=0.250*0.376=0.094$, $t=4.920$, $p<0.001$; (Bootstrap) indirect= 0.094, $p<0.001$). As expected, job satisfaction does fully mediate the association between normative occupational commitment and employee creativity. This finding extended the understanding of job satisfaction as a mediator between employee commitment and behaviors (H. J. Kim et al., 2009). This normative subtype does directly and positively affect employees to perform their job creatively when job satisfaction is absent in the model. Once the researcher includes job satisfaction in the model, this commitment subtype shows an insignificant impact on their behaviors. This study implies that employees who are normatively committed with their occupation exert a higher degree of employee creative behaviors when they are satisfied. In this situation, job satisfaction has a higher impact than normative occupational commitment. In other words, employees with low normative occupational commitment might not directly influence their performance, but their job satisfaction does matter

Hypothesis 7c, “job satisfaction is likely to mediate the relationship between continuance occupational commitment and employee creative performance”, was supported as partial mediation (H4c: $\beta=0.018$, $t=2.357$ $p<0.05$; H7c: (Sobel) $\beta=0.018*0.376=0.007$, $t=2.179$, $p<0.05$; (Bootstrap) indirect= 0.007, $p<0.05$). Interestingly, job satisfaction has a relatively less significant mediation effect on the above relationship than Hypothesis 7a and 7b; this work has extended our knowledge in the existing commitment literature (H. J. Kim et al., 2009). Employees with high continuance occupational commitment (because of high switching cost) do influence their work performance and their satisfaction level with their work duties. Under the measurement of continuance occupational commitment, an indicator “*I have put too much into the culinary profession to consider changing now*” has the highest average mean, whereas “*It would be costly for me to change my profession now*” and “*There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions. (reversely coded)*” had the lowest. Although respondents might perceive a high switching cost to change the occupation, they do not perceive it as a wrong occupational choice and do not have much pressure to force them to leave the industry. Employees who chose to stay with their occupation do affect their emotional attitude with their work duties and their job performance which have a direct association with their career planning, performance appraisal or promotion opportunities (Ko, 2012). Therefore, employees with either high or low satisfaction with their work do mediate the relationship between continuance occupational commitment and employee creative performance.

5.6. Contribution of the Study

This result of this present study provides a theoretical contribution for academics to extend the knowledge of employee commitment in hospitality research. It also provides insights and practical implications for managerial employees to improve existing human resource strategies and enhance employee creative performance. The summary of findings indicates in the following (see also Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1):

Table 5.1 Summary of Hypothesis Test Results ($n=1388$)

Hypothesis Paths		Results
H1a	Affective occupational commitment (AORC) → ECP	Supported*
H1b	Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR) → ECP	Not supported
H2a	Affective occupational commitment (AORC) → JS	Supported***
H2b	Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR) → JS	Supported*
H3a	Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) → ECP	Supported***
H3b	Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) → ECP	Supported*
H3c	Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) → ECP	Supported*
H4a	Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) → JS	Supported***
H4b	Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) → JS	Supported***
H4c	Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) → JS	Supported**
H5	Job Satisfaction (JS) → ECP	Supported***
H6a	AORC → JS → ECP	Supported, partial mediation***
H6b	RCOR → JS → ECP	Partially supported, inconsistent mediation*
H7a	AOCC → JS → ECP	Supported, partial mediation***
H7b	NOCC → JS → ECP	Supported, partial mediation***
H7c	COCC → JS → ECP	Supported, partial mediation*

- Affective organizational commitment (AORC) has a significant positive relationship on employee creative performance (ECP).
- Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR) has an insignificant negative relationship on ECP.
- AORC has a significant positive impact on job satisfaction (JS).
- RCOR has a significant positive impact on JS.
- Affective occupational commitment (AOCC) has a positive and significant impact on ECP.
- Normative occupational commitment (NOCC) has a significant positive impact on ECP
- Continuance occupational commitment (COCC) has a significant positive impact on ECP
- AOCC has a positive and significant association with JS.
- NOCC has a positive and significant association with JS.
- COCC has a significant positive association with JS.
- The relationship between AORC and ECP is partially mediated by JS.
- The relationship between RCOR and ECP do not mediate by JS.
- The relationship between AOCC and ECP is partially mediated by JS
- The relationship between NOCC and ECP is partially mediated by JS.
- The relationship between COCC and ECP is partially mediated by JS.

