

# **Exploring Hospitality Education as an Occupation in Hong Kong: Attractions, Challenges and Commitment**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of  
Bournemouth University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**July 2019**

**BOURNEMOUTH UNIVERSITY**

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## **Abstract**

Occupational prestige is a key consideration for Chinese people when making career choices, due to the influence of Chinese culture. As Chinese culture is characterised by collectivism and a high power distance, hospitality jobs are considered non-professional and accorded a low social status within the Hong Kong community. Consequently, local people commonly perceive hospitality management studies as unnecessary, especially at the higher educational level. Although educators are highly respected in Chinese communities, the work of hospitality educators is viewed as a non-professional stream of education and relegated to a secondary position in society. These conditions place hidden constraints on the development of hospitality education and the choice of hospitality education as a career in Hong Kong.

The main purpose of this study is to explore hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. Accordingly, the study explores the reasons why educators in Hong Kong choose hospitality education as a career and identifies the current and perceived future challenges they face. The study also investigates the level of occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong and identifies the key antecedents of their occupational commitment. To achieve the research objectives, the study adopts both qualitative and quantitative research methods in the form of focus group interviews and questionnaires. The questionnaires were administered to Hong Kong hospitality educators by email and face to face, and 314 valid completed questionnaires were collected for data analysis.

The findings of the study show that hospitality educators pursue their careers in Hong Kong mainly because of the high occupational prestige and self-fulfilment of working in education, but perceive the poor image of hospitality work as one of their main career challenges. This confirms the contradictory position of hospitality educators in Hong Kong society. The findings also show that Chinese hospitality educators have the lowest level of affective occupational commitment but the highest continuance and normative occupational commitment. This implies that their commitment to their occupation is

induced mainly by external pressure and the cost of leaving, fitting with the collectivistic nature of Chinese culture.

In addition, the study shows that self-actualisation at work, perceived occupational image, person-job fit, impact concerns and job characteristics have various impacts on the affective, continuance and normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. To enhance the occupational commitment of these educators, it is necessary to study the influence of each antecedent carefully to provide them with adequate support. Furthermore, the findings indicate that both their hospitality work and their hospitality education experiences strengthen the impact of person-job fit on their occupational commitment but dampen the impact of occupational prestige on their commitment. This implies that in Chinese communities, occupational prestige cannot sustainably induce occupational commitment throughout the career development journey of hospitality educators. Based on these findings, self-image enhancement, a recognition system and knowledge enhancement opportunities are recommended to enhance the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

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## **Acknowledgements**

My PhD journey was full of blessings and some challenges. I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my supervisors, Prof. Adele Ladkin, Dr. Hanaa Osman, and those individuals who made my PhD dream come true.

First, I am truly grateful for the unwavering commitment of my chief supervisor Prof. Adele Ladkin, my co-supervisor Dr. Hanaa Osman and my external supervisor Dr. Simon Wong. Thanks to Prof. Adele Ladkin for providing me valuable, patient guidance, encouragement and useful critiques during my research work. I will not forget “who cares?” and “so what?” in my academic career life. Also, thanks to Dr. Hanaa Osman for consistent encouragement and having confidence in me and to Dr. Simon Wong for providing positive outlook on all situations.

Besides, I would like to express my gratitude to the School of Hotel and Tourism Management (SHTM), The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, for the support in many different ways. Special thanks to my colleagues at SHTM, Dr. Andrew Chan (retired), Dr. Ada Lo and Dr. Nelson Tsang for the support and long hours of discussion even they are not in my supervisory team. I would also like to acknowledge the Hong Kong Government for financial support of my PhD study.

In addition, thanks to the Hong Kong hospitality educators who took part in this research for providing valuable information in the study.

Finally, my deepest gratitude goes to my husband, Leo, and my son, Tristan for their love, understanding, encouragement and support throughout my PhD journey.

# **1. Chapter 1 – Introduction**

## **1.1 Introduction to the Study**

The purpose of this study is to explore hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. This study is built on the contradictory positions of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Due to the rapid growth of hospitality education in Hong Kong, there is a high demand for qualified hospitality educators. Given the strong influence of Chinese culture in Hong Kong, educators are highly respected in Hong Kong society, but their work (hospitality education) is less valued because hospitality jobs are perceived as not prestigious and have a low social status in the Chinese community. This puts hospitality educators in a contradictory position in that society respects them as educators but does not value or highly regard their subject. This contradictory position influences the career choice of hospitality educators. This study investigates the impacts of Chinese culture on hospitality education as a career choice from the hospitality educators' perspective.

This study explores hospitality education in Hong Kong under five themes. First, it creates a profile of Hong Kong hospitality educators in terms of gender, age, job position, and experience in both hospitality work and hospitality education. This affords an insight into the demographic characteristics of hospitality educators in Hong Kong and an understanding of their work experience. Second, the study explores the reasons behind hospitality educators choosing hospitality education as their occupation, thus offering an understanding of what motivates hospitality educators to join and commit to the hospitality education sector in Hong Kong. Third, the study explores current and future challenges faced by hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This clarifies hospitality educators' challenge of pursuing a career in the Hong Kong hospitality education industry. Fourth, the study investigates Hong Kong hospitality educators' level of occupational commitment and its key antecedents by adopting the three dimensions of the occupational commitment model proposed by Meyer et al. (1993). Besides, this research

identifies the influence of those antecedents on Hong Kong hospitality educators' occupational commitment to illustrate how that commitment is formed.

Finally, the study examines the moderating effects of two types of work experience (i.e., hospitality educator and professional) on hospitality educators' occupational commitment due to the close relationship between the hospitality industry and the vocational nature of hospitality education. As hospitality educators are expected to train talented graduates with related technical and human skills to meet industry needs (Chan, 2011), hospitality educators with work experience in the hospitality industry can make use of their previous work experience to fulfil the industry-related aspect of the work requirements. Thus, the researcher proposes that the two types of work experience may have moderating effects on Hong Kong hospitality educators' occupational commitment.

This study applies person-environment fit theory (Lewin, 1935), teacher concerns theory (Fuller, 1969) and social cognitive career theory (Lent et al., 1994) to understand the process behind Hong Kong hospitality educators' career choice. In addition, the occupational commitment model proposed by Meyer et al. (1993) is adopted to study those educators' occupational commitment. Person environment fit theory and social cognitive career theory emphasise the importance of a change in work self-efficacy and outcome expectations along with the influences of cultural and social factors. Based on social cognitive career theory (Lent et al., 1994), work experiences can be a moderating factor in the relationships between career interests, career goals, career choice and career choice outcomes. Social cognitive career theory supports that work experiences have a moderating effect on occupational commitment. In addition, teacher concerns theory (Fuller, 1969) emphasises the change in concerns throughout educators' career development process. It provides theoretical support for focus group findings on the influence of hospitality educators' concerns on their occupational commitment.

The study adopts both qualitative and quantitative methods to achieve its objectives. Qualitative research methods are appropriate for generating the data necessary for a comprehensive understanding of the research problem and to identify possible variables, including both outcome and process variables (Arendt et al., 2012). To explore the reasons for hospitality educators' career choice, a qualitative method is adopted and four focus group interviews are conducted in the first stage. The main purpose of the focus group interviews is to gain insights into hospitality education as a career choice and the issues around career commitment. Based on the findings of the focus group interviews and a literature search, the reasons behind the career choice and the challenges faced by hospitality educators are identified, along with the key antecedents of occupational commitment. Based on these findings and the research model, research hypotheses are formed.

Following the qualitative study (focus group interviews), a quantitative study is performed. A quantitative research method is appropriate for testing the strength and persistence of the relationships between the key antecedents and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong (Tewksbury, 2009). The quantitative study also tests the moderating effects of the two types of work experience (i.e., that of hospitality educators as hospitality professionals and as hospitality educators) on the hospitality educators' occupational commitment.

The quantitative study starts by developing a validated questionnaire, upon which its accuracy depends. The study variables include the three dimensions of occupational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) proposed by Meyer et al. (1993) and the key antecedents of occupational commitment identified in the qualitative study. Each of the variable measurement items requires validation. To create a validated questionnaire, all of the items are validated following the scale development guideline proposed by Hinkin et al. (1997). A pilot test is undertaken at this stage. The purpose of the pilot test is to verify the whole instrument, to ensure the respondents understand the wordings and sentences in



the questionnaire and to delete statistically unreliable items. The preliminary measurement items are validated by factor analysis and a reliability test of the pilot test findings. The target respondents of the pilot test are hospitality educators who did not participate in the focus group interviews. In this study, hospitality educators are specifically defined as educators in Hong Kong institutions including universities, community colleges and vocational institutions that provide hospitality education diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate programmes to students.

After creating a validated questionnaire, the main survey is conducted. Similar to the pilot test, the questionnaire is distributed to hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The data from the main survey are used to test the level of occupational commitment to hospitality education and the relationship between the key antecedents and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators by hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The moderating effects of the two types of work experience (i.e., that of hospitality educators as hospitality professionals and as hospitality educators) on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators are determined by moderation analysis in SPSS.

## **1.2 The Study in Context**

### **1.2.1 The Rapid Growth of Hospitality Education in Hong Kong**

In recent years, the demand for hospitality management programs in Hong Kong has increased dramatically. The demand is derived from the rapid growth of the Asian and Hong Kong hospitality and tourism industry, termed the “Asian Wave” (Leung et al., 2015). As an Asian travel hub and a gateway to China, Hong Kong is one of the most attractive travel destinations in the Asia Pacific Region, especially for mainland travellers (Fan et al., 2017; Heung et al., 2011; Lew and McKercher, 2002; Vu et al., 2015).

Since the 1990s, the Hong Kong economy has shifted from a manufacturing-oriented to a hospitality-oriented economy (Baum, 2016). Nowadays, the

hospitality industry is a major pillar of Hong Kong's economy (The Information Services Department HKSAR, 2017). In 2016, the industry directly contributed around US\$53.7 billion to the gross domestic product (GDP) of Hong Kong, representing 16.8% of Hong Kong's total GDP (The World Travel and Tourism Council, 2017a). The contribution of the hospitality industry is predicted to grow continuously to around US\$82.2 billion in 2024. Aligning with the rapid growth of the industry, various hospitality business sectors such as hotels, airlines, travel agencies, theme parks and restaurants place great demands on the labour market supply. In 2016, the hospitality and tourism industry created 189,600 employment opportunities in Hong Kong, accounting for around 5% of the total employment in Hong Kong. In 2017, direct employment increased further by 4.3%. The direct contribution of employment by the hospitality and tourism industry is predicted to cover 7.4% of the total employment in Hong Kong by 2027 (The World Travel and Tourism Council, 2017a). This growth trend has increased the demand for a workforce with hospitality knowledge; therefore, many people want to pursue hospitality studies, and the demand on hospitality education programmes in Hong Kong has increased (Baum, 2016; Hsu, 2015).

Furthermore, China's entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) has fuelled the demand for hospitality management programs in Hong Kong (Hsu, 2012; Hsu, 2015; Zhang and Fan, 2006). After joining the WTO, China's tourism industry grew dramatically. Consequently, China is predicted to become the world's second largest hospitality and tourism economy within the current decade. In 2016, the direct employment of China's hospitality industry reached 23.7 million, and the total employment reached 69.5 million. The number of hospitality jobs is expected to rise to 99.3 million by 2027 (The World Travel and Tourism Council, 2017b). As Hong Kong is a gateway to and from China, many mainland Chinese go there to pursue hospitality studies, raising the demand placed on hospitality education programmes in Hong Kong (Hsu, 2015).

The high demand on placed on hospitality education programmes comes from both local and overseas communities. Due to Hong Kong's worldwide reputation for hospitality and quality services, hospitality management programs have grown in popularity among students from the local area and overseas, especially those from mainland China pursuing tertiary education in Hong Kong (Hsu, 2015). According to statistics released by the Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department (2018), more than 99,000 students pursued higher education in Hong Kong in 2016-17. Around 20% of them (16,500 students) came from overseas and more than 70% came from mainland China. In fact, the number of students from mainland China has more than doubled in the past 10 years (from 5,700 to 12,000 students) (UGC, 2018). Around 20% of these students have pursued business management programmes (including hospitality management). The number of students from mainland China is expected to continuously increase in the coming years. This will place high demand on higher education programmes, including hospitality management programmes (Hsu, 2015).

Aside from the increase in demand from local and overseas students, the demand from local industry practitioners has increased dramatically. As many experienced hospitality practitioners in Hong Kong have not received any higher education training, many practitioners have sought academic qualifications to upgrade their skills (Hsu, 2012; 2015). To meet the needs of hotel practitioners, several Hong Kong hospitality institutions have increased their provisions and developed various hospitality management programmes for local and overseas students, especially students from mainland China. Given the increasing number of hospitality management programmes developed in Hong Kong, the demand for qualified hospitality educators is predicted to grow (Hsu, 2015; Li and Li, 2013; Lo, 2006).

### **1.2.2 High Demand for Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

Since The Haking Wong Technical Institute (HWTI) offered the first hospitality programme in 1977, the number of hospitality management related programmes has increased dramatically. More than 60 hospitality management programmes

are now offered in Hong Kong. These diploma, undergraduate, postgraduate and doctoral degree programmes are designed to meet market demand (Hsu, 2015; Lo, 2006; UGC, 2018). To support the rapid growth of hospitality education programmes in Hong Kong, many qualified and committed hospitality educators are needed to teach and implement the curricula effectively (Hsu, 2015; Kukari et al., 2008; Lashley, 2018).

Early on, hospitality education was vocation-based and aimed to train up students with technical skills to meet industry need (Airey et al., 2015). Hospitality educators in Hong Kong were mainly hospitality professionals with a great deal of hospitality work experience (Hsu, 2015). Over the past 30 years, hospitality education in Hong Kong has developed into a professional occupation. The expectations for hospitality educators are increasing. Hospitality educators must now have relevant industry experience and high-level academic qualifications to fulfil the demands of various parties, including their students, their institutions and industry professionals.