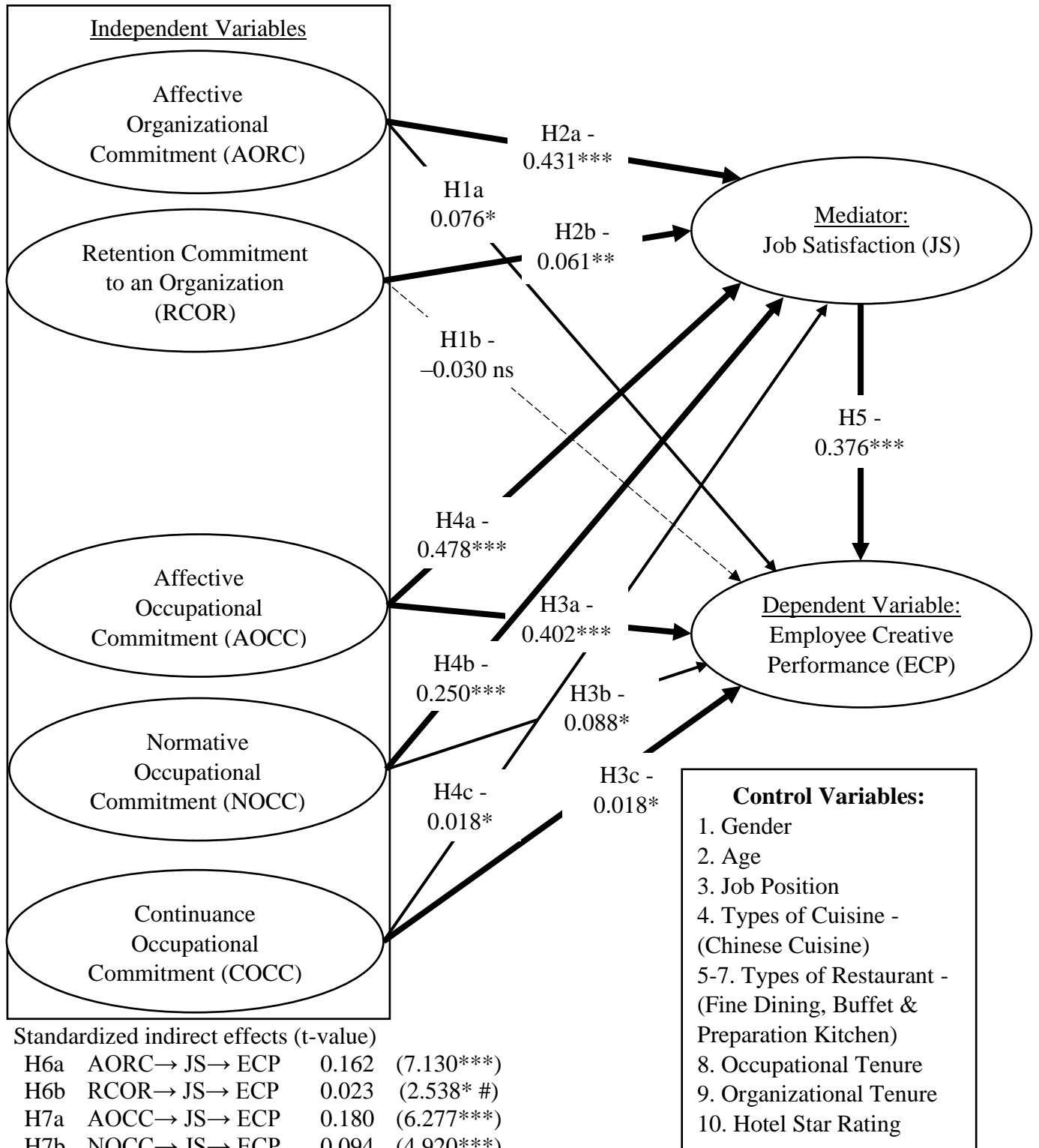


Figure 5.1 Summary of Hypothesis Test Results (n=1388)

5.7. Academic Contributions

This study is one of the first in hotel and catering field to empirically test both distinct employee commitments (i.e., organizational commitment and occupational commitment) and its impact on their working attitude, job satisfaction, and creative performance. The present study explores the relationship among organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee creativity. Based on the discussion of the first four objectives, this empirical study contributes to the commitment and creativity literature in the following way.

First, this study investigates the relationship between two-components model of organizational commitment and job-related outcomes, which are job satisfaction and creative performance. Most of the studies conducted by collecting samples from retail employees (Jafri, 2010), research and development employees (Mansfeld et al., 2010) and engineers (Perry et al., 2016). This study fills the gap in organizational commitment literature for the hospitality industry. To address this research gap, this study conducted an individual analysis for a sample of 1,388 kitchen employees in 18 4-star hotel and 35 5-stars hotel from three main districts in Mainland China. Given that this study was supported in an extensive literature and empirical findings in various disciplines and contexts, the conceptual framework has presented evidence to support the dimensionality and consequences of both distinct employee commitments, which can be adopted by other sectors including hospitality and catering industry.

Second, this research also extended the understanding of impacts from two different components of organizational commitment. Affective organizational commitment has found a larger impact than the other subtypes (i.e. retention commitment

to an organization), but it also played a role to trigger effect on employee job satisfaction. For the measurement scale of organizational commitment, this study also validates the measurement scale from Mowday et al. (1979) as a two-dimensional construct instead of one-factor or three-factor model, which supported the findings from previous studies (Al-Yami et al., 2018; Alyami, 2013; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001; Fisher et al., 2010). This study also provides evidence and arguments on lack of consistency of the dimensions under organizational commitment constructs in Section 2.4.5. It also suggests the overlapping dimensions of two commonly used constructs by reviewing their measurement items, as the two widely used constructs are developed by Mowday et al. (1979) and Meyer et al. (1993).

Third, occupational commitment is still an under-studied area in hotel and catering field, which is highly correlated with employee organizational commitment. This study proves that occupational commitment brings a larger effect on their job satisfaction and performance than organizational commitment, which supports some saying that an individual is considered his or her occupational goals and values at first than organizational goals and visions (Meyer et al., 1993). The results indicated that affective occupational commitment has a stronger effect on both work outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and creative performance) than the other two subtypes (i.e., normative and continuance occupational commitment). Although the two subtypes had less impact in comparison to affective occupational commitment, both show a higher impact than a sub-component of organizational commitment (i.e., retention commitment to stay in an organization). It further highlighted the importance of occupational commitment to an organization and the entire industry.

The research findings of this study do not only provide new insights in commitment and management literature but also into creativity literature (see Figure 5.2). Regarding the mediating role of job satisfaction, this study empirically verified its mediating role between each component of distinct employee commitment and their creative performance. To be specific, job satisfaction partially mediated between affective organizational commitment and creative performance, whereas slightly inconsistent mediated between retention commitment and creative performance (i.e., the direct and indirect effect tend to offset each other because of the opposite in sign). For occupational commitment, job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between each sub-component and creative performance.

5.8. Practical Implications

The rationale for this study is inspired by the demand within China's hospitality industry for employee creative performance from employees' commitment perspectives. The empirical results can provide several managerial implications for the hospitality industry, especially for managers in the food and beverage departments.

5.8.1. Implications for the Hotel Industry: Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has long been a predictor of organizational turnover intention, where the negative outcome is predictable (Chew & Wong, 2008; Kang et al., 2015; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007; Kim & Brymer, 2011; Rahim, 2011). The result of this study suggested that employee commitment with an organization could play a positive role in arousing employee job satisfaction (attitudinal outcome) and creative performance (behavior outcome) such as developing new ideas and methods for work duties. This is an interesting and under-studied area in the hospitality sector, especially for some job positions who need creativity as part of their job requirements, such as kitchen employees (Leung & Lin, 2018).

This study provides a checklist for managers as a reference to explore their subordinates' commitment to an organization. Table 5.2 shows the predictors of the two dimensions under organizational commitment constructs. Managers might be able to observe the subordinates' attitude and behaviors to identify or estimate the level of organizational commitment. To maintain a high level of organizational commitment, managers are advised to be sensitive and aware of their subordinates' or coworkers' commitment with a current organization which, in turn, can enhance employee

satisfaction level and promote creative performance. When managers observed their subordinates with a low commitment level, they are suggested to find out the hidden factors through in-depth communication and mentoring (Chang & Busser, 2017; Chew & Wong, 2008). In the extensive literature, there are different antecedents to arouse employee organizational commitment, namely, career mentoring (Chang & Busser, 2017), co-worker relationship (He, Lai, et al., 2011), intrinsic (Karatepe & Uludag, 2007) and extrinsic motivation (Yousaf et al., 2015), leadership style (Çelik et al., 2015), organizational structure (Øgaard et al., 2008) or even managerial support (Colakoglu et al., 2010; He, Lai, et al., 2011; He, Li, et al., 2011; Karatepe et al., 2007). Managerial employees should also provide employees with clear job specifications to increase work efficiency, as well as to increase employee commitment to the organization.