Hospitality educators must increase the academic credibility and recognition of their institutions' hospitality management programmes through their research. They must have high-quality and high-quantity research outputs and good relationships with industry partners (Airey et al., 2015). They are required to work closely with industry practitioners to develop a quality internship experience for their students and to highlight the positive aspects of careers in the industry (Barron and Ali-Knight, 2017; Richardson and Thomas, 2012). Hospitality educators are also responsible for training talented graduates to develop technical and human skills, such as the proper working attitude to meet industry need (Chan, 2011; Lashley, 2018). On top of this, hospitality educators are expected to provide a realistic view of the types of careers available in the industry to change students' perceptions of tourism and hospitality careers (Richardson and Thomas, 2012). To achieve this goal, the hospitality education sector requires educators with both

a strong research background and extensive industry experience (Lashley, 2018; Li and Li, 2013).

However, due to the low prestige of hospitality work in Chinese culture, hospitality professionals with rich industry experience in Hong Kong often have lower-level academic qualifications and are therefore not qualified to teach in higher-education institutions (Hsu, 2015). As such, the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong is facing a labour shortage problem and a lack of qualified hospitality educators (Hsu, 2012; Hsu, 2015; Li and Li, 2013). Due to the shortage of hospitality educators, some hospitality institutions in Hong Kong recruit educators from other disciplines such as business, language and computer studies to teach hospitality management courses (Hsu, 2015). This has become a factor inhibiting hospitality education development in Hong Kong. Therefore, recruiting and retaining hospitality educators has become imperative. The reasons why hospitality education is chosen as a career deserve to be studied.

### **1.2.3 Hospitality Education in the Context of Chinese Culture**

Chinese culture is characterised by collectivism, high power distance and the dominance of Confucian ideology. It is understood to be group- and family-oriented with great respect for hierarchy and authority (Wang, 2011). Thus, career choice is not an individual matter but a family matter in Chinese society. The social status of an occupation and parental influence are always key factors in career choice and retention in Chinese communities (Fan, 2000; Pearce and Lin, 2007; Yan and Berliner, 2016). The choice of career by individuals in Chinese communities is more fully explained in Chapter 3.

Hong Kong is strongly influenced by traditional Chinese culture, even though it was a British colony before 1997. Therefore, the Hong Kong community emphasises academic and career success (Jamnia and Pan, 2017; Lien and McLean, 2017; Pearce and Lin, 2007). Professional occupations with high academic requirements (e.g., physicians, university teachers and engineers) are always considered highly prestigious occupations, whereas those with fewer academic requirements (e.g., waiters and construction workers) are considered less prestigious occupations (Lin and Xie, 1988; Moufakkir et al., 2016; Zhao and Ghiselli, 2016).

Traditional Chinese values explain this phenomenon. Chinese society is influenced by Confucianism, which emphasises the importance of education and harmonious relationships. According to Confucianism, education is important for self-development and for becoming a useful person who contributes to society (Huang and Brown, 2009; Lee and Zhou, 2016; Liu, 1998; Louie, 2001; Pearce and Lin, 2007; Sue and Okazaki, 1990; Wong, 2017b). Occupations with high academic requirements are highly valued by the Chinese community and are commonly believed to bring fame and reputation to individuals and their families (Hardin et al., 2001; Tang, 2002; Yan and Berliner, 2016).

Furthermore, given the cultural norm of collectivism and the high value placed on harmonious relationships in Chinese culture, Chinese people emphasise reciprocity between family and larger social communities. In Hong Kong society, children are taught to have respect for age and rank, that is, for parents, elders, ancestors and educators. In Confucianism, educators represent wisdom and knowledge and are not to be questioned (Kennedy, 2002; Zhu, 2017). Unquestioning obedience and compliance on behalf of students are expected. In Chinese tradition, educators are regarded as scholars who transmit knowledge and essential skills for living and personal development. They are also viewed as moral figures and role models for students (Fwu and Wang, 2002; Moses et al.,

2016; Yang and Lin, 2016). Therefore, educators, especially university educators, are highly respected in the Chinese community.

In contrast, hospitality jobs are usually classified as non-professional and low-prestige occupations in the Chinese community (Jiang and Tribe, 2009; Moufakkir et al., 2016). The emphases on power distance and collectivism in traditional Chinese culture also explain this view. Chinese people tend to be paternalistic and promote the value of a high power distance and collectivism (Bakir et al., 2015; Lok and Crawford, 2004). In Chinese culture, the characteristics of a high power distance make clear the social status of individuals so that others can show their respect (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). People with a low social status must show their respect for people with a high social status. In the organisational context, employees with a high power distance are more likely to obey and follow the decisions of their supervisors and organisations (Hu et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2012). Similarly, hospitality employees are expected to respect their customers and to provide them with high levels of service by fulfilling their requests (Moufakkir et al., 2016; Tsang and Ap, 2007). The nature of this job leads to the low social status of hospitality employees, especially guest contact employees, in China. In Chinese culture, there is a high power distance between servers and customers; the status of servers is low because they must serve their customers and fulfil their needs and requests. Although hospitality employees may serve their customers professionally, serving work is perceived as less prestigious and low in social status. Thus, hospitality jobs are regarded as low-prestige occupations in the Chinese community.

Moreover, given the strong collectivism of Chinese culture, parental influence on both study and career choice is particularly strong in the Chinese community (Qiu et al., 2017; Wong and Liu, 2010; Zhou et al., 2012). Parents perceive hospitality jobs as low-prestige careers, and parental influence has become a significant factor influencing the career choice of hospitality graduates in Hong Kong (Lv et al., 2016; Wong, 2017b; Wong and Liu, 2010). Parental influence prohibits not only

hospitality industry development, but also the development of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. Due to the low social status of hospitality jobs, Chinese people commonly perceive the study of hospitality management as unnecessary, especially at the higher-education level. Thus, Chinese parents are less likely to support their children in studying hospitality management.

In fact, the development of hospitality education in Hong Kong is always a challenge because it is not aligned with the growth of the hospitality industry in Hong Kong and China (Hsu, 2015; Zhang and Fan, 2006). Compared with other faculties such as business management, medicine and law, Hong Kong society always relegates hospitality education to a secondary position (PolyU, 2015), thereby making the position of hospitality educators quite contradictory. On the one hand, as educators, they are highly respected by society. On the other hand, hospitality education is relatively less valued by Hong Kong society, and hospitality educators are considered non-mainstream educators. Their contradictory position may affect hospitality educators' decision to pursue careers in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. This study aims to explore hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong.

### **1.3 The Relevance of the Study**

This study is relevant for six reasons. First, it provides important information and data related to hospitality educators in Hong Kong for the benefit of society and Hong Kong government units such as the Education Bureau. This study provides information about the profiles of Hong Kong hospitality educators, including demographic characteristics such as their age and gender and more importantly their work experience in both the hospitality industry and hospitality education fields. Second, it provides insights into the impact of Chinese culture on hospitality educators in Hong Kong for society and government units. Hospitality education is viewed as an unnecessary and non-mainstream form of education in Hong Kong, making the position of hospitality educators contradictory; they are respected as educators, but their education work is viewed as unnecessary in Chinese society.



This study investigates the impact of Chinese culture on hospitality education as a career choice from the hospitality educators' perspective.

Third, to support the sustainable growth of the Hong Kong hospitality education field, there is a need to understand what attracts qualified people to that field, the current and perceived future challenges Hong Kong hospitality educators face and their occupational commitment. Hospitality educators are the frontline professionals who provide hospitality education. Their points of view on the attractions and challenges of being hospitality educators in Hong Kong is valuable for society, government units and institutions to support the development of hospitality education in Hong Kong.

Fourth, this study provides essential information for hospitality institutions. To attract quality educators to the hospitality education field in Hong Kong, it is necessary to understand what motivates them to choose hospitality education as their career. The study contributes to the sustainability of hospitality education by helping hospitality education institutions in Hong Kong to achieve this understanding. By understanding the current and perceived future challenges hospitality educators face, hospitality institutions will have insight into how to provide effective administrative support for educators to overcome those challenges and therefore support the development of hospitality education. Effective administrative support is important for assisting educators to deal with the various challenges they face at work (Borman and Dowling, 2008; Tehseen and Hadi, 2015; Tickle et al., 2011). To provide effective administrative support, it is necessary for hospitality institutions to know the current and future challenges educators face.

Fifth, this study is relevant to hospitality institutions in that it explores the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong and its antecedents. As that occupational commitment is closely associated with educator retention intention and the intention to join the education industry (Ibrahim and

Iqbal, 2015; Meyer and Espinoza, 2016; Park, 2005), it is necessary to understand the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong and its antecedents. With an understanding of the formation of that occupational commitment, institutions can enhance and sustain their educators' commitment through forms of support such as workplace condition monitoring and support from school leaders (Cheung, 2009; Tehseen and Hadi, 2015).

Finally, this study clarifies how hospitality educators' occupational commitment is formed by developing an occupational commitment model for hospitality institution leaders. With an improved understanding of occupational commitment, hospitality institution leaders can effectively manage the control and support of and investment in their educators (McGrath-Champ et al., 2017) and evaluate their job strategies such as recruitment, training, promotion and job design to enhance educator retention and job satisfaction (Bueno and Sass, 2016; Cheung, 2009; Johanson and Cho, 2007).

#### **1.4 Contributions to Knowledge**

This study contributes to the hospitality and hospitality education research by exploring hospitality education as a career choice, particularly in the context of Chinese culture. It contributes to knowledge in three ways. First, it offers a comprehensive examination of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It tests three dimensions of that occupational commitment by adopting the occupational commitment model proposed by Meyer et al. (1993), which hospitality and hospitality education studies have not yet adopted.

Second, this study develops a new occupational commitment model in the context of hospitality education. The occupational commitment model has not been systematically developed in the hospitality and hospitality education literature. This study contributes to the hospitality education literature by developing an occupational commitment model in the context of hospitality education. It does so

by exploring the challenges and attractions of hospitality education through focus group interviews. Based on the findings of the focus group interviews, the challenges and attractions of hospitality education are identified as the key antecedents of hospitality educators' occupational commitment, and an occupational commitment model is developed. In the occupational commitment model, the relationships between the key antecedents of occupational commitment and the level of occupational commitment are shown and tested.

Third, this study contributes to the career development research by extending social cognitive career theory in the context of hospitality education. Social cognitive theory emphasises the influence of contextual factors on the career development process. It proposes that contextual factors have a moderating effect on career choice development. On this basis, the researcher proposes that the hospitality educators' occupational commitment is moderated by two types of work experience (the work experience of hospitality educators as hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators). This study is a preliminary attempt to test the moderating effect of two types of work experience on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators. Scholars have proved the moderating effect of work experience on organisational and occupational commitment (e.g., Bennett et al., 2005; Hunter and Thatcher, 2007; Kim, 2014; Lee and Chang, 2013; Russ and McNeilly, 1995). However, studies have tested the moderating effect of work experience on one's current occupation, but neglected the possible impact of work experience on one's previous occupation. Hospitality education is closely related to the hospitality industry, and hospitality educators are always expected to work closely with the hospitality industry and to train talented graduates with related technical and human skills to meet industry need (Chan, 2011). Hospitality educators with work experience in the hospitality industry before entering the hospitality education field can use that experience to fulfil the industry-related aspect of hospitality education. Therefore, this study proposes that the occupational commitment of hospitality educators may be influenced by not only their work experience as hospitality educators, but also their experience as

hospitality professionals. It aims to test the moderating effect of two types of work experience on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators. This study is the first to explore this area and therefore makes a unique contribution.

## **1.5 Research Aim and Objectives**

**The aim of this study is to explore hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong.**

This study aims to address the following questions. (1) What attracts people to choose hospitality education as their occupation? (2) What current and perceived future challenges do hospitality educators in Hong Kong face? (3) What makes them committed to the hospitality education profession in Hong Kong? (4) What are the key components of the occupational commitment model in the hospitality education literature? (5) How does the work experience of hospitality educators and hospitality professionals influence the occupational commitment of hospitality educators? To answer the aforementioned questions, the following research objectives are set for the study:

1. To identify the reasons for choosing hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong;
2. To identify the current and perceived future challenges faced by hospitality educators in Hong Kong in the context of Chinese culture;
3. To develop the occupational commitment model in the context of hospitality education by identifying the key antecedents of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong;
4. To validate an instrument for measuring occupational commitment in the context of hospitality education;
5. To compile the profiles of hospitality educators in Hong Kong in terms of age, gender, marital status, job position and work experience;
6. To measure the level of occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators;
7. To test the interrelationships between the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators and its antecedents; and

8. To test the moderating effect of two types of work experience (that of hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

## 1.6 The Structure of the Thesis

This thesis has 11 chapters. **Chapter 1** serves as an introduction to the study. It provides an overview of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong including its growth and the position of its occupations. In doing so, it explains the reasons for the high demand for qualified and committed hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This chapter also outlines the aim and objectives of the study.

The literature review consists of two chapters. **Chapter 2** provides an overview of hospitality education occupation. It starts with an overview of hospitality education worldwide and hospitality education development in Hong Kong. Next, it defines 'career' and 'occupation' and then specifically reviews the characteristics of the academic career and hospitality academic career. Furthermore, it provides an overview of the demands various parties place on hospitality educators. **Chapter 3** starts with reviewing the career choice theories applied in this study, including social cognitive career theory and person job fit theory. It also reveals an overview of the concept of occupational commitment, the occupational commitment model used by Meyer et al. (1993) and the dimensions of occupational commitment antecedents proposed by Meyer and Espinoza (2016). It ends with the impact of Chinese culture on the career development process in the Chinese community. It explains the collectivistic and parental influences on career choice in that community.

**Chapter 4** presents the research methodology. It starts by introducing the theoretical perspective of the study. The research philosophy's justification of combining the qualitative and quantitative approaches is discussed. The research methodology consists of two stages. The qualitative approach is adopted in the first stage, while the quantitative approach is adopted in the second stage. The

purposes of the two research stages are presented in this chapter. The chapter also discusses the research design, sample design and data analysis method. It ends by discussing research ethics.

**Chapter 5** presents the findings of the qualitative study. It describes the findings related to the challenges and attraction of hospitality education and the key antecedents of occupational commitment among Hong Kong hospitality educators based on focus group interviews and a literature search. **Chapter 6** develops the hypotheses for the quantitative study. It also develops the research model based on the hypotheses. Based on the research model, the research instrument is created, and the instrument development process is introduced based on the findings of the pilot test.