Table 5.2 ORC Checklist for Managers

ORC Dimensions	Indicators
<input type="checkbox"/> Affective Organizational Commitment (AORC)	<input type="checkbox"/> Willing to put in extra effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organization be successful. <input type="checkbox"/> Talk up this organization to their friends as a great organization to work for. <input type="checkbox"/> Accept almost any type of job assignment to keep working for this organization. <input type="checkbox"/> Find that their values and the organization's value are very similar. <input type="checkbox"/> Proud to tell others that they are part of this organization. <input type="checkbox"/> Inspires the very best in the way of job performance by an organization. <input type="checkbox"/> Glad to choose this organization to work for over others. <input type="checkbox"/> Care about the fate of this organization. <input type="checkbox"/> Consider as the best of all possible organization for which to work.
<input type="checkbox"/> Retention Commitment to an organization (RCOR)	<input type="checkbox"/> Stay with this organization even though they have other similar working options. <input type="checkbox"/> Stay with the organization even though there is very little change in their present circumstances <input type="checkbox"/> Easy to agree with this organization's policies on an important matter relating to them.

(Source: Compiled by the author)

5.8.2. Implications for the Hotel Industry: Occupational Commitment

Apart from organizational commitment, this study also addresses the importance of occupational commitment and its impact on work outcomes. Similar to the checklist of ORC, this study also provides a checklist for managers to identify or examine their subordinates' commitment to occupation (see Table 5.3). This checklist is not only suitable for assessing existing employees but also valid for human resource managers to assess the candidate for potential talent. Unlike organizational commitment, employees already have a certain expectation on their occupational or career goals before entering the organization, and it is hard to change organizational influences. A study suggested that effort-reward balance could enhance their affective commitment with an occupation (Sato et al., 2017), whereas Hanan and Zainal (2012) suggested that it could be influenced by occupational culture. For instance, kitchen employees would feel recognized by the community when they are participating in an occupational-related activity during non-working hours. Thus, it probably develops a sense of belonging to an occupation. By understanding employees' occupational commitment and expectation, organizations might be able to minimize the conflicts between organizational and occupational goals, which, in turn, arouse their job satisfaction and creative performance.

In addition, this checklist is also applicable for culinary-related institutions when assessing their level of commitment with an occupation in different periods (before, during or after the study), to monitor an effective culinary program to be a strong workforce provider for the hospitality industry.

Table 5.3 OCC Checklist for Managers or Educational Institutions

OCC Dimensions	Indicators
<input type="checkbox"/> Affective Occupational Commitment (AOCC)	<input type="checkbox"/> Chef profession is important to his or her self-image. <input type="checkbox"/> Do not regret having entered the chef profession. <input type="checkbox"/> Proud to be in the culinary profession. <input type="checkbox"/> Enthusiastic about the chef or culinary.
<input type="checkbox"/> Normative Occupational Commitment (NOCC)	<input type="checkbox"/> Believes people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period. <input type="checkbox"/> Feel a responsibility to the culinary profession to continue in it. <input type="checkbox"/> Even if it were to his or her advantage, he or she do not feel that it would be right to leave the culinary industry now. <input type="checkbox"/> Feel guilty if he or she left the culinary industry. <input type="checkbox"/> Stay with chef position because of a sense of loyalty to it.
<input type="checkbox"/> Continuance Occupational Commitment (COCC)	<input type="checkbox"/> Put too much into the culinary profession to consider changing now. <input type="checkbox"/> Changing professions now would be difficult for he or she to do. <input type="checkbox"/> Too much of his or her life would be disrupted if he or she were to change my profession. <input type="checkbox"/> It would be costly for me to change my profession now. <input type="checkbox"/> There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions. <input type="checkbox"/> Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice.

(Source: Compiled by the author)

5.8.3. Implications for the Hotel Industry: Job Satisfaction

Another highlight of this study is the mediating role of job satisfaction between employee commitments and creative performance. In general, the results suggested that job satisfaction partially mediated the positive relationship between each component of commitment and creative performance. Therefore, this study also recommended managers to be aware and ensure their subordinates satisfy their work duties. In theory, human resources practice, including rewards and training, are one of the ways to enhance employee job satisfaction (Chiang et al., 2014; H. J. Kim et al., 2009). Kong et al. (2015) also suggested that hotel career management activities contributed positively to employees' career expectation and job satisfaction, which may help to retain their talents.

This study extends Kong et al.'s findings, which indicated that employees with high commitment to an organization and occupation tend to have a higher job satisfaction, resulting in a higher creative performance.

From a practical perspective, this study addresses sub-components of commitment could arouse or diminish employee job satisfaction and creative performance. This understanding allows practitioners or human resource manager to allocate their resources appropriately to shape an effective human resource system. Future research is needed to investigate whether there are demographic differences for the conceptual framework of this study, including, gender, age, education level, types of restaurant, types of cuisine, organizational tenure, occupational tenure and hotel star rating that might also have a potential impact within a framework.

5.9. Chapter Summary

This chapter provides interpretations and discussions on the findings of this study according to the research objectives. It includes the effect of two-components organizational commitment on job satisfaction and employee creative performance as two major outcomes, the effect of three-components occupational commitment on the two outcomes, the mediation effect of job satisfaction between employee commitment and their creative performance and the overall structural relationship between organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction and employee creative performance. Based on the empirical results, it presents the implication for the hotel and catering industry to improve their job satisfaction and creative performance in China's hospitality industry.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS

6.1. Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of this study. Limitations of the current study and suggested future research direction are also identified. This chapter ends with the concluding remarks.

6.2. Overview of the Study

This study aims to investigate to the understanding of the effects of employee organizational commitment and occupational commitment on their job satisfaction and employee creative behavior by taking the case of kitchen employees who are working in 4 and 5-star hotels in China. Chapter 1 presents the rationale for conducting the study.

Despite the importance of studying employee commitment and its consequences in the hospitality context, this area of research remains limited. The linkage between both commitment and their creative performance and a comparison study of different impact from organizational commitment and occupational commitment are not well researched. Previous studies have neither attempted to explore and investigate the effect of different mindsets under both commitments on job-related outcomes nor empirically tested the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the above relationships. Thus, the objectives of this study are:

(1) to investigate the relationship between the three-component model of organizational commitment impact, job satisfaction and creativity in kitchen operations in China;

(2) to explore the correlation between the three-component model of occupational commitment impact, job satisfaction, and creativity;

(3) to examine the mediating effect of job satisfaction between organizational commitment and creativity;

(4) to examine the mediating effect of job satisfaction between occupational commitment and creativity;

(5) to make feasible recommendations to managing practitioners and scholars with the application of the above-identified relationships.

Chapter 2 presents a comprehensive literature review on the subject. The literature review shows the consequence of both employee commitment with the current organization and occupation, which are directly affecting their job satisfaction and performance. This is followed by a discussion of the importance of successful human resource management system for hotel operations or even a unique management system needed for a specific department because of occupational differences (Robinson et al., 2016).

Scholars have been arguing that the theory of employee commitment is similar to motivation or involvement. Commitment and motivation are two distinguishable theories (Meyer et al., 2004). Commitment is reserved for a crucial occasion or action which have relatively long-term effects, such as marriage or family commitment, whereas motivation refers to an individual as being motivated for either short- or long-term implications. Employees might feel excited about the job but not necessarily interested in the organization or occupation (Mills & Fullagar, 2017). Job involvement and work involvement are another dissimilar theory from commitment, as they refer to employee

psychological identification with a job or general importance of work in an individual's life (Kanungo, 1982).

This study has also reviewed two common measurement scales of organizational commitment with different dimensions or aspects. The scale of (Mowday et al., 1979) includes two sub-components of attitudinal commitment, which are commonly called value commitment (or affective organizational commitment) and retention commitment to an organization (commitment to stay), whereas the scale from (Meyer et al., 1993) includes three sub-components, namely, affective, normative and continuance subtypes. After reviewing the measurement items of each scale, both scales organizational commitment from a similar but slightly different perspective. The former scale considered organizational commitment as (1) an acceptance of organizational value and goals, a willingness to exert extra effort as well as (2) a willingness to retain their organizational membership. The latter scale considered organizational commitment as (1) emotional attachment with an organization, (2) a sense of obligation with an organization and related to employee's perception on the (3) associated costs and alternatives for changing a workplace.

In addition, different terms have been used to account for occupational commitment, including professionalism (Wetzel et al., 1990), professional commitment (Morrow & Wirth, 1989) and career commitment (Blau, 1985). Nevertheless, this research chose to use the word "occupational" because it is a more neutral wording than the other two. Professional commitment seems to include professional occupation only but ignore non-professional workforces, and the term "career" commitment seems to board for the researcher to analyze with the one-time investigation. Among various

explanations and dimensions regarding employee psychological behavior, this study adopts organizational commitment and occupational commitment to explain the reasons for an employee to stay with their current organization and occupation, because three different mindsets were identified under each theory for in-depth investigation. Possible outcomes of employee commitment are identified in the literature, namely, job satisfaction and employee creative performance. Finally, the mediation effect of job satisfaction is reviewed, resulting in the development of the hypotheses and conceptual framework.

Chapter 3 proposes a conceptual model to test the hypotheses among the identified constructs. In total, 16 linear hypotheses are proposed with either positive or negative direction, 11 direct effects, and 5 indirect effects. The two dimensions of organizational commitment include affective commitment and retention commitment to an organization. Both commitments are proposed to positively affect employee creative performance and job satisfaction. The three dimensions of occupational commitment are including affective, normative, and continuance subtypes. All three mindsets under occupational commitment are proposed to positively influence employee creative performance. Affective and normative occupational commitment are proposed to positively affect job satisfaction, whereas continuance-subtype is proposed to have a negative effect. Another hypothesis is a proposed positive association between job satisfaction and employee creative performance. Finally, the mediation effects of employee job satisfaction on the above-identified relationship are proposed.

Chapter 4 indicates the methodology of this study. The measurement items for each construct are illustrated. This study collected samples from kitchen employees in

China, and a back-to-back translation was adopted for creating a survey in Chinese. All the constructs are well developed and examined by scholars in the literature. Therefore, this study does not collect a preliminary sample for a pilot study to verify the constructs. A pilot test is then performed by academics within the culinary industry to check for content validity, clarity, and conciseness of each item; then kitchen employees were also invited to double-check for clarity and readability.

Chapter 5 illustrate the results of the main study. 1,447 questionnaires are obtained and screened to exclude employees who worked in the organization and worked as a kitchen employee for less than six months. After checking the missing data and outliers, 1,388 usable questionnaires were used for the analysis. This study applied a two-step approach for data analysis because of the well-developed constructs. Therefore, this study is not necessary to split the samples for running an EFA before running CFA and SEM. However, this study considers performing an EFA to identify the number of factors under organizational construct due to an extensive argument on one-, two- or three-factors model that existed for the selected construct in the literature. The measurement model is directly assessed with the full data set. During the process of CFA, measurement items with low factor loadings were removed in the model. After that, the results proved to be satisfactory with convergent and discriminant validity. A structural model is further conducted to test the proposed hypotheses. Control variables are also identified and added to the structural model to avoid confounding the results. The direct relationships among organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee creative performance are then tested. The mediation effect of job satisfaction within the conceptual framework is also investigated by performing Bootstrapping method and

Sobel testing. Ten out of eleven direct paths specified in the structural model are statistically significant. For indirect effect, four out of five paths are statistically significant, and one path is partially supported. Four paths are partially mediated by job satisfaction, and one path is an inconsistent mediation.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings of the current research. Theoretical contribution and practical implications for managerial employees are also presented in this chapter. Discussion is provided according to the sequences of research objectives. The result of each hypothesis is addressed and discussed on whether the finding supports or contracts with the expectation of this study or results from previous studies. Possible reasons are addressed for the rejected hypotheses. This study successfully examined the proposed hypotheses for direct and indirect relationship.

Chapter 7 concludes the study by indicating an overview of the entire study and summarizing its findings. Finally, this chapter illustrated the limitations of the current study and suggested the direction for future research.

6.3. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study had some methodological limitations, which leave rooms for future research. First, this study used Mainland China as an example to investigate employee commitments towards job satisfaction and their creative behavior. Employee commitments are intangible and distinct among individuals, and it might be influenced by one's cultural background and environment. Therefore, this study only applies to the Chinese context, and it might be applied to the hospitality industry in the Western context.