The findings of the quantitative study are presented in Chapters 7, 8, 9 and 10. **Chapter 7** shows the main survey data examination process, important for testing data validity. It then profiles the hospitality educators in Hong Kong in terms of their age, gender, marital status, position and work experience. The differences in three dimensions of occupational commitment among the hospitality educators with various demographic characteristics are also described. **Chapter 8** presents the analysis results of the differences in the key antecedents of occupational commitment, such as the self-actualisation at work and impact concerns of the hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The findings are interpreted in each section. **Chapter 9** discusses the analysis results on the relationships between the key antecedents and the three dimensions of the Hong Kong hospitality educators' occupational commitment. The relationships are examined using a hierarchical regression analysis method. The chapter also interprets the relationships between Hong Kong hospitality educators' occupational commitment and its antecedents. **Chapter 10** presents the moderating effect of two types of work experience (that of hospitality educators as hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) on hospitality educators' occupational commitment. It shows how the two types of work experience moderate that commitment. **Chapter 11** draws

conclusions from the research undertaken. It also makes recommendations for further research and discusses the limitations of the study.

## **1.7 Summary of Chapter 1**

This study analyses hospitality education as an occupation in the context of Chinese culture. This chapter provides an overview of the growth of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong and the contradictory position of the hospitality educator occupation in Hong Kong society. Based on this, the rationale of the study is set out. This chapter highlights the relevance of the study and its contributions to knowledge. It also states the objectives of the study. It ends by providing an outline of the thesis structure.

## **2. Chapter 2 – Literature Review: Overview of Hospitality Education**

### **2.1 Introduction to the Literature Review**

This thesis has two literature review chapters (Chapters 2 and 3). Chapter 2 provides an understanding of hospitality education occupation and the position of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. To do so, it discusses the nature of career and academic career in the context of hospitality education. It also provides a background for the Hong Kong hospitality education industry. Chapter 3 focuses on career choice and discusses the career choice theories applied in this study. It also provides an overview of education and hospitality jobs as occupations in the context of Chinese culture, highlighting the importance of occupational commitment.

### **2.2 Introduction to Chapter 2**

This chapter draws on work related to hospitality education development, the concept of the career and the nature of the hospitality education occupation. First, it provides an overview of hospitality education development. Second, it provides a review of the literature related to hospitality education development in Hong Kong. It also provides background information about the reasons for the high demand for hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Third, it reviews the nature of the career, the academic career and the hospitality academic career. Fourth, it explores the job demands of hospitality educators from the perspectives of the education sector, students and hospitality industry. In doing so, it clarifies the demand for qualified hospitality educators in Hong Kong and the nature of the hospitality education occupation.

### **2.3 Overview of Hospitality Education**

Hospitality education is a professional academic programme (Barrows and Johan, 2008). It is commonly categorised as a sub-major of management under business



administration (Li and Li, 2013), which is specifically designed for students to prepare for their career development in the hospitality sector. Hospitality students are commonly required to take general business administrative courses at the beginning of their studies, followed by hospitality-operation-related courses such as hotel operations management, cruise management and culinary management (Barrows and Johan, 2008).

Although hospitality education is now a professional academic programme, it was previously perceived as being of lower academic standard than other academic disciplines (Pavesic, 1993). With the massive growth of the tourism and hospitality service sectors worldwide, the urgent need for a hospitality labour force has induced the growth of hospitality education in the past 30 years (Dredge et al., 2014). In the early stages, hospitality education strongly emphasised vocational training and mainly focused on fulfilling the industry need by training students' technical skills (Airey et al., 2015).

Hospitality education institutions are aware of the importance of academic credibility and the recognition of hospitality management programmes to improving the image of hospitality education and professionalising it at the higher-education level (Evans, 1988). Hospitality institutions understand that the ranking and reputation of their programmes can only be raised when they adopt traditional academic features and improve the employability of their students. They focus on the quality and quantity of their research outputs and their relationships with industry partners (Airey et al., 2015). Thus, throughout the past decades, hospitality education has turned from vocation-oriented to more academic-oriented. Furthermore, institutions tend to recruit international students and professors to increase their international recognition and credibility (Airey et al., 2015). Other than research outputs and international recognition, the fulfilment of industry needs and students' experience is important for a successful hospitality education programme. On the one hand, institutions emphasise research outputs and publications. On the other hand, they keep working tightly with the industry.

As a result, hospitality education is gradually being recognised as professional education.

Hospitality education programmes across countries share some common characteristics. First, the institutions are working closely with the hospitality industry. To improve their students' employability, the institutions tend to collaborate with their industry partners closely (Barrows and Johan, 2008). For instance, industry partners are invited to provide feedback on the curriculum design and to provide internship opportunities. Second, programme design focuses on the management of hospitality sectors and applies management theories in the hospitality context (Barrows and Johan, 2008). Third, internships are viewed as an important component of hospitality education programmes because they allow students to understand operations management in the hospitality sector (Barrows and Johan, 2008). In summary, hospitality education institutions across countries commonly emphasise the balance between vocation and academic education, both of which involve experiential, conceptual and theoretical learning. To achieve this, academic staff members with strong research backgrounds and extended experience in the industry are needed (Li and Li, 2013).

Although hospitality education development across regions or institutions may face different challenges, these challenges have some commonalities. Hospitality institutions commonly face a growth of competition for students (Airey et al., 2015). With the increase in the number of hospitality education programmes offered by both public and private universities and online hospitality programmes, the competition for students is strong. Institutions are keen to gain international reputations and financial funds to attract students (Airey et al., 2015). Consequently, research publications and their impacts are crucial for a hospitality education institution's reputation. Institutions are also keen to enhance the quality of their programme design and delivery to gain reputations in the hospitality industry (Airey et al., 2015). Three journals have been created to meet the development of hospitality education: Journal of Hospitality and Tourism

Education; Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education; and Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism.

## **2.4 Hospitality Education Development in Hong Kong**

The development of hospitality education in Hong Kong is similar to that worldwide in that both are vocation-oriented. Before the 1980s, Hong Kong's economy was manufacturing-based. The hospitality industry played a minor role in Hong Kong's economy development. At that time, due to low demand, no institution offered formal hospitality courses or programmes. Since the 1980s, Hong Kong's economy has started to transform from manufacturing-based into service-oriented and knowledge-based (Chan, 2017). As its hospitality sector started to grow rapidly, the demand for employees with hospitality management knowledge increased dramatically. In response to the hospitality sector's increased demand for well-trained staff in Hong Kong, Hong Kong institutions started to offer hospitality vocation-based courses (Lo, 2006; Okamoto, 2016). The Haking Wong Technical Institute was the first government-funded institution to offer hospitality training courses, providing one-year hotel and catering courses for secondary school graduates. These courses were further developed into different courses with different durations, but remained at the certificate and vocation-based education levels. Their purpose was to provide technical training for students. They marked the start of hospitality higher education in Hong Kong.

Hospitality education in Hong Kong was further developed in 1979. The hospitality industry needed not only well-trained technical staff but also well-trained managerial people to support the growth of the industry. In response to the needs of the hospitality industry, the Department of Institutional Management and Catering Studies was founded at The Hong Kong Polytechnic (the former Hong Kong Polytechnic University). It aimed to provide professional hospitality management training and technical training to meet the industry need (School of Hotel and Tourism Management, 2017). Following the British polytechnic system, The Hong Kong Polytechnic mainly offered application-oriented diploma and

higher diploma programmes (Hobson et al., 1999; Lo, 2006). Therefore, the Department of Institutional Management and Catering Studies offered diploma and higher diploma programmes in Catering Studies, but no undergraduate programme was available at the time. In addition, the Institute of Vocational Education (Chai Wan) established the Department of Hotel, Service and Tourism Studies and offered various hospitality-related higher diploma programmes that aimed to prepare youngsters to become supervisors in the hospitality sector (Hong Kong Institute of Vocational Education, 2015). However, The Hong Kong Polytechnic emphasised supervisory skills training and general business management concepts (Lo, 2005). Still, no higher education institution in Hong Kong offered a hospitality undergraduate programme because the hospitality occupation was perceived as a non-professional occupation that society did not value (Jiang and Tribe, 2009; Lo, 2006; Moufakkir et al., 2016). Hospitality education was therefore perceived as vocational education. As hospitality education in Hong Kong was vocational-training-oriented before the 1980s, hospitality educators in Hong Kong were mainly those with rich hospitality industry experience. However, most of them had not undertaken higher education in hospitality management.

As the Hong Kong hospitality industry continued to grow, the demand for hospitality professionals with formal hospitality management education increased. To respond to industry need, the Department of Institutional Management and Catering Studies at The Hong Kong Polytechnic launched the first hospitality undergraduate programme, the Bachelor of Arts (BA) in Hospitality Management, in 1988. Four years later, the Department launched another undergraduate programme in Tourism Management in 1991 (School of Hotel and Tourism Management, 2017). In 1994, The Hong Kong Polytechnic officially upgraded to The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (PolyU) and became the only university to offer a hospitality management undergraduate programme in Hong Kong until 1999 (Hsu, 2015).

In view of the Hong Kong hospitality industry's increasing demand for hospitality undergraduates, many higher education institutions began launching hospitality management undergraduate programmes. For instance, the Faculty of Business Administration at The Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) launched a degree programme in Hotel Management in 1999 (The Chinese University of Hong Kong, 2017). A number of overseas institutions also collaborated with local higher-education institutions and offered hospitality undergraduate programmes. For example, the University of Plymouth offered a Bachelor of Science in Hospitality Management by collaborating with the HKU School of Professional and Continuing Education. Edinburgh Napier University offered a Bachelor of Arts in Hospitality and Service Management by collaborating with the School of Continuing and Professional Education at The Hong Kong City University (HKCityU, 2017). The increase in hospitality education programmes placed high demand on hospitality educators with strong academic backgrounds and rich hospitality work experience (Hsu, 2015). It induced a shortage of qualified hospitality educators to provide hospitality education in higher education institutions. Consequently, institutions recruited educators from other disciplines such as language, food and nutrition (Hsu, 2015).

As many hospitality educators in Hong Kong did not undertake any hospitality management postgraduate education, the hospitality educators in Hong Kong had to pursue such education. Hospitality professionals' demand for hospitality postgraduate education increased, inducing a high demand for hospitality postgraduate programmes and even hospitality doctoral programmes. Therefore, CUHK and PolyU began admitting students into Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) and Master of Philosophy (MPhil) in Hospitality Management programmes (Lo, 2006). Moreover, PolyU started to offer a postgraduate diploma and a Master of Science in Hotel and Tourism Management, which targeted local industry practitioners with supervisory or managerial experience in the hospitality industry (School of Hotel and Tourism Management, 2017). The hospitality postgraduate programmes were successful and became popular among hospitality practitioners and educators.

The success of the programme led SHTM to offer hospitality undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in mainland China (Hsu, 2015; Lo, 2006). In the past 30 years, the number of hospitality higher education programmes has increased by more than 60 programmes. The hospitality education industry in Hong Kong has placed a great demand on qualified hospitality educators with both strong academic backgrounds and hospitality work experience to teach hospitality education programmes from the diploma to doctoral levels. Attracting and retaining qualified hospitality educators has become crucial to support the growth of hospitality education in Hong Kong. Therefore, this study explores what attracts hospitality educators to choose hospitality education as their occupation in Hong Kong and the challenges they are facing.

## **2.5 Academic Careers**

Academic careers share common characteristics with other kinds of careers. For example, new joiners commence their careers from low starting points and develop them through well-structured, upwardly mobile career paths (Richardson and McKenna, 2003; Schuster, 1994). Most academics (also known as university educators) follow the traditional path and aim for higher positions. Similar to other kinds of careers, there are given rules and criteria for promotion. Although the key criteria for the promotion of academics have shifted from teaching to research and publication (Azer et al., 2016; Bavdekar and Tullu, 2016), the given criteria are transparent for academics who pursue academic career development at universities.

Other than these characteristics, the academic career system has some unique features (Baruch, 2004). The academic career is a typical example of the boundaryless career concept (Williams and Mavin, 2015), which holds that the key to career success is to recognise career opportunities in a chaotic environment. Academic careers emphasise self-management of career development and inter-organisational career development (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996). Academic careers are “free form” careers, the self-management of which the individual takes

responsibility for (Richardson and McKenna, 2003; Williams and Mavin, 2015). All individual academics are expected to manage their own career development and are not managed by their supervisors in this aspect. In other words, they may have little chance to manage their subordinates' career development and progression (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996).

The career development of academics is also linked to the mobility of their careers. Academics seek career advancement through networking, knowledge sharing and career advancement opportunities across organisations (Baruch and Hall, 2004; Williams and Mavin, 2015). Goldhaber et al. (2011) found that talented educators tended to be willing to change workplaces and seek out better school contexts. Upward or even horizontal mobility within an institution is not encouraged in the academic field. Academics are encouraged to move across institutions to obtain higher positions. Therefore, a willingness to move is one way to better develop one's career in the academic world.

Last but not least, compared with other industries, organisational commitment is not that important because academics are encouraged to work in a learning environment and must be willing to take on challenges (Hopkins, 2016; Rousseau, 1996). As mentioned earlier, academics are encouraged to have high mobility across institutions. Their employability is always based on past achievements such as knowledge development, teaching quality and research contributions instead of the duration of their position or rank (Baruch, 2004; Montano et al., 2016). Studying the occupational commitment of hospitality educators allows a complete understanding of educators' ties to their occupations (McInerney, Ganotice, et al., 2015). Therefore, the present study focuses on the occupational commitment and career choices of hospitality educators instead of on organisational commitment.

## **2.6 Hospitality Education as a Career**

Similar to other education fields, hospitality education has the unique features of academic careers. For instance, hospitality educators are encouraged to move

across institutions, and the willingness to move is a typical way for hospitality educators to advance their career development. Career development and the mobility of academics' careers are closely related in hospitality education industry (Baruch, 2004; Goldhaber et al., 2011) . The willingness to change job within hospitality education industry is a way to get promotion (Ladkin, 2014; Su, 2014). The willingness to change organisations within an occupation also explains why the occupational commitment of hospitality educators but not organisational commitment is investigated in the present study.