Second, this study mainly collected samples from a single department within the hotel and catering sector. Therefore, the results are applied to kitchen employees in the 4 to the 5-star hotel industry, which may not generalize the results for the other departments within the hotel such as front office, housekeeping or another department with different work nature. It leaves rooms for future studies to replicate the model and explore whether different results might happen with a sample from different departments within China's hospitality industry. Future research may also extend the findings from previous scholars in addressing the occupational difference between front office, housekeeping, and food service department (Robinson et al., 2016).

Third, the number of literature about hotel employee organizational commitment, occupational commitment, or employee creative performance is limited within either Chinese or Asian context. Future research could attempt to focus on these areas. To ensure the validity and reliability of the research results, future research is recommended to replicate the model and test it within the Asian context.

Finally, there are some limitations regarding the survey instruments and questionnaires. This study adopted self-reporting to measure employee creative performance. It may suffer a type of response bias called social desirability bias. The respondents may over-report their good behavior or under-report their bad performance. Due to the nature of data from this study, the results of employee creative performance tend to be more positive. Although some studies proved that supervisor-rating and self-rating are highly correlated, future studies are also encouraged to collect employee creative performance from other sources, namely, supervisor-rating, peer-rating or even expert-rating to confirm the consistency of the research findings. Besides, this study

adopted a unidimensional approach to measure employee job satisfaction, which mainly considers their general job satisfaction level with their current organization. Future studies may consider adopting a multidimensional approach to measure job satisfaction, which includes extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. Extrinsic dimension may bring different degrees of impact on the job outcome, as well as the inconsistent result of mediation effect between employee commitments and their creative performance.

6.4. Concluding Remarks

The current study explores kitchen employees' organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and assesses their self-reporting creative performance. To achieve this goal, the quantitative method was applied. First, after a comprehensive literature review, a well-known and developed measurement scale was found for all the variables in the conceptual model. The scales were widely assessed and examined in hospitality context across countries. Thus, this study does not necessitate new measurement instruments. A qualitative method was then used to empirically explore the proposed framework. A pilot test was conducted to check readability upon back-to-back translation. The main survey was later conducted by collecting data from kitchen employees who are working in 4 and 5-star hotels in Mainland China from East (1003), middle (233) and West (144) districts. As a result, 1,447 kitchen employees from 53 hotel properties returned the questionnaires. After checking missing data and outliers, 1,388 usable questionnaires were then used for further analysis. Descriptive analysis was applied to evaluate the measurement items. During the CFA testing, some measurement items with low factor loadings have been deleted during CFA. After that, all the constructs

were proved to be valid and reliable in terms of matching the requirement of convergent and discriminant validity. SEM was applied to test the proposed hypothesis within the conceptual framework. As a result, ten out of eleven hypotheses were found significant results. To be specific, one component of organizational commitment (i.e., retention commitment to an organization) has an insignificant direct effect on employee creative performance, the other components of organizational commitment and occupational commitment have received a significant impact on job satisfaction and creative performance. Finally, this study discovers job satisfaction plays a mediating role between employee commitments and their creative performance.

This study broadens the range of studies regarding two distinct employee commitments and its impact on job-related outcomes in the hotel and catering industry. The findings of the present study provide academic contributions and useful information for hotel practitioners, particularly in food and beverage departments. For theoretical contributions, this study validated several reliable measurement scales in a Chinese hospitality context. In particular, this study confirmed that organizational commitment scale adopted from Mowday et al. (1979) as a two-factor scale in measuring affective organizational commitment and retention commitment to an organization, its impact of the latter factor have been commonly ignored by the scholars. This outcome also creates a new path for future research in the hospitality and tourism field, especially regarding the important effect of occupational commitment on their work outcomes.

For practical contributions, the present study provides useful information for managerial employees to enhance employees' satisfaction and encourage their creative performance. It also provides checklists and instruments for hotel practitioners to evaluate

employees' commitment to an organization as well as an occupation. It may assist managerial employees in adopting human resource strategies effectively. Furthermore, one of the checklists for measuring occupational commitment is also applicable for the culinary-related institution to evaluate students' commitment with their chosen profession which can serve as an indicator in facilitating students' learning progress, as well as, for culinary curriculum development.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: MOST COMMONLY USED FACTORS IN CREATIVITY STUDIES

Scholars	Factors																								
	Personality	Skills/ Knowledge	Cognitive Ability/ Style	Intrinsic Motivation	Creativity Self-Efficacy	Creativity Role Identity	Learning Orientation	Job Satisfaction	Intention to Leave	Occupational Commitment	Organizational Commitment	Autonomy of Freedom	Pressure	Time Limit /Work Demand	Involvement	Work Engagement	Leadership Style	Company Support	Organizational Culture	Job Complexity	Coworker Relationship	Rewards/ Recognition	Resources	Training/ Education	Career Enrichment
Barron and Harrington (1981)			√	√																					
Amabile & Gitomer (1984)				√								√											√		
Amabile (1988)		√	√	√								√	√	√			√	√				√	√		
Amabile, Goldfarb, & Brackfield (1990)			√	√													√								
Makens (1991)																		√				√		√	√
Scott and Bruce (1994)			√														√	√			√		√		
Amabile et. al (1996)												√	√					√	√	√		√			
Oldham and Cummings (1996)	√																√			√					

(Source: Compiled by the author)

APPENDIX I: CONTINUED

Scholars	Factors																								
	Personality	Skills/ Knowledge	Cognitive Ability/ Style	Intrinsic Motivation	Creativity Self-Efficacy	Creativity Role Identity	Learning Orientation	Job Satisfaction	Intention to Leave	Occupational Commitment	Organizational Commitment	Autonomy of Freedom	Pressure	Time Limit /Work Demand	Involvement	Work Engagement	Leadership Style	Company Support	Organizational Culture	Job Complexity	Coworker Relationship	Rewards/ Recognition	Resources	Training/ Education	Career Enrichment
Shalley et al. (2000)												√		√			√	√		√					
Tierney and Farmer (2002)		√			√												√			√					
Farmer, Tierney, and Kung-McIntyre (2003)						√																			
Wong and Pang (2003)				√							√	√	√	√			√	√	√			√		√	
Andriopoulos (2001)		√															√		√				√		
Shin and Zhou (2003)				√	√		√										√	√	√						
Shalley et al. (2004)	√		√	√		√											√			√	√				
Robinson (2005)								√	√																
Ottenbacher and Harrington (2008)															√										
Wong and Ladkin (2008)				√																					
Choi et al. (2009)																	√	√							

(Source: Compiled by the author)

APPENDIX I: CONTINUED

Scholars \ Factors	Personality	Skills/ Knowledge	Cognitive Ability/ Style	Intrinsic Motivation	Creativity Self-Efficacy	Creativity Role Identity	Learning Orientation	Job Satisfaction	Intention to Leave	Occupational Commitment	Organizational Commitment	Autonomy of Freedom	Pressure	Time Limit /Work Demand	Involvement	Work Engagement	Leadership Style	Company Support	Organizational Culture	Job Complexity	Coworker Relationship	Rewards/ Recognition	Resources	Training/ Education	Career Enrichment
Horng and Lee (2009)				√			√										√	√	√		√		√		
Ottenbacher and Harrington (2009)																	√			√				√	
Gong, Huang, et al. (2009)					√		√										√								
Jafri (2010)											√														
Mansfeld et al. (2010)				√						√	√	√													
Robinson and Beesley (2010)								√																	
Suh et al. (2010)		√																							
Wang and Cheng (2010)						√						√					√								
Hou et al. (2011)											√														
Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2011)										√								√							

(Source: Compiled by the author)

APPENDIX I: CONTINUED

Scholars	Factors																								
	Personality	Skills/ Knowledge	Cognitive Ability/ Style	Intrinsic Motivation	Creativity Self-Efficacy	Creativity Role Identity	Learning Orientation	Job Satisfaction	Intention to Leave	Occupational Commitment	Organizational Commitment	Autonomy of Freedom	Pressure	Time Limit /Work Demand	Involvement	Work Engagement	Leadership Style	Company Support	Organizational Culture	Job Complexity	Coworker Relationship	Rewards/ Recognition	Resources	Training/ Education	Career Enrichment
Valentine et al. (2011)								√	X																
Hon (2012)				√													√	√			√				
Albors-Garrigos et al. (2013)		√															√		√				√	√	
Hon et al. (2013)													√					√							
Chang, Jia, Takeuchi, and Cai (2014)											√														
Wang, Tsai, and Tsai (2014)					√	√											√			√					
Choi et al. (2015)											√					√	√								
Knight and Harvey (2015)							√																		
Lane and Lup (2015)							√																		
Tsai et al. (2015)		√		√														√	√						
Hornig et al. (2016)							√									√									

(Source: Compiled by the author)

APPENDIX I: CONTINUED

Scholars	Factors																								
	Personality	Skills/ Knowledge	Cognitive Ability/ Style	Intrinsic Motivation	Creativity Self-Efficacy	Creativity Role Identity	Learning Orientation	Job Satisfaction	Intention to Leave	Occupational Commitment	Organizational Commitment	Autonomy of Freedom	Pressure	Time Limit /Work Demand	Involvement	Work Engagement	Leadership Style	Company Support	Organizational Culture	Job Complexity	Coworker Relationship	Rewards/ Recognition	Resources	Training/ Education	Career Enrichment
Hu and Zhao (2016)		√			√			√																	
Perry et al. (2016)										√	√														
Rahdarpour and Taboli (2016)											√														
Semedo et al. (2016)											√						√						√		
Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)								√	√				√												
Albors-Garrigós et al. (2017)		√																							
Chang and Teng (2017)	√																√								
Wang et al. (2017)																	√								
Yeh and Huan (2017)												√						√			√		√		
Leung and Lin (2018)					√	√												√							

(Source: Compiled by the author)

APPENDIX II: MOST COMMONLY USED SAMPLES IN CREATIVITY STUDIES

Scholars	Samples																					
	Manufacturing	Construction Design	Electronics	Technology	Banking	Telecommunication	Software Developer	Insurance	Hotel employees	Chef	Machinists	Line Operators	Technicians	Engineers	Scientists	Doctors	Pharmacists	Retails/Service	General Workers	Students	Marketing	
Amabile & Gitomer (1984)																					√	
Amabile (1988)															√							√
Amabile, Goldfarb, & Brackfield (1990)																				√		
Makens (1991)									√													
Scott and Bruce (1994)													√	√	√							
Amabile et. Al (1996)	√		√	√	√						√						√					
Oldham and Cummings (1996)	√												√	√								
Shalley et al. (2000)																			√			
Tierney and Farmer (2002)							√				√	√	√									
Farmer et al. (2003)							√								√	√	√					
Wong and Pang (2003)									√													
Shin and Zhou (2003)	√	√	√	√		√	√															
Robinson (2005)										√												
Ottenbacher and Harrington (2008)										√	US	Ger										

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: Aus= Australia; BK= Bangkok; CN=China; HK= Hong Kong; Ger= German; Ind= India; Nor= Norway; Spa= Spain; TW= Taiwan; UK= United Kingdom; US= United States of America; Vie= Vietnam

APPENDIX II: CONTINUED

Scholars	Samples																				
	Manufacturing	Construction Design	Electronics	Technology	Banking	Telecommunication	Software Developer	Insurance	Hotel employees	Chef	Machinists	Line Operators	Technicians	Engineers	Scientists	Doctors	Pharmacists	Retails/Service	General Workers	Students	Marketing
Wong and Ladkin (2008)									√	HK											
Choi et al. (2009)					√	√	√											√			
Horng and Lee (2009)										√	US	SIN	TW								
Ottensbacher and Harrington (2009)										√	Spa	US	Ger								
Gong, Huang, et al. (2009)								√	TW												
Jafri (2010)																	Ind	√			
Mansfeld et al. (2010)			√								√			√							
Robinson and Beesley (2010)										√	Aus										
Suh et al. (2010)	√																				
Wang and Cheng (2010)	√			√																	
Hou et al. (2011)				√																	
Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2011)									√	Nor											
Valentine et al. (2011)															√						
Hon (2012)									√												
Albors-Garrigos et al. (2013)										√	Spa										

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: Aus= Australia; BK= Bangkok; CN=China; HK= Hong Kong; Ger= German; Ind= India; Nor= Norway; Spa= Spain; TW= Taiwan; UK= United Kingdom; US= United States of America; Vie= Vietnam