Aside from career mobility, another unique feature of the hospitality academic career is its multitasking work environment. Hospitality educators are always required to work in such an environment. A hospitality educator's work consists of teaching, administrative duties, leadership and research (Ladkin, 2014; Ladkin and Weber, 2009). Research is related to publication and the supervision of research students. Educators are also expected to teach and to participate in curriculum design. In addition, administration work is a key part of the job duties of hospitality educators, who must have meetings with student representatives and organise student associations. When hospitality educators are promoted to a higher position, they are expected to play the role of leader to guide junior academics in career and school development (Ladkin, 2014).

Doctorial qualifications and extensive industry experience are crucial for hospitality educators to start and develop their careers. In recent years, new academics have been expected to have doctoral degrees before joining the hospitality education industry (Hsu, 2015). In addition, extensive industry experience is preferred because hospitality institutions require their hospitality educators to provide realistic and updated industrial information to students (Richardson and Thomas, 2012). Therefore, both academic qualifications and industry work experience are important for hospitality educators to pursue their careers in the hospitality education industry.



## **2.7 Challenges for Hospitality Educators**

Hospitality education is a challenging occupation. Hospitality educators are required to fulfil the demands of various parties including institutions, students and the hospitality industry. The demands require various skills, professional knowledge and work experience in both the hospitality and hospitality education industries. This presents challenges for hospitality educators who are developing their careers. The following sections discuss the demands of the educational sector, students and hospitality industry.

### **2.7.1 Demands of the Educational Sector**

To ensure career advancement in the education field, hospitality educators must face pressures from their educational institutions. In parallel with teaching, research is a main duty of academics in the hospitality education sector (Catrett, 2018; McKercher et al., 2006). The importance of research has been widely recognised in the tourism and hospitality academic community. Publication of research articles is important for hospitality educators' career development in universities (Ladkin, 2014; Ladkin and Weber, 2009). Publication is believed to be an effective strategy to obtain a better career in the hospitality education industry (Ladkin, 2014; Weber and Ladkin, 2008). Although some institutions in Hong Kong have no research requirement for their educators, these educators are still encouraged to conduct research and publish, as the government allocates education funding mainly based on faculties' research output (Jogarathnam, 2005; Weber and Ladkin, 2008). Good research performance can help institutions gain more funding from their government and industry partners (Jarvis, 2014; Law and Chon, 2007).

Furthermore, institutions' international and public images can be enhanced by their academics' quality research publications (Hunt, 2016; Law and Chon, 2007). Therefore, many hospitality institutions encourage their educators to conduct research and publish it in selected journals. To encourage educators to engage in

research publications and gain more funding from the government, research output is the key requirement for academic contract renewals. This places great pressure on hospitality educators, who must maintain their teaching quality and have sufficient research outputs to renew their contracts. Research performance has become a crucial criterion for career development among hospitality educators. Hospitality educators must devote significant time to their research to fulfil the performance requirements and move up in their careers.

Hospitality institutions measure and evaluate the research performance of their educators in various ways, such as by counting their publications in selected journals, training research students and conducting consultancy projects for industry (Dunrong, 2016). To understand the importance of research performance evaluation exercises across hospitality educational institutions, Tung, Law and Chon (2017) conducted a quantitative study and collected data from the hospitality school heads of more than 60 institutions worldwide. Their research findings show that publication in first- and second-tier journals is commonly recognised as the most important way to evaluate research performance in the hospitality education sector (Tung et al., 2017). Other important research performance evaluation exercises include publication in research books, editorial service, external research grants and supervision of doctoral students (Kyvik and Aksnes, 2015; Tung et al., 2017). In addition, institutions commonly conduct citation analyses to evaluate the research quality of individual academics. Citation analyses are measured by counting the number of times other researchers have refereed the research papers. It is believed that the citation rate reflects the value of specific publications (Law and Chon, 2007; Li et al., 2018; McKercher and Tung, 2015; Schmidgall and Woods, 1997).

Other than research, teaching is a main duty of hospitality educators. However, teaching quality rewards are ranked as the least important career strategy for academics' career development (Ladkin, 2014; Weber and Ladkin, 2008). This has great implications for academics' perception of the importance of quality

teaching. Academics may not be willing to put effort into their teaching quality, instead focusing on research to ensure better career development. This may provide insight into the reasons why hospitality educators are out of touch with the business world and unaware of its revolving needs.

Researchers' industrial contributions should not be overlooked. In recent years, hospitality educators have been criticised for putting too much effort into creating academic journal articles to gain acceptance for academic journal publication while overlooking the industrial contributions of their research (Altinay et al., 2015; King et al., 2011; Schoffstall et al., 2013). Hospitality practitioners and educators have different expectations and hold different views on the contributions and value of research results (Brotherton, 2015). In fact, there is a need for research on the contemporary issues and challenges of management in the hospitality industry. Hospitality educators are expected to help hospitality practitioners to solve both managerial and operational problems through their research findings (Brotherton, 2015; King et al., 2011; Van Scotter and Culligan, 2003). However, the research findings of many academic journals are not always useful and practical for hospitality practitioners.

There is a wide gap between academic literature and the expectations of the hospitality industry. For example, many researchers have focused their research on various human resources themes such as turnover and work-family conflict (e.g., Day and Chamberlain, 2006; Yang et al., 2012; Zhao and Ghiselli, 2016), but few researchers have investigated the human resources issue collectively (King et al., 2011). Given the sometimes-narrow aims of academic research, research findings are not always practical for the industry. Therefore, hospitality educators are suggested to conduct more 'industry-friendly' and 'action-learned' research from which the hospitality industry can benefit (Schoffstall et al., 2013). To achieve this, hospitality educators should understand the priorities, challenges and needs of the hospitality industry (King et al., 2011). Many hospitality institutions now encourage their educators to conduct research by collaborating

with industry practitioners, and many institutions count these research activities as the research performance of their academic staff (Vong, 2017).

International collaboration with other universities is also important (Hsu, 2015). It is believed that collaboration with overseas universities can better train up industry talents. The collaboration can take place in research, programme development and operations. Hospitality educators are expected to take the initiative to collaborate with overseas universities. In summary, to fulfil the high research performance expectations from hospitality institutions and the hospitality industry, hospitality educators must devote significant time to their research, which places a high level of pressure on them.

### **2.7.2 Demands from Students**

Similar to educators in other countries, hospitality educators in Hong Kong are facing great pressure from the increase in consumerism and academic entitlement in the university student community. Hong Kong's higher-education approach has changed since 2000. The University Grants Committee (UGC) emphasises excellence, innovation, cost-effectiveness and public accountability within the context of a minimal intervention in institutional affairs instead of a high level of intervention in institutional affairs and development (UGC, 2017). Universities in Hong Kong are allowed to raise funding from external sources such as external research grants, service contracts, partnerships with industry and the recruitment of more and higher-fee-paying students (Jacob et al., 2017; Li and Bray, 2007). Furthermore, higher education has become more 'market-oriented'. This can be understood as 'marketisation', which in the education sector refers to the process by which institutions are strongly decentralised (may not be privatised) and adopt various marketing strategies such as differentiation and stratification to attract prospective students (Ross and Wang, 2013). To maintain or even expand their funding, faculties compete for external funding and quality students (Jacob et al., 2017).

Academics unavoidably become involved in the competition. Quality management is considered a crucial factor for higher-education institutions to remain and even enhance their competitiveness and attract more students (Lau, 2016). Poor quality management may affect the reputation and lead to a community's poor perception of the university (Srikanthan and Dalrymple, 2003). Palmer et al. (2011) found that the education sector was similar to commercial business in that students' satisfaction was highly associated with positive word-of-mouth. Their findings show that the overall quality of faculty members is strongly related to the word-of-mouth behaviour of university students. Therefore, educators must enhance their students' learning experience and satisfaction to encourage the positive word-of-mouth behaviour of students and build up the reputation of their faculties.

One consequence of 'marketisation' in the education sector is 'student consumerism', which refers to students' attitudes towards education as a commodity obtained in exchange for student tuition (Delucchi and Korgen, 2002; Kezar and Bernstein-Sierra, 2015). This relates to students' underlying belief that they should be treated as customers and educated according to their preferences because they pay for their education (Cain et al., 2012). The 'student consumerism' phenomenon in the education sector induces a high level of 'academic entitlement' and places a great deal of pressure on educators to provide quality services to their students (Green and Hardman, 2014; Petruzzellis and Romanazzi, 2010; Smith et al., 2007). Academic entitlement can be understood as 'the tendency to possess an expectation of academic success without taking personal responsibility for achieving that success' (Chowning and Campbell, 2009, p. 982). Students think educators should take responsibility for their academic performance; gaining knowledge is their right, and they should gain it with minimal exertion and discomfort (Cain et al., 2012; Dubovsky, 1986). Educators are expected to provide all of the necessary learning materials to minimise students' workload and ensure their success in the course. In addition, students expect to be equally recognised by their educators, regardless of their individual academic performance or study effort (Cain et al., 2012; Dubovsky, 1986). In recent years,

aggressive confrontations with educators or professors have become more acceptable in the student community when their performance has failed to meet students' expectations.

The hospitality education sector in Hong Kong is not immune to the phenomenon of consumerism in the higher-education field. To attract and retain high-quality students to their programmes, educators must ensure that the education provided exhibits value for money by providing quality service (Smith et al., 2007; Wong, 2017a). To ensure quality service, hospitality educators must show care for their students to consolidate their learning experience and avoid complaints. Dealing with students and parents' expectations places a great deal of pressure on educators. Perceived pressure from students and their parents has become the main source of teacher burnout (Shen et al., 2015). As such, hospitality educators in Hong Kong face a great deal of pressure from students and an extra workload.

### **2.7.3 Demands from the Hospitality Industry**

Demands from the hospitality industry are also high. Educators are always expected to develop international hospitality management programmes and prepare hospitality students for careers in the international hospitality business field based on an understanding of multi-ethnic and multinational student mentalities (Sox and Strick, 2017). To train up tourism and hospitality leaders for the future, hospitality educators must also 'think/look outside the box' when modifying current educational programmes or creating new programmes.

In addition to programme development and modification, hospitality educators are expected to provide a realistic view of the types of careers available in the industry to change students' perceptions of tourism and hospitality careers (Richardson and Thomas, 2012). When students choose tourism and hospitality as a major in their university education, they have little understanding of the types of work available and the employment conditions in the industry (Chang and Tse, 2015; Richardson, 2009). The big gap between expectation and reality causes a low

intention of students to join the industry. To minimise this expectation gap, hospitality educators should work closely with industry practitioners to develop quality internship experiences for their students and to highlight the positive aspects of careers in the industry (Richardson and Thomas, 2012). Furthermore, hospitality educators should train talented graduates with technical and human skills such as working attitudes to meet industry needs (Chan, 2011).

Although hospitality educators are important in training talented graduates, the hospitality industry has voiced its concern that many hospitality educators are out of touch with the reality of the hospitality industry, are unaware of its revolving needs and continue to provide solutions to past problems (Kachniewska and Para, 2017). While hospitality practitioners have mentioned that soft skills such as communication skills and adaptation to environmental changes are important for the hospitality industry, many hospitality educators still deliver mainly technical knowledge to students (Li and Liu, 2016; Lin, 2002). Educators should also expand and adopt real-world-based activities and case studies to prepare students for their future careers (Schoffstall et al., 2013). To sum up, hospitality educators must be not only teachers, but also researchers, mentors and industrial partners to train up high-quality graduates and act as influencers of students' career choices.

In summary, hospitality educators must devote significant time to their research to fulfil the high expectations of their research performance from hospitality institutions and the hospitality industry, placing a great deal of pressure on them. Moreover, high expectations from students and their parents increase the pressure and induce an extra workload for hospitality educators. Hospitality educators are also expected to train talented graduates with technical and soft skills through collaboration with industry practitioners.

## **2.8 Hospitality Educators vs. Hospitality Trainers**

In this study, the terms 'teachers', 'educators' and 'trainers' are clearly defined to avoid confusion. Although it is commonly believed that there is a certain level of

overlap between education and training, the two can be clearly distinguished (Hackl, 2001; Wexley and Latham, 1991). Education involves the teaching of facts and theories to stimulate students to acquire knowledge, assimilate information obtained from daily life and consolidate cognitive development (Schunk, 2012; Walters and Raybould, 2007). Bloom (2008) argued that the role of educators, especially those in higher-education institutions, was to preserve freedom of mind. The function of educators is to encourage all possible perspectives of thought and motivate the exploration of thought beyond boundaries. Based on this concept, education involves the development of critical thinking processes, and the role of educators is to facilitate students' thought and motivate them to move beyond the knowledge learnt. In the concept of education, there is no absolute sense of right or wrong, only a sense of better or worse.

Meanwhile, training is the teaching of skills (Docan-Morgan and Schmidt, 2012). The concept of training emphasises process-based learning. The role of trainers is to consolidate students' process of learning skills, which can be applied in a job or some specific work situation. The goal of training is more specific and focuses on the content taught. Compared with education, training involves higher levels of physical involvement and less exploration of thought (Walters and Raybould, 2007). The teaching content and programme structure of training are usually well designed and standardised. To ensure consistency, a single accepted way to accomplish a task or solve a problem is usually taught (Malik and Morse, 2014). Therefore, training provides little room for students to explore their thoughts when handling a task or performing a skill.

In previous studies, the difference between the roles of educators and teachers were not well defined. Generally, the roles of teachers are to provide error correction, to make the subject matter understood and to provide pitch explanations at an appropriate level to their students (Samuelowicz and Bain, 1992; Uysal and Aydin, 2017). In students' learning process, teachers are the moderators. Teachers should create and maintain a textural-quality 'learning space' to students to explore their thoughts. The 'learning space' can be



understood as a learning environment and atmosphere to motivate students to learn but not prohibit active learning (Wijesooriya et al., 2015). The role of educators is to not only deliver the subject knowledge required and encourage the exploration of thought, but also equip students with the necessary theoretical, practical and technological skills to fulfil the needs of their future careers (De Lange et al., 2003; Stewart, 2013).

Based on the preceding discussion, the term 'educators' is more appropriate in this study. This study focuses on investigating the hospitality educators who teach hospitality students and prepare the students to join the industry, rather than those trainers who work in hospitality industry and train hospitality practitioners to gain the skills required for their jobs. Therefore, in this study, 'hospitality educators' are specifically defined as hospitality educators in hospitality institutions including universities, community colleges and vocational institutions that provide higher hospitality education programmes, such as higher diploma and undergraduate programmes, to students.

## **2.9 Summary of Chapter 2**

This chapter outlines the development of Hong Kong hospitality education. It provides a picture of hospitality education development worldwide and the reasons for the high demand placed on hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Hospitality education is a demanding job. This chapter highlights the demands that students, institutions and the hospitality industry place on hospitality educators. It explains the need for qualified and committed people to join the hospitality education industry to deal with the job demands and support the growth of the hospitality education industry. The next chapter explores the literature related to the career choice of hospitality educators to gain a deep understanding of the process involved.

### **3. Chapter 3 – Literature Review: Career Choice**

#### **3.1 Introduction to Chapter 3**

Chapter 2 introduces an overview of hospitality education development and the characteristics of the hospitality education career and the academic. It also explains the reasons for the high demand placed on qualified hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This chapter focuses on exploring the career choice process of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It starts by considering the nature of careers and occupations. It then provides an overview of career choice in the context of Chinese culture. As the Hong Kong community is strongly influenced by Chinese culture, it is believed that Chinese culture is a significant influencing factor in the career choice of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This chapter reveals how Chinese culture influences career choice. It also discusses two career choice theories, including person-environment fit theory and social cognitive theory, and how they apply to this study.

#### **3.2 Career and Occupation**

The terms ‘occupation’ and ‘career’ differ in meaning. ‘Occupation’ is understood as a group of jobs with similar skill requirements (Yassin et al., 2005) while ‘career’ is conceptualised as the occupational change pattern of any group of workers with related occupations (Nosow and Form, 1962). Career development is a life-long process. People may choose more than one occupation in their career lives.

Traditionally, career concepts focus on an individual’s long-term relationship with his/her employing organisation (Schalk et al., 2015; Sullivan and Baruch, 2009). The nature of the career is based on a hierarchical and rigid structure (Baruch, 2004) and has changed over time. Due to technological development and rapid globalisation, individuals must rely on not only their organisations but also their competencies and adaptability for job security (Sullivan and Baruch, 2009). The concept of career is now more related to the sequence of an individual’s work experiences and has shifted from the employer-employee relationship to an

individual's career choices over his or her career lifespan more broadly (Arthur et al., 1989; Harris et al., 2015; Sullivan and Baruch, 2009). Its nature has become transitional, flexible and multidirectional in terms of development (Baruch, 2004; Kovalenko and Mortelmans, 2014).

This new concept of career reflects the change from individuals relying on organisations to individuals taking responsibility for their career development. The career development process may involve more than one occupation. It may include upward, horizontal or in some cases downward mobility within a single organisation or across organisations, and even within or across industries. This new career development mind-set may benefit the hospitality education industry because people with hospitality industry experience are more open-minded towards changing their occupation to the hospitality education field when they find the prospect fits their career needs. The career prospect is a kind of projected career success (Seema and Sujatha, 2015) related to an individual's evaluation of his or her career (Arthur et al., 2005; Maanen, 1977; Stumpp et al., 2010). It reflects an individual's understanding of his or her career success (Arthur et al., 2005). When people make career choices, they evaluate the career prospects of the occupation and evaluate whether those prospects meet their expectations. When people feel that a new occupation offers a better career prospect than their current one, they are likely to change to the new occupation. This change in career concept has made individuals' adaptability and employability more important than organisational commitment for their career development (Sullivan and Baruch, 2009). The individual's occupational commitment is a necessary outcome of the new career concept (Briscoe and Finkelstein, 2009; Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). It provides support for the study, which investigates the occupational commitment but not organisational commitment of hospitality educators.

People have different expectations of their career, such as high incomes, employment security, work location, and status. People with different backgrounds may evaluate their careers differently. However, people in similar social and

employment circumstances, such as women, teachers and doctors, may have similar expectations of their careers and may evaluate their levels of career success in similar ways (Gutman and Schoon, 2012; Kong et al., 2015). As such, demographic differences may significantly influence the career development process. In this study, the researcher considers the differences in occupational commitment and the antecedents for hospitality educators with various demographic backgrounds.

### **3.3 Career Choice Theories**

People now take responsibility for managing their career development and focus on their employability and mobility. People are more proactive in making career choices over their career lifespans. Career choice is a complicated process. No single theory can fully explain an individual's career choice. At the beginning of career theory development, career theories focused on content (Patton and McMahon, 2014), with examples including values-based theory (Brown, 2002) and five-factor theory of personality (McCrae and Costa Jr, 1999). These career theories emphasise the influences on career development, which can be categorised into two types: individual and contextual. Individual influences include the individual's personality, interests, career expectations, etc. Contextual influences include cultural, parental, and other factors.

However, Patton and McMahon (2014) argued that these theories could explain only part of the career development process because the influences of individual characteristics or contextual factors on career choice decisions might change throughout the career development process. Career choice is not a single decision, but rather a series of dynamic decision making throughout the career development process. To consider an individual's changes and the contextual influences on the career development process, Edward (1991) first proposed person environment fit theory, emphasising the congruence between one's job and personal characteristics. When one's personal characteristics and job environment change, the congruence changes accordingly. The interaction between individuals and

their job environments is an effective tool for predicting individuals' career choices (Nauta, 2013; Patton and McMahon, 2014). This aligns with the new career concept, which focuses on career choices made over one's career lifespan (Arthur et al., 1989; Harris et al., 2015; Sullivan and Baruch, 2009). As such, this study considers person-environment fit theory.

Patton and McMahon (2014) criticised that the majority of career theories focused on individual influences on career choice. An individual's career choice is a complicated process, and career-related decision making may be affected by many individual and contextual influences simultaneously. To better predict individuals' career choices, Lent et al. (1994) developed social cognitive theory, which considers both individual and contextual influences on career decisions. As contextual influences (e.g., parental influence and social expectations) in the Chinese community on career choice are strong (Qiu et al., 2017; Wong and Liu, 2010; Zhou et al., 2012), social cognitive theory is suitable for understanding how hospitality educators make their career decisions and why they stay in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

Therefore, in this study, two career choice theories, person-environment fit theory and social cognitive career theory, are applied to understand hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. The two theories are discussed in the following sections.

### **3.3.1 Person-environment Fit Theory**

Person-environment fit theory is applied to understand the career choice process of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Person-environment fit theory is a modification of trait and factor theories. In the early stages of career choice theory, the focus was placed on trait and factor theories that emphasised the congruence between one's job and personal characteristics (Hackett and Betz, 1995; Patton and McMahon, 2014). Williamson (1939) first proposed trait and factor theory, which suggests that proper career decisions should be based on the acquisition

of self-knowledge and occupational information (Su et al., 2015). Through the acquisition of self-knowledge, the individual is able to understand his or her strengths and weaknesses. In doing so, the individual can assess his or her self-efficacy and fitness for the occupation.

However, trait and factor theory is too simple to completely clarify career choice (Sharf, 2016). An individual's weaknesses and strengths are too complicated to quantify. It is also difficult to identify the dimensions of strength and weakness and assess how individuals fit an occupation. Therefore, scholars have modified trait and factor theory to develop person-environment fit theory (Lewin, 1951; Edward, 1991; Patton and McMahon, 2014; Su et al., 2015). Similar to trait and factor theory, person-environment theory emphasises the congruence between one's job environment and personal characteristics. In addition, person-environment fit theory suggests an interaction between people and their environment.

Person-environment fit consists of four basic dimensions: person-organisation fit, person-vocation fit, person-group fit and person-job fit (Fournier et al., 2013; Kristof, 1996). Person-organisation fit refers to the value and goal congruence between individuals and their organisations (Vogel and Feldman, 2009). A higher degree of person-organisation fit implies that the individual can successfully adapt to his or her workplace. Consequently, the individual's work behaviour is likely to align with the organisational expectations (Vogel and Feldman, 2009) and he or she is motivated and committed to the organisation (Astakhova, 2016; Scott et al., 2015). Person-group fit refers to the congruence between the individual and his or her immediate work groups (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Seong et al., 2015). Person-group fit places importance on finding a compromise between one's preferred work pace and good team performance (Seong et al., 2015). Person-job fit refers to the congruence between the individual and his or her job characteristics (Edwards, 1991, 2008). Person-job fit can be further categorised into two types of fit: need-supply fit and demand-ability fit. Different from person-organisation fit, person-job fit is closely associated with occupational satisfaction rather than

organisational commitment. Person-vocation fit refers to the congruence between the individual's work interests and work abilities and the characteristics and requirements of his or her vocation (Lindholm, 2003). Person-vocation fit is different from person-job fit even though the meanings of the terms 'job' and 'vocation' overlap at a certain level. Person-vocation fit refers to how the individual fits with his or her occupation, while person-job fit refers to how the individual fits to his or her specific job position (Vogel and Feldmand, 2009).

Person-environment fit theory makes three assumptions. First, people always seek out a work environment that allows them to manifest their traits (Su et al., 2015). Second, the degree of person-environment fit has significant consequences for one's job satisfaction, work performance, and turnover intention. Those with a better fit should find greater positive consequences. Third, the interaction between people and the environment is an on-going process in which individuals shape their work environments and vice versa (Rounds and Tracey, 1990; Su et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2011).

Person-environment fit theory is unique in its focus on the congruence between individuals and the job environment. The theory involves the concept of change. When one's job environment or self-efficacy changes, the person-environment fit correspondingly changes. It complements the nature of hospitality education occupation. To meet the demands of research, teaching and industry collaboration, hospitality educators are required to pursue self-enhancement continuously. For example, they are required to pursue a higher level of education and acquire new knowledge and practices related to the hospitality industry to provide up-to-date information to their students. This proactive self-enhancement behaviour is considered a way to improve the person-environment fit (Tims et al., 2016).

Educators' perceived fit with the education industry is closely related to their career choice and commitment (Kaub et al., 2016; Tims et al., 2016). Studies have found that educators with high intrinsic value such as an interest in education have high

levels of perceived fit with the education industry. Junior educators with higher levels of perceived fit with the education industry have higher intentions to join and commit to the education industry as a lifelong career (Youngs et al., 2017). They are also willing to deal with their job demands and have high levels of job satisfaction and commitment. Kaub et al. (2016) argued that education might not be an ideal occupation for some educators. Some educators who join the education industry may be attracted by extrinsic forms of motivation such as job security and stable salary, but overlook their intrinsic value and poor fit with the education industry; as such, they encounter various levels of job burnout, dissatisfaction and low commitment to their education occupations. Bogler and Nir (2015) showed similar findings; they recommended that institutions consider person-job environment fit in their educator recruitment process. It is clear that educators' perceived person-environment fit is closely related to their career choice and commitment.

Player et al. (2017) found that educators with a high level of perceived person-job fit have greater intentions to retain their occupations and organisations. As educators with a high level of fit perceive that their self-efficacy fits with the education occupation and that the occupation fulfils their career expectations, they are highly engaged in their occupation as educators (Youngs et al., 2017). The study also proved that person-job fit was closely associated with educators' occupational commitment and job mobility. Given the high mobility characteristic of the education field, person-environment fit is essential for educators to enhance their job mobility. The hospitality education occupation is not exceptional in its characteristic of high mobility. Hospitality educators commonly obtain higher positions by moving across institutions (Williams and Mavin, 2015). This study applies person-environment fit theory.

However, person-environment fit theory is insufficient to explain Hong Kong hospitality educators' career choice and occupational commitment. Person-environment fit theory explains the congruence between individuals and their job



environments throughout the career development process. However, it focuses on individuals' self-efficacy and expectations of their careers, but does not cover one important factor contributing to career choice: the social factor. The social factor is particularly important to the career choices of individuals in a collectivistic society (Chadda and Deb, 2013; Cheung and Arnold, 2014). In a collectivistic society, the priority placed on career choice is based on family and social expectations rather than individual preferences (Cheung and Arnold, 2014). Therefore, this study adopts social cognitive career theory to address the social factor in the hospitality education occupation.

### **3.3.2 Social Cognitive Career Theory**

As Lent et al. (1994) proposed, social cognitive career theory emphasises the interplay between the social cognitive variables in career choice and career development. In the career development process, individuals make career decisions based on many factors such as self-efficacy, interests and need. Lent et al. (2002) held that although these factors did not independently affect the career choice of individuals, the interactions between the factors led the individuals to make their career decisions. According to social cognitive career theory, career choice is a complicated process affected by three main cognitive-person factors: self-efficacy expectations, outcome expectations and personal goals (Lent and Brown, 2013).

Self-efficacy relates to individuals' self-judgment of their ability to complete specific work tasks and fulfil job demands (Klassen and Chiu, 2010; Yu et al., 2015). According to social cognitive career theory, self-efficacy is a constantly changing set of self-beliefs based on the subjective interpretation of various kinds of information collected through learning experiences (Patton and McMahon, 2014; Schwarzer, 2014). Social cognitive career theory suggests that individuals perceive their self-efficacy differently through their learning experiences and career development journeys. The change is caused by various factors including personal, behavioural and environmental factors (Patton and McMahon, 2014).

However, individuals have expectations of their self-efficacy development. These expectations depend on how the individuals perceive their potential ability and capabilities. For instance, when educators perceive that they are able to achieve their desired outcomes in the education field through self-enhancement, they have high self-efficacy expectations and tend to persist in pursuing careers in the education field. Educators with high self-efficacy expectations are optimistic about their education careers and confident in their choice of education as their occupation (McLennan et al., 2017).

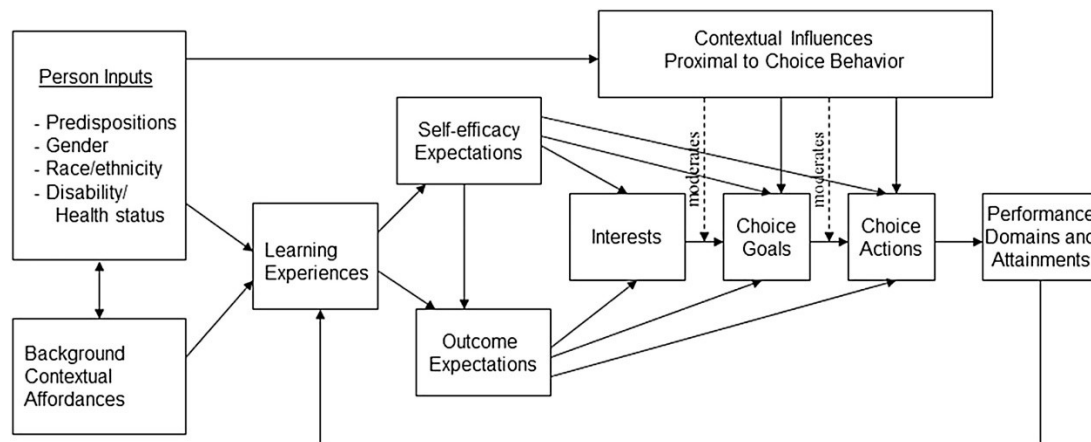
Outcome expectations refer to beliefs about the possible consequences of the career choice (Patton and McMahon, 2014). Individuals evaluate the possible consequences of each career option in an on-going process. Through the career development process, individuals' self-efficacy changes, and individuals may receive different career opportunities in their career development journeys. Therefore, similar to self-efficacy expectations, outcome expectations change through various learning experiences and career development journeys.

Personal goals are interpreted as the determination to engage in an action or a choice to gain a desired outcome (Patton and McMahon, 2014). Individuals have different personal career goals that are influenced by their past learning experiences and backgrounds (Lent and Brown, 2006). Based on social cognitive career theory, educators have high intentions to choose education as their occupation when they perceive that the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards gained from that occupation (outcome expectations) can fulfil their personal goals. The three cognitive factors, including self-efficacy expectations, outcome expectations and personal goals of individuals, interact with each other and influence the career decision.

The interactions between the three cognitive factors have contextual influences that are important to the career decision process. Contextual factors may include

social constraints, race, gender, social status or the realities of the world of work (Dzomonda et al., 2015; Patton and McMahon, 2014; Shen, 2011). They can be barriers to or supports for an individual's career choice and career development (Dahling et al., 2013; Lent and Brown, 1996). These factors are closely related to career interests and even career choice. They directly affect self-efficacy expectations and outcome expectations and moderate the career decision-making process. Figure 3.1 shows the social cognitive model.

**Figure 3-1: Model of person, contextual, and experiential factors affecting career-related choice behaviour. Source: (Lent and Brown, 2006)**



Contextual influence is induced by various factors including personal (e.g., gender and disability), environmental (e.g., supports from friends and parental behaviours) and behavioural variables (e.g., job search intensity) (Lent et al., 2008; Zikic and Saks, 2009). The social cognitive variables work as contextual affordances that can be barriers to or supports for an individual's career choice and career development (Dahling et al., 2013; Lent and Brown, 1996). Social cognitive career theory highlights the significant influences of the social and cultural factors. Cultural and social factors such as gender and ethnicity are significant factors in the career choice process as a whole (Lent and Brown, 1996; Lent et al., 2008; Patton and McMahon, 2014). According to social cognitive theory, individuals guided by common reality are likely to make career choices based on their social factor preferences (Lent and Brown, 2013; Lent et al., 2000; Super, 1992).

It should be noted that economic and labour market conditions are closely related to an individual's career path (Lent et al., 2002). Domestic and global economic development affects the range of occupations and industries available, and consequently influence a person's career choice. The influence of labour market conditions on career choice is complex. Nowadays, domestic and global labour markets are dynamic. Individuals no longer look solely at the range of occupations available in the labour market, but instead take a proactive role in their career development and employability (Li, 2013). To gain greater rewards (such as occupational status and high salaries) in the dynamic labour market, many individuals take the initiative to enhance their skills and knowledge to stand out in a competitive labour market. This fits with the social cognitive theory, which emphasises the development of self-efficacy.

The emphasis of social and cultural factors in social cognitive theory fits the aim of this study, which is to explore hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. As Hong Kong is significantly influenced by traditional Chinese culture, the sense of collectivism is rooted in Hong Kong society (Chong et al., 2015; Luo and Chui, 2016). Social and cultural factors strongly influence career choice. Given the strong influence of collectivism, Hong Kong people are concerned about feeling connected to others in peer-to-peer, student-to-teacher and son-to-parent relationships (Yuen and Yau, 2015). Details about career development in the Chinese community are revealed in the later sections of this study. In a Chinese community, career choice not only is an individual's decision but also links many related people, particularly parents (Liaw et al., 2017).

Social cognitive career theory also holds that personal inputs have moderating effects on the career decision process and individuals' performance. This provides theoretical support for this study in that previous work experiences may have moderating effects on the career development process. Based on the theory, the moderating effects of work experiences are not limited to experiences related to

the current occupation, but also include the work experiences individuals gain throughout their lives. Previous experiences contribute to individuals' learning experiences and eventually affect their career decisions and commitment (Liguori et al., 2018; Sharf, 2016). Therefore, social cognitive theory is suitable for exploring hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong.

In summary, person-environment fit theory emphasises the change in congruence between individuals and their work environments, while social cognitive theory emphasises the career choice as a changing process, the change in self-efficacy and outcome expectations and the influences of cultural and social factors. The hospitality education occupation is characterised by mobility and several types of job demand. Educators are required to pursue self-enhancement continuously to meet the demands of their work. Furthermore, Hong Kong is a collectivistic society in which the career development process is strongly influenced by social and cultural factors. By combining the two career theories, hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong can be comprehensively investigated. Therefore, these two theories are chosen as the foundation of the study.

### **3.4 Consequences of Career Decisions – Occupational Commitment**

According to person-environment fit theory and social cognitive career theory, the right career choice and a good fit between individuals and their job environments induce positive consequences. One common positive outcome for educators is occupational commitment. Bogler and Nir (2015) found that educators' level of perceived person-environment fit was directly and significantly associated with their occupational commitment. Player et al. (2017) also found that high person-job fit induced educators' high level of commitment to their work and low intention to leave the education field. Conklin et al. (2013) pointed out that self-efficacy expectations and outcome expectations were closely related to affective commitment.

### **3.4.1 Occupational Commitment**

'Commitment' is a construct that was originally used to explain human relationships (Agnew, 2009). Commitment can be generally defined as an enduring desire to maintain a relationship (Moorman et al., 1992). This concept has been extended in the management literature and is used to describe the link between employees and their organisations (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Pennaforte and Pretti, 2015). Specifically, organisational commitment describes employees' attachment to their careers or organisations. The management literature has defined organisational commitment as an individual's attitude towards an organisation, which involves a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisational goals and values (Joo and Park, 2010; Mowday et al., 1979). Such commitment is related to the individual's level of devotion to his or her organisation and how he or she identifies himself or herself with that organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). Employees with strong organisational commitment tend to have a strong belief in and acceptance of the objectives and values of their organisations, are willing to exert considerable effort to contribute to their organisations and are eager to be members of their organisations (Joo, 2010; Porter et al., 1974).

Occupational commitment is also known as professional commitment or career commitment (Hackett et al., 2001; Klassen and Chiu, 2011). Occupational commitment has been extensively studied since the 1970s. Its definition has been modified over time. Hall (1971) generally defined occupational commitment as 'the strength of an individual's motivation to work in a chosen career role' (p. 59). In the 1990s, occupational commitment was further defined as 'a person's belief in and acceptance of the values of his or her chosen occupation or line of work and a willingness to maintain membership in that occupation' (Meyer et al., 1993, p. 535). Occupational commitment is related to an individual's emotional attachment to his or her occupation (Andrus et al., 2006). Lee et al. (2000) described occupational commitment as 'a psychological link between a person and his or her occupation that is based on an affective reaction to that occupation' (p. 800).

Occupational commitment is correlated with organisational commitment. A strong correlation exists between one's commitments to the occupation and organisation (Meyer et al., 1993). Continued employment in an organisation always requires continued involvement in the occupation (Meyer et al., 1993). Occupational commitment is closely related to organisational commitment, but both commitments are empirically and theoretically separable (Carmeli et al., 2007). Both commitments are related to one's personal attitude towards work, but organisational commitment focuses specifically on an individual's commitment to his or her organisation (Blau, 2001; Gambino, 2010; Yousaf et al., 2015; Yousef, 2017).

Both commitments are interrelated but may not be equally important for some professionals. 'Strategy marketisation' or the market model weights occupational commitment as more important than organisational commitment. 'Strategy marketisation' or the market model describes the phenomenon where knowledge workers aggressively market their refined and portable knowledge and skills (Reed, 1996). Knowledge workers enjoy occupational advancement and mobility and resist command and control culture (Horwitz et al., 2003; Miguélez and Moreno, 2014; O'Neill and Adya, 2007). They are not tied to one particular organisation but have a strong commitment to their occupations. Therefore, the concept of 'strategy marketisation' weights occupational commitment as higher than organisational commitment for professionals with high levels of knowledge and skills (Ng and Feldman, 2014). Investigating this concept is valuable for professionals with 'strategy marketisation' characteristics. This concept is applicable in the hospitality education industry because one of the key characteristics of the hospitality education career is the high mobility across institutions (Baruch, 2004; Goldhaber et al., 2011; Ladkin and Weber, 2009). Employees with high levels of occupational commitment are likely to invest in their occupational knowledge and job expertise; thus, organisations can benefit from recruiting them (Hackett et al., 2001; Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). Therefore, investigating occupational commitment in the context of hospitality educators is reasonable.

Given the dynamic workplace environment, the importance of employee organisational commitment has shifted to career or occupational commitment (Blau, 2003). Occupational commitment is recognised as a significant predictor of turnover intention because it relates to a person's feelings about an occupation as a lifelong career choice (Fu and Chen, 2015; Schmidt and Lee, 2008). Individuals with strong occupational commitment experience a positive feeling about their occupations (Lee et al., 2000). This positive feeling influences individuals' intentions to stay in the occupation and their motivation to improve their self-efficacy at work. Compared with organisational commitment, occupational commitment is likely to be a key variable in turnover intention. A high level of occupational commitment is associated with a strong sense of obligation to retain the occupation (Andrus et al., 2006; Yousaf et al., 2015). Apart from turnover intention, a low level of occupational commitment may lead to different negative motivated behaviours, such as work avoidance, protest, defiance and quitting (Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). On the contrary, a high level of occupational commitment is positively associated with various positive outcomes, such as low absenteeism and high work engagement (Freund, 2005; Klassen et al., 2013).

The importance of educators' occupational commitment has been highlighted in previous studies. Educators with a high occupational commitment are highly engaged in their education career development and have a low intention to quit the education industry (Giderler et al., 2016; Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). They are also motivated to pursue self-enhancement to improve their self-efficacy in their teaching (McInerney, Ganotice et al., 2015; Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). As hospitality educators' occupational commitment is a key factor contributing to their attraction to and desire to retain a career in the hospitality education industry, that occupational commitment must be considered to explore hospitality education as an occupation.



### **3.4.2 Three Dimensions of Occupational Commitment Model Proposed by Meyer et al. (1993)**

Individuals should have multiple dimensions of organisational or occupational commitment (Anderson et al., 2001). McInerney, Ganotice Jr et al. (2015) pointed out that different types of occupational commitment should be considered when investigating that of educators. They argued that the different types of commitment could work differently based on the educators' work behaviour. Particularly in the context of Hong Kong, they argued that educators' commitment should be strongly influenced by social and cultural factors. Therefore, they adopted the three dimensions of occupational commitment model proposed by Meyer et al. (1993) to investigate Hong Kong educators' occupational commitment. Their study proved that educators had various levels of the three dimensions of occupational commitment. Their findings show that some educators in Hong Kong have higher normative occupational commitment while some have higher affective occupational commitment. They also show that the occupational turnover intention of educators in Hong Kong is significantly influenced by affective occupational commitment but not continuance occupational commitment. This implies that the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong cannot be fully investigated without considering different forms of occupational commitment. To achieve a deep understanding of hospitality educators' occupational commitment, this study adopts the three dimensions of occupational commitment model proposed by Meyer et al. (1993).

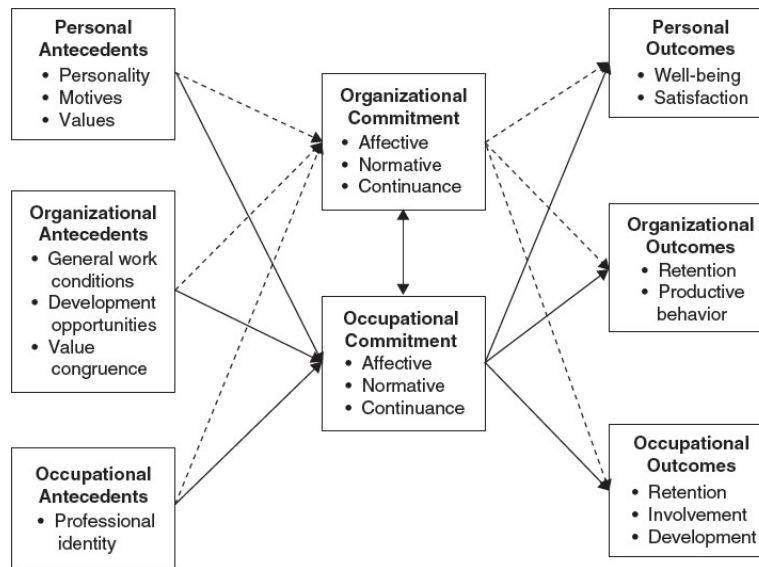
Meyer and Allen's (1991) three dimensions of occupational commitment are highly recognised by occupational commitment scholars. The authors' commitment model was first applied at the organisational commitment level and then extended to the occupational commitment level (Meyer et al., 1993). Meyer and Allen (1991) found that various commitment theories, such as side bet theory and social exchange theory, could be divided into three dimensions: affective, continuance and normative. On this basis, Meyer et al. (1993) proposed that the three dimensions of commitment could be applied to occupational commitment.

Affective occupational commitment refers to the degree of an employee's emotional attachment to identification and involvement with a particular career role (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993; Mowday et al., 1979). Affective occupational commitment is mainly induced by personal psychological factors such as desire for self-enhancement. Continuance occupational commitment refers to the degree of an employee's attachment to the occupation due to the perceived costs of leaving and his or her non-transferable investment, such as professional expertise or high occupational status (Hall et al., 2005; Meyer et al., 1993). Continuance occupational commitment is based on side bet theory. Individuals with high continuance occupational commitment tend to commit to their occupations because they perceive that they have invested much into their occupation, such as time and work experience. Normative occupational commitment refers to the degree of an employee's sense of moral obligation to the occupation (Meyer et al., 1993); this commitment is generated by external pressure from colleagues, friends or family (Hall et al., 2005). The influence of normative commitment on Chinese people is strong because of the Chinese collectivistic culture (Liu and Cohen, 2010; Wasti, 2016). The occupational commitment model posed by Meyer et al. (1993) clearly states the different dimensions of occupational commitment; thus, it can help to fully clarify employees' occupational commitment. **Therefore, this study adopts the model and explores the three dimensions of occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.**

### **3.4.3 The Antecedents of Occupational Commitment**

According to the organisational and occupational commitment model proposed by Meyer and Espinoza (2016), three main types of antecedent may influence the level of occupational commitment (shown in Figure 3.2): personal, organisational and occupational.

*Figure 3-2: Model of organisational and occupational commitment and their relations with antecedents and outcomes. (Source: Meyer and Espinoza, 2016)*



#### **3.4.3.1 Personal antecedents**

Personal antecedents include the individual differences between hospitality educators. The term ‘individual differences’ refers to a wide variety of factors such as personality, motives and abilities (Meyer and Espinoza, 2016), and also includes demographic variables such as age, gender, ethnicity, education and income (Zuo, 2005). Individual characteristics of educators can include teaching level, teaching experience and cultural and national background (Klassen and Chiu, 2010).

Meyer and Espinoza (2016) believed that demographic variables were the key personal antecedents of occupational commitment. The link between demographic variables can be found in previous studies. Snape et al. (2008) found that women demonstrated higher levels of affective occupational commitment while men tended to have higher levels of continuance occupational commitment. Gender difference has a significant link to occupational commitment because men and women have different concerns in their career development processes.

Women are generally more concerned about work and family conflicts, while men are more concerned about job stress (Major et al., 2013). Other than gender, age and occupational tenure are closely related to occupational commitment (Meyer et al., 1993). Tang et al. (2012) pointed out that experienced workers with longer tenures might have greater job satisfaction due to the better positions they received. The achievement gained from work leads to a high affective occupational commitment.

To investigate the relationship between demographic differences and occupational commitment, all of the dimensions of occupational commitment (affective, continuous and normative) should be tested (Meyer et al., 1993). Overlooking different dimensions of occupational commitment may reduce the accuracy of tests of the relationships between demographic individual differences and occupational commitment. Lee et al. (2000) found that demographic individual differences variables such as age, gender and number of dependents were not significantly associated with occupational commitment. However, their study did not cover the three dimensions of occupational commitment or test the influence of demographic individual differences on each dimension of occupational commitment. This may be why they failed to determine the significant link between demographic differences and occupational commitment. Lim (2010) tested the link between demographic differences and work commitment and found that demographic differences had various impacts on three dimensions (affective, continuance and normative) of work commitment. As such, it is necessary to test the influence of demographic individual differences on each dimension of occupational commitment.

Other than demographic differences, motivational variables such as work ethic, self-efficacy and motives for entering the occupation are possible key personal antecedents of occupational commitment (Chesnut and Burley, 2015; Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). Tang et al. (2012) found that work, leisure and money ethic were the key antecedents of occupational commitment. Their findings indicate that work,

leisure and money ethic influence the occupational commitment of various generations. For instance, leisure ethic is positively related to affective occupational commitment for Baby Boomers but not for Gen-Xers, while money ethic is related to affective commitment for Gen-Xers but not for Baby Boomers. Frauman et al. (2011) found that work ethic had various impacts on the occupational commitment of various professionals. They also found that work ethic was more important than money or leisure ethic among education and business professionals.

Another possible motivational variable is educators' altruistic motivation. Altruistic factors are related to educators' teaching perceptions, such as their perceptions of the social importance and value of the job and their desire to help children and young people succeed and to improve society (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Struyven et al., 2013). Sinclair (2008) found that intrinsic and altruistic factors were the primary factors for an individual to choose education as his or her career field while extrinsic factors were additional motivators. Altruistic educators desire to help their students and young people succeed and to improve society without concern for their own benefit (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Struyven et al., 2013).

#### ***3.4.3.2 Organisational antecedents***

Another type of occupational commitment antecedent is the organisational antecedent. Organisational antecedents are work context factors that influence occupational commitment. Studies of organisational antecedents have focused on work conditions within organisations, including job characteristics, job stress, role ambiguity, role conflict, growth opportunities, work–family conflict or support and justice perceptions (Klassen and Chiu, 2011; Lee et al., 2000; Major et al., 2013; Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). Education is perceived as an attractive occupation especially for women, who want to work but strive to allocate maximum time and energy to their family roles (Cinamon and Rich, 2005). The unique job characteristics of education allow educators to fulfil their work obligations without significant interruption from their families (Cinamon and Rich, 2005). Although

education is perceived as an occupation with autonomy, educators play different roles in their work and life that make it challenging for them to balance the role conflicts (Sorensen and McKim, 2014). Therefore, for educators, work-life balance is closely correlated with occupational commitment (Sorensen and McKim, 2014).

Organisational policies and practices are another type of organisational antecedent of occupational commitment (Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). They can create social support for educators to deal with their work demands (Stan, 2013). One example is mentoring practice. Gwyn (2011) found that the quality of a mentoring relationship could enhance educators' level of occupational commitment. Mentoring initiatives are key to the success of a mentoring program. Senior educators should take initiatives to encourage and support their mentees to pursue professional knowledge (Gwyn, 2011). Stan (2013) found that mentors were key to providing social support to junior educators. Junior educators' occupational commitment is high when they gain social support from their institutions. They can gain feedback and professional advice from their mentors.

#### **3.4.3.3 Occupational antecedents**

The final type of occupational commitment antecedent is the occupational antecedent. Occupational antecedents are occupational influences such as one's professional identity and sense of importance as a professional (Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). Meyer and Espinoza (2016) argued that some organisational antecedents such as job security might not significantly relate to the occupational commitment of some professionals, such as those from the education, science and engineering fields. As these occupations face the problem of labour shortages, the professionals from these fields have high upward mobility in their career development. Professional identity strongly influences the occupational commitment of these professionals. Professional identity is defined as an identity or a role shared by a group of professionals (Alves and Gazzola, 2011). Educators' professional identity relates to society's expectations, conceptions and perceived image of educators (Beijaard et al., 2013). It is similar to the concept of

occupational image, which relates to shared beliefs about the meaning of occupational membership in terms of the social status, capability and behavioural patterns of individual members (Birnbaum and Somers, 1986, 1989; Caplow, 1978; Grandy and Mavin, 2012). These shared beliefs are influenced by how individual members think they are perceived by other members of that occupation or profession (Lim et al., 2000). The positive perception of an occupational image may induce a high level of occupational commitment and good work behaviour and work attitudes (Lim et al., 2000).

In summary, there are many possible occupational commitment antecedents that can be categorised into three types: personal, organisation and occupational. However, the influence of these antecedents on occupational commitment varies across individuals with different demographic backgrounds. For instance, the antecedents can have very different influences on different professionals. Therefore, this study investigates the differences in occupational commitment and its antecedents across hospitality educators with various demographic backgrounds.

The development of occupational commitment remains under investigation (Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). Meyer and Espinoza (2016) recommended that researchers explore the influences of personal, organisational and occupational antecedents by applying theories. Therefore, in this study, we identify the key antecedents of hospitality educators' occupational commitment and explore its development based on social cognitive theory and person environment fit theory.

### **3.5 Career Development in the Context of Chinese Culture**

Given the strong influence of Chinese culture, occupations with high education requirements are highly respected in the Hong Kong community (Choi, 2014; Pearce and Lin, 2007). Parental influence on academic and career choice is also strong in the Hong Kong community (Lai et al., 2014; Sawitri et al., 2014; Wong and Liu, 2010). This cultural characteristic can be seen in the university

admissions and Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education (DSE) examination. The DSE examination is the public examination for university admission. Top scorers tend to choose those disciplines with a high social status in the Chinese community, such as medicine and dentistry. For example, three of the four DSE examination top scorers in 2016 chose medicine and the other chose dentistry. In 2017, six of the seven top scorers chose medicine and the other chose dentistry (SCMP, 8 August 2017). One of the DSE examination top scorers in 2015 rejected a scholarship offer from the Department of Earth Sciences at the University of Cambridge and chose to enrol at the Department of Medicine at the University of Hong Kong after consulting with his parents. He explained that the social status of a medical doctor was very high (SCMP, 11 August 2015). The university study choices of DSE examination top scorers imply that the social status of the occupation and parental influence are important considerations for their university study and career development. This phenomenon can be explained by the core concept of Chinese culture. In Chinese culture, the social status of hospitality professionals is much lower than that of medical doctors and dentists. Hospitality education is always viewed as a non-professional stream of education and is relegated to a secondary position by society. This mind-set significantly influences students to choose hospitality education in their university studies. Consequently, it has become a hidden prohibiting factor for hospitality education development and for choosing hospitality education as a career in Hong Kong. To understand hospitality education as a career in Hong Kong, it is important to first understand the core concept of Chinese culture: Confucianism.

### **3.5.1 Chinese Culture – Confucianism**

The Chinese cultural tradition encompasses different schools of thought such as Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism (Fan, 2000). Among the schools of thought, Chinese culture tradition is undisputedly influenced by Confucianism. Confucianism emphasises the harmony of relationships. Over two centuries, Confucianism has become the foundation of Chinese culture tradition (Fan, 2000; Pye, 1984; Tang, 2015).



Confucianism emphasises the importance of ‘man.’ The meaning of ‘man’ as proposed by Confucius refers to relationships between people (Tang, 2015). Confucius was an educator in China around 2,500 years ago. His teaching philosophy emphasised the importance of harmony and hierarchical relationships within a society. His philosophy was widely shared by Chinese communities and taught in schools. Through the influence of his philosophy in the past 2,500 years, Chinese people have emphasised the importance of harmonious relationships between people. In Confucianism, the harmonious relationships between people are called ‘Wu Lun’, which means ‘five cardinal relationships’ in Chinese. The five cardinal relationships consist of the (1) ruler-subject, (2) father-son, (3) husband-wife, (4) older-younger brother and (5) friend-friend relationships (Hui et al., 2004; Hwang, 2015; Qi, 2015). In the ruler-subject relationship, the ruler should intelligently protect his or her people, while the minister should serve the ruler with loyalty and take full responsibility for completing the duties assigned by the ruler. The father-son relationship holds that parents should love and educate their children, who should fully respect and obey their parents and take good care of aging parents. In the husband-wife relationship, both the husband and wife should love, respect, care for and support each other with all of their hearts. The older-younger brother relationship holds that the older sibling should be kind and take good care of the younger sibling, who should show respect to the older sibling. In the friend-friend relationship, friends should help and trust each other. Table 3.1 summarises the five cardinal relationships.

Table 3-1: Summary of five cardinal relationships of confucianism (Source: Fan, 2000; Hwang, 2015)

<b>Five Cardinal relationships in Confucianism</b>	<b>Key principles</b>
Rulers and subjects (or master and follower)	Loyalty and duty
Father and son	Love and obedience
Husband and wife	Obligation and submission
Elder and younger brothers	Seniority and modelling subject
Friend and friend	Trust

Confucianism emphasises not only the hierarchical relationships between people, but also the harmony of those relationships (Qi, 2015). The five cardinal relationships are important for forming networks of social connections in Chinese culture (Fan, 2002; Huang, 2000). In the five cardinal relationships, the hierarchy of human relationships is well defined (Hwang, 2015). For instance, the status of senior employees is higher than that of junior employees, so junior employees should strictly obey the instructions of their seniors. People should strictly follow the five cardinal relationships and the hierarchy of human relationships to maintain harmonious relationships. Maintaining harmonious relationships helps to form a network of social connections.

In Confucianism, a family is a prototype of the society (Hofstede and Bond, 1988). People should first focus on enhancing the harmony of the relationships with their family members. By having harmonious relationships with their family members, people can learn how to establish social connections with others. Therefore, the cardinal relationships highlight the importance of relationships within a family. Three of the five cardinal relationships are family relationships: the father-son, older-younger brother and husband-wife relationships. The relationship between parents and children (father-son relationship) is particularly important (Bodycott, 2009; Huang and Gove, 2015).

A person is not an independent individual but a member of a family and even a member of a society; as such, he or she should consider and reciprocate others' feelings to maintain the harmony of the family or society (Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Lin and Ho, 2009; Qi, 2015). 'Xiao' is the key principle that maintains the harmony of the family. 'Xiao', a Chinese word, means obedience to senior family members including the father, mother, aunt, uncle and grandparent (Hamilton, 2010). 'Xiao' refers specifically to loyalty and obedience (Hackley and Dong, 2001; Yang, 2016). Children, even those who have grown into adults, should respect and obey their parents and seniors (Bodycott, 2009) and have little room to judge their parents' opinions or advices. This obedience extends to their relationships with society. People with a lower social status are expected to respect and obey those with a higher social status. This induces a strong sense of power distance in the Chinese community and strengthens the community's characteristics of paternalism and collectivism (Fan, 2000; Hwang, 2015). More importantly, it makes Chinese people concerned about their own social status in the community.

Confucianism also emphasises the importance of education in society and portrays education as the most important thing in people's lives (Choi, 2014; Li, 2001). With its strong background of Confucianism, ancient China's education system was rooted in moral education and focused on the well-being of people (Tu, 1996). The key purpose of that education was self-development. Children were expected to learn how to be useful people to contribute to society (Huang and Brown, 2009). Through education, people can acquire different skills and train up their attitudes of diligence, patience, moderation and perseverance (Bloom and Solotko, 2003). Therefore, everyone should have the choice to receive education without discrimination, as education can help everyone be good people. In the micro view, education is a key factor facilitating the sustainability of economic growth.

Furthermore, Confucianism emphasises exemplary teaching and moral transformation (Tu, 1996; Wang, 2004; Wong, 2015). Educators are viewed as moral figures and role models for students (Chou et al., 2013; Fwu and Wang, 2002). They represent wisdom and knowledge and are not to be questioned. In the Chinese tradition, educators are regarded as scholars who transmit knowledge and essential skills and attitudes for living and personal development. Unquestioning obedience and compliance on behalf of students are expected. Therefore, educators are highly respected by the Chinese community and have high social prestige in Chinese culture.

### **3.5.2 Making Career Decisions in the Context of Chinese Culture**

Given the strong sense of paternalism and collectivism in Chinese culture, Chinese people are taught to respect and obey their parents. They are also expected to pursue self-achievement to bring honour to their family (Leung et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2018). In the Chinese community, these achievements are matters of not only the individual but also the whole family. Academic and career achievements are common means of bringing prestige and honour to an individual's family (Choi, 2014). As these achievements are related to the honour of the family, many Chinese parents become involved in the academic and career choices of their children (Li et al., 2015; Shek, 2007; Wong and Liu, 2010).

Parental influence on both study and career choices is particularly strong in the Chinese community (Li et al., 2015; Wong and Liu, 2010; Zhou et al., 2012). Many Chinese parents believe that good education and career success can ensure family unity and longer-term economic survival, so they tend to put pressure on their children to pursue careers with high social status and high education requirements (Li et al., 2015). To fulfil the wishes of the parents, Chinese people exhibit unquestioned compliance with their suggestions for study and career choice, even when the choices are not preferred (Bodycott, 2009; Huang and Gove, 2015).

Moreover, in Chinese culture, the decisions of parents and seniors are considered as always right. Disagreeing with parents is viewed as a sign of disrespect (Chen et al., 2017a; Chope and Consoli, 2006). Therefore, parents' suggestions on career choices are a form of parental pressure. Given the strong background of collectivism in the Chinese community, Chinese people evaluate career choices based on not only their interests, but also and more importantly parental preference and the social status of the career choices. Therefore, Chinese people evaluate occupations based on the potential contribution of the career choice to their families and their families' thoughts on the choice rather than self-preference (Leong and Chou, 1994). Chinese people tend to choose occupations based on not their abilities or interests, but the social status of the occupations to fulfil their parents' wishes.

### **3.5.3 Occupational Prestige in the Context of Chinese Culture**

In Chinese culture, one's occupation is closely related to his or her social status. Job prestige is always the key factor for career choice in the Chinese community (Nie et al., 2014). Lin and Xie (1988) tested the occupational prestige rating in China and found that professional occupations with high academic requirements (e.g., physician, university educator and engineer) were the most prestigious of all occupations. Service workers (e.g., waiters and attendants) were rated as having the five least prestigious occupations. As hospitality jobs are always perceived as less prestigious, most Chinese people with high academic qualifications do not choose them as their occupations (Nie et al., 2014).

This result is consistent with the concept of Chinese traditional values. Chinese people tend to be paternalistic and promote values of high power distance and collectivism (Chiu et al., 2017; Lok and Crawford, 2004). As mentioned in the previous section, there is great parental and peer pressure on career choice in the Chinese community (Sue and Sue, 2012). Chinese parents always steer their children to choose occupations that are traditionally acceptable and prestigious in the Chinese community, such as education, engineering, computer science and

medicine (Nie et al., 2014; Okubo et al., 2007; Young et al., 2003). Chinese people believe these occupations are associated with high levels of social prestige, income and security. More importantly, they believe these occupations can bring fame and reputation to the family. To some extent, a career is a kind of expression of fulfilment of the needs and expectations of significant others in the Chinese community (Hardin et al., 2001; Tang, 2002; Tang, 2015). Therefore, Chinese people are likely to choose careers that they are interested in and that are simultaneously approved by their parents or significant others. Most Chinese people may not choose careers without approval from their parents or significant others. The perception of occupations and their social prestige has become crucial for career choices in the Chinese community.

Chinese people's perceptions of occupations and careers are strongly affected by the high value of power distance in Chinese culture. Power distance refers to 'the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organisations is distributed unequally' (Hofstede, 1980, p. 45). Given the high value of a high power distance and strong hierarchical relationships in Chinese culture, power inequality is commonly accepted by society (Aycan and Fikret-Pasa, 2003; Nie et al., 2014). Chinese people tend to agree that they are obligated to perform well on their prescribed duties and to fulfil the expectations of their supervisors and bosses (Farh et al., 2007). They respect and obey the decisions made by their supervisors and employers and are less concerned about their rights to express their opinions. Meanwhile, supervisors expect their subordinates to follow and obey their decisions and instructions. As this power inequality is widely accepted in the Chinese community, Chinese people are more likely to choose occupations that are highly valued by the community. In addition, in Chinese culture, education and academic achievement is viewed as the only means to improve one's socioeconomic mobility and success (Francis et al., 2017; Liu, 1998; Louie, 2001; Pearce and Lin, 2007). Therefore, occupations with high education requirements are respected in the Chinese community. As mentioned in the previous section, educators are role models for students and represent wisdom

and knowledge (Chou et al., 2013; Fwu and Wang, 2002; Kennedy, 2002). Therefore, educators have a high level of social prestige in Chinese culture. Education and especially university education are viewed as prestigious because the education requirements of university educators are the highest compared with those of secondary and primary educators. Consistent with the findings of Lin and Xie (1988), university educators have the highest occupational prestige compared with educators at other levels.

In contrast, service-related occupations are always rated as the least prestigious occupations in the Chinese community. Hospitality jobs are perceived as less prestigious careers, which has significantly influenced the career choices of hospitality graduates (Wong and Liu, 2010). Jiang and Tribe (2009) found that Chinese hospitality graduates had a negative view of their career development in the hospitality industry, even if they had received professional hospitality training. They viewed hospitality jobs as a 'short-lived profession' but not a sustainable profession. Consistent with Jiang and Tribe (2009), Morrison and O'Mahony (2003) found that most hospitality graduates from top-tier universities in China had no intention to start their careers in the hospitality industry, even when they had received several years of professional hospitality education. Hospitality jobs have a low professional reputation and a low level of occupational prestige in the Chinese tradition (Jiang and Tribe, 2009). Despite being hospitality graduates, they still thought that hospitality was a low-skilled industry and the labourers in that industry routinely had the poorest education backgrounds. This shows that Chinese peoples' perception of hospitality work is significantly influenced by traditional culture and that it is difficult to change through professional hospitality education. As a result, not many Chinese hospitality graduates are devoted and committed to their career development in the hospitality industry (Hui et al., 2017; Li and Li, 2013; Song and Wang, 2008). Consequently, it is difficult to attract talented graduates from universities to join the hospitality industry, which prohibits industry development in the long run.

The less prestigious image of hospitality occupations in Chinese culture creates challenges for hospitality education development in Hong Kong. Given the low social status of hospitality jobs, hospitality education is viewed as non-mainstream education in Hong Kong and always relegated to a secondary position by Hong Kong society (PolyU, 2015). Consequently, hospitality educators are viewed as non-mainstream educators. Although hospitality educators are respected by society as educators, their professional education work is less valued. As such, this study investigates the impacts of Chinese culture on hospitality education as a career choice from the hospitality educators' perspective.

### **3.6 Summary of Chapter 3**

This chapter begins by introducing the career choice theories underpinning this study, including person-environment fit theory and social cognitive theory. The occupational commitment model posed by Meyer et al. (1993) is adopted. The chapter provides an overview of the three dimensions of occupational commitment in the model, in addition to Meyer and Espinoza's (2016) three dimensions of occupational commitment antecedents. As such, it introduces a clear picture of the occupational commitment model. This chapter also reviews career decisions in the context of Chinese culture. In doing so, it outlines the influence of collectivism and parents on the career decision process in that context. The next chapter focuses on the methodology and research design of the study. It introduces the study's research philosophy and justifies its research design.

### **3.7 Summary of Literature Review**

The literature review provides an understanding of the development of hospitality education and expands on the theoretical background to the study. The first chapter of the literature review (Chapter 2) offers an overview of hospitality education in general and the development of hospitality education in Hong Kong. Similar to hospitality education worldwide, hospitality education in Hong Kong followed a vocational approach and became professionalised at the level of higher



education. Effort was made to increase academic credibility, student employability and collaboration with the hospitality industry, leading to a high demand for hospitality educator jobs.

However, due to the strong influence of Chinese culture, hospitality jobs have a relatively low social status in Hong Kong, which discourages people with a strong academic background from choosing to pursue careers in hospitality. Consequently, most experienced hospitality practitioners have not received higher education training. This has led to a shortage of hospitality educators with strong academic backgrounds and rich hospitality work experience. Attracting and retaining qualified hospitality educators and gaining their commitment are crucial to support the growth of hospitality education in Hong Kong.

The second chapter of the literature review (Chapter 3) focuses on the influence of Chinese culture on career choice and the theoretical foundations of the study. The high power distance and collectivistic nature of Chinese culture strongly influence career choices in Chinese communities. As career choice is closely associated with the social prestige of individuals and their families, occupational image is a key factor influencing career choice. The low social status of hospitality occupations creates challenges for hospitality education in Hong Kong and puts hospitality educators in a contradictory position, in that society respects them as educators but does not value their subject.

Due to the strong influence of culture on career choice in Chinese society and the ongoing incongruence between hospitality educators and their work environment, two theories are chosen as the foundation of this study, namely the person-environment fit theory and the social cognitive career theory. These two theories place great emphasis on cultural factors and changes in self-efficacy in the career development process. They are used in combination with the tri-dimensional model of occupational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) proposed by Meyer et al. (1993) and the tri-dimensional model of occupational

commitment antecedents proposed by Meyer and Espinoza (2016) to comprehensively investigate the formation of occupational commitment by hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

## **4. Chapter 4 – Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction to Chapter 4**

This chapter provides the methodology of the study. In this study, a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches is adopted to achieve the research objectives. This chapter begins by detailing the research philosophy, based on which the research method is designed to achieve the research objectives. After that, it provides an overview of the study's research strategy and introduces the qualitative and quantitative elements. The qualitative part of the study consists of focus group interviews and a literature search, both of which this chapter explains comprehensively. A thematic analysis is conducted. The quantitative part of the study consists of a pilot test and a main survey. The scale development process is important for creating a valid questionnaire. As such, this chapter introduces the study's scale development guidelines. It also introduces the purpose and process of the pilot test and main survey. The study's sampling method is also presented. The chapter ends by detailing the limitations of the study's research methods.

### **4.2 Research Philosophy of the Study**

The research paradigm is a central concept of social science research that addresses a study's ontology, epistemology and methodology (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Morgan, 2007). It is used to identify which research design is appropriate for accomplishing research objectives (Al-Maghzom et al., 2016). The research approach is the research orientation used within a specific paradigm (Haase and Myers, 1988). This study adopts the post-positivism research approach.

Post-positivism is a modification of the concept of positivism, which holds that 'an apprehendable reality is assumed to exist, driven by immutable natural law and mechanisms' (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p. 109). However, this concept is too idealistic in social science research, as the world changes continuously and the immutable natural law and mechanisms may not be able to explain all human activities. According to the concept of post-positivism, reality is real but can only

be known imperfectly (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln et al., 2011). Based on the concept of post-positivism, knowledge cannot be assumed as the truth in the study of all human behaviours and activities. Instead, post-positivism relies on the concept of critical realism, which highlights the conditions for a resolution of knowledge and theory (Patomäki and Wight, 2000). Based on this, post-positivism is appropriate for behavioural study.

Hospitality educators' career development is an on-going process and a kind of human behaviour. Given the strong influence of Chinese culture, hospitality education as an occupation and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong cannot be fully explained by the current knowledge about career choice and occupational commitment. Instead, the theories and knowledge related to career choice and occupational commitment can be extended to hospitality education in the Chinese cultural context to understand hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. The post-positivism approach is appropriate for this study because, under this approach, behavioural studies are often fragmented and all knowledge is socially constructed (Henderson, 2011). The approach attempts to bring theory and knowledge together to understand human behaviour. It fits with the study's efforts to bring theory and knowledge related to career choice and occupational commitment together to study hospitality education in Hong Kong.

Based on career choice theory and the concept of occupational commitment, some factors affect the career choice and occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong and contribute to the three dimensions of occupational commitment differently. Determining the factors requires a qualitative research method.

For the research method, the post-positivism approach suggests that researchers adopt the right techniques (including both qualitative and quantitative research methods) to collect and analyse data (Ryan, 2006). A research method offers a

way to gain knowledge through research techniques or tools (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Most of the research methods used in post-positivistic research are quantitative, but some are qualitative (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). In the view of post-positivism, a mixed-method approach can be used to improve accuracy and test assumptions (Denscombe, 2014). By adopting a mixed-method approach, a comprehensive picture of the phenomena can be created.

In post-positivistic research, hypotheses should be established and tested to examine the link between identified antecedents and the outcomes (Creswell, 2008). A quantitative research method is appropriate for testing hypotheses because it is mainly used to prove the hypotheses via mathematical and statistical techniques (Gephart, 2004). However, it cannot be used to explore uncovered variables in a specific context. Therefore, a qualitative method should be adopted to explore and deepen the understanding of a specific context (Brophy, 2006). Therefore, this study adopts a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods to achieve its research objectives.

#### **4.3 Research Strategy**

This study adopts a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. The purpose of this mixed-method approach is to produce a more complete picture of hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong by combining information from both methods (Denscombe, 2008). Table 4.1 lists some of the advantages of both qualitative and quantitative research methods.

The qualitative research approach is adopted for exploration, discovery and hypothesis generation, while the quantitative research approach is adopted mainly for hypothesis testing, confirmation and statistical analysis (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In this study, the qualitative