APPENDIX II: CONTINUED

Scholars	Samples																				
	Manufacturing	Construction Design	Electronics	Technology	Banking	Telecommunication	Software Developer	Insurance	Hotel employees	Chef	Machinists	Line Operators	Technicians	Engineers	Scientists	Doctors	Pharmacists	Retails/Service	General Workers	Students	Marketing
Hon et al. (2013)									√	CN								√			
Chang et al. (2014)	√			√																	
Wang et al. (2014)								TW	√												
Choi et al. (2015)					√	√		Vie	√												
Knight and Harvey (2015)	√																				√
Lane and Lup (2015)									√	UK	Ger				√						
Tsai et al. (2015)									√	TW											
Hong et al. (2016)									√	TW								√			
Hu and Zhao (2016)				√																	
Perry et al. (2016)														√	√						
Rahdarpour and Taboli (2016)					√																
Semedo et al. (2016)																			√		
Albors-Garrigós et al. (2017)										√											
Chang and Teng (2017)									√		TW										

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: Aus= Australia; BK= Bangkok; CN=China; HK= Hong Kong; Ger= German; Ind= India; Nor= Norway; Spa= Spain; TW= Taiwan; UK= United Kingdom; US= United States of America; Vie= Vietnam

APPENDIX II: CONTINUED

Scholars	Samples														Marketing						
	Manufacturing	Construction Design	Electronics	Technology	Banking	Telecommunication	Software Developer	Insurance	Hotel employees	Chef	Machinists	Line Operators	Technicians	Engineers		Scientists	Doctors	Pharmacists	Retails/Service	General Workers	Students
Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs (2016)										√	BK										
Wang et al. (2017)					√																
Yeh and Huan (2017)										√	TW										
Leung and Lin (2018)										√	HK										

(Source: Compiled by the author)

Notes: Aus= Australia; BK= Bangkok; CN=China; HK= Hong Kong; Ger= German; Ind= India; Nor= Norway; Spa= Spain; TW= Taiwan; UK= United Kingdom; US= United States of America; Vie= Vietnam

APPENDIX III: QUESTIONNAIRE (English Version)



School of 
Hotel & Tourism Management
酒店及旅遊業管理學院

HOTEL EMPLOYEES' SURVEY (KITCHEN STAFF)

Dear Sir/ Madam,

The School of Hotel and Tourism Management of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University is conducting a study on **hotel employees' survey particular for kitchen employees**. This survey is to explore kitchen employees' perception of job satisfaction and their commitment to both organization and occupation. All data collected are for dissertation purpose and are strictly confidential. I would like to seek for your help in answering the following questions.

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by *circling* the corresponding number. [1] = "Strongly Disagree" to [7] = "Strongly Agree". Please choose ONE answer only for each statement.

This questionnaire will take about **10-12** minutes to complete. Thanks for your co-operation and participation and with best wishes!

Yours sincerely,

Vicky Leung
Ph.D. Candidate
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Tel: (852) 3400 ; E-mail: [vicky.ty.leung@](mailto:vicky.ty.leung@polyu.edu.hk)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY ON KITCHEN EMPLOYEES

SECTION I: Screening Questions (Please indicate your answer by a tick ✓)

1. Are you a full-time kitchen employee in a hotel?
 Yes No
2. Did you have at least 6 Month working experience in this hotel?
 Yes No

SECTION II: Organizational Commitment

In this section, there are 18 statements measuring different organizational commitment during your work. (Please circle your answers)

<u>Organizational Commitment</u>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organization be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment to keep working for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I find that my values and the organization's value are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. This organization really inspires the very best in the way of job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matter relating to its employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. For me, this is the best of all possible organization for which to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION III: Occupational Commitment

In this section, there are 18 statements measuring different occupational commitment during your work. Occupational commitment includes three dimensions, affective, normative and continuance subtype. (Please circle your answers)

Affective Commitment	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The chef is important to my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I regret having entered the chef profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am proud to be in the culinary profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I dislike being a chef.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not identify with the chef profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am enthusiastic about the chef or culinary.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Normative Commitment	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I do not feel any obligation to remain in the culinary profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I feel a responsibility to the culinary profession to continue in it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave the culinary industry now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I would feel guilty if I left the culinary industry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am in a chef position because of a sense of loyalty to it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continuance Commitment	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I have put too much into the culinary profession to consider changing now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Changing professions now would be difficult for me to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It would be costly for me to change my profession now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION IV: Job Satisfaction

In this section, there are 5 statements measuring general job satisfaction during your work in hotel. (Please circle your answers)

<u>Job Satisfaction</u>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I consider my job pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I feel fairly-well satisfied with my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I definitely like my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My job is pretty interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I find real enjoyment in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION V: Employee Creativity (Self-reporting)

In this part, there are 13 statements measuring employee creativity during the work in hotels. (Please circle your answers)

<u>Employee Creativity (Self-reporting)</u>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. At work, I suggested new ways to achieve goals or objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. At work, I came up with new and practical ideas to improve performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. At work, I searched out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. At work, I suggested new ways to increase quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. At work, I am a good source of creative ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. At work, I did not feel afraid to take risks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. At work, I promoted and champions ideas to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. At work, I exhibited creativity on the job when allowed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. At work, I developed adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. At work, I had new and innovative ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. At work, I had a fresh approach to problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. At work, I came up with creative solutions to problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. At work, I suggested new ways of performing work tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section VI: Demographic Information (Please tick \surd your answers.)

1. Gender

- Male Female

2. Age:

- ≤ 24 25-34 35-44 45-54 ≥ 55

3. Nationality: _____

4. Education background:

- Primary School Secondary School Diploma
 Undergraduate Postgraduate Others: _____

5. Do you have any certificate(s) or degree(s) of culinary?

- Yes, culinary degree/ associate degree Yes, relevant training certificate
 Others: _____ No

6. Your current position:

- Line Cook/ Commis Demi Chef/ Jr. chef de Partie
 Chef de Partie Sous Chef
 Chef de Cuisine Executive Sous Chef
 Executive Chef Intern/ Trainee

7. Types of restaurant:

- Fine Dining Buffet Café/ Bistro
 Casual Dining Central Kitchen (Preparation) Pastry Kitchen
 Others: _____

8. Types of cuisine: [Choose up to 3 items]

- Chinese Western Japanese
 Bakery Ice Craving/ Vegetable Craving Others: _____

9. Service length in the current hotel (years): _____

10. Service length in hotel industry (years): _____

11. Work hour(s) per week:

≤ 40

41-50

51-60

61-70

≥ 71

- The End of The Survey –

Thank You Very Much for Your Participation!

APPENDIX IV: QUESTIONNAIRE (Simplified Chinese Version)



酒店厨房员工调查研究

尊敬的先生/女士，

香港理工大学酒店及旅游业管理学院正在进行一项关于酒店厨房员工在厨房工作的调查研究。主要是了解酒店厨师工作满意度，企业归属感与职业认同感的问卷调查。这项调查是酒店及旅游管理博士论文的一部分，所有收集的数据将用于论文，是严格保密并仅作研究用途。希望您能帮助回答以下问题。

请认真考虑，圈出您对以下各句子的认同程度。由 [1] = “非常不同意” 到 [7] = “非常同意”。每一个选项请只选一个答案。这份问卷可在**10-12** 分钟内完成。感谢阁下的参与及支持。祝生活愉快!

此致

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酒店厨师及厨房员工的工作满意度，企业归属感与职业承诺问卷调查

第一部分: 筛选问题 (在适当位置用√号来表明。)

1. 您是酒店内全职的厨师员工嗎?

是

否

2. 您在此酒店工作的时间?

多于六个月

少于六个月

第二部分: 企业归属感

这一部分包括18 个小项，每项描述不同的企业归属感。(请圈出你的答案)

<u>企业归属感</u>	非常不同意	不同意	部份不同意	中立的	部份同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我愿付出额外的努力，以协助公司获得成功。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我会对我的朋友说，我服务的公司是一家值得效劳的好公司。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我对公司几乎没有忠诚度可言。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 为了继续在公司做事，公司指派的任何工作，我都愿意接受。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我发现我所重视的与公司所重视的非常相似。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 当我对别人提起自己是这公司的一员时，我会觉得很骄傲。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 只要工作性质类似，到别的公司做事也无妨。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 在这公司，使我能充份发挥自己的能力。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 目前的情形只要有少许的改变，就会使我离开这家公司。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 我很庆幸当年找工作时，能选到这公司而不是其他公司。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 继续留在这公司，不会有什么好处。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 我难以同意这公司中一些与员工有关的重要政策。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 我十分关心这公司的前途与未来。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 这家公司可能是服务过最好的一家。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 在这公司做事，显然是件错误的决定。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分: 职业认同感

这一部分包括18 个小项，每项描述不同的职业认同感。职业认同感的特性包括三方面 - 情感性, 道德性與持续性承诺。(请圈出你的答案)

情感性 - 职业认同感	非常不同意	不同意	部份不同意	中立的	部份同意	同意	非常同意
1. 厨师是我的专业形象。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我后悔加入了厨师业。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 身为厨师业的一份子，我感到骄傲。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 我不喜欢当厨师。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我不认同厨师是一个专业人士。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我热衷于烹饪及当厨师。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
道德性 - 职业认同感	非常不同意	不同意	部份不同意	中立的	部份同意	同意	非常同意
1. 受过了厨房有关的专业训练，便有责任选择当厨师。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我没有义务要留在厨师业。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我有责任要继续在厨师业工作一辈子。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 即使有其他更好的出路，我都不会离开厨师业。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 如果我离开厨师业，我会感到内疚。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我仍留在厨师业，是因为一份忠诚感。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
持续性- 职业认同感	非常不同意	不同意	部份不同意	中立的	部份同意	同意	非常同意
1. 在厨师的生涯，我已投资了很多的资源及时间；故不想转换职业。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 现在转换职业，对我而言是困难的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 如果转换职业，我的生活大受影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 现在转换职业，会令我的财政蒙受重大损失。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我没感到有需要转换现在的职业。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 现在转换职业，需要付出很大的个人牺牲。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分: 整体工作满意度

这一部分包括 5 个小项，每项描述你对酒店工作的整体满意度。(请圈出你的答案)

<u>整体工作满意度</u>	非常不同意	不同意	部份不同意	中立的	部份同意	同意	非常同意
1. 工作时，我感到愉快。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 工作时，我感到非常满意。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我绝对喜欢我的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 工作时，我感到非常有趣。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我在工作中找到真正的享受。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第五部分: 自我评估创意工作表现

这一部分包括13 个小项，每项描述工作上不同的创意表现。(请圈出你的答案)

<u>自我评估创意工作表现</u>	非常不同意	不同意	部份不同意	中立的	部份同意	同意	非常同意
1. 在工作上，我会主动提出了实现目标或新方法。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 在工作上，我会主动提出了新的方法来提高绩效。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 在工作上，我会主动搜索新的科技，流程，技术和/或产品创意。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在工作上，我会主动提出了提高质量的新方法。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 在工作上，我是一个很有创意想法的员工。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 在工作上，我不怕冒险。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 在工作上，我会主动为他人提出创意想法。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

自我评估创意工作表现	非常不同意	不同意	部份不同意	中立的	部份同意	同意	非常同意
8. 在工作上，当公司给予机会时，会主动表现自己的创意。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 在工作上，为了实践我的创意，我会有条理地规划。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 在工作上，我会有创新的想法。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 在工作上，遇上问题时，我会联想到跟同事不一样的解决方法。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 在工作上，遇上问题时，我会想思考创新的方法。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 在工作上，遇上困难时，我会提出新的执行方式。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第六部分: 个人资料 (请勾选√您的答案。)

1. 性别:

男

女

2. 年龄:

≤ 24

25-34

35-44

45-54

≥ 55

3. 国籍: _____

4. 您的教育程度:

小学

中学 (初中, 高中)

文凭/高级文凭

学士

硕士或以上

其他: _____

5. 你拥有证书或学士学位的烹饪学历? [最多选 3 项]

有, 烹饪学士/ 副学士

有, 相关培训证书

其他: _____

没有

6. 您现时工作的职位:

- Line Cook/ Commis 厨师
- Chef de Partie 领班
- Chef de Cuisine 主厨
- Executive Chef 行政总厨

- Demi Chef/ Jr. chef de Partie 副领班
- Sous Chef 副主厨
- Executive Sous Chef 行政副总厨
- Intern/ Trainee 实习生

7. 您现时工作的餐厅类型

- 高级餐厅
- 自助餐
- 咖啡馆/小酒馆
- 休闲餐厅
- 中央厨房 (准备)
- 烘焙厨房
- 其他: _____

8. 主理菜肴的类型 [最多选 3 项]

- 中餐
- 西餐
- 日本餐
- 烘焙
- 冰雕/蔬菜雕
- 其他: _____

9. 在现任职酒店的年资 (年): _____

10. 在餐饮行业任职年资 (年): _____

11. 工作时间每周 (小时): [限选1项]

- ≤40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61-70
- ≥71

- 问卷完 -

多谢你的参与!

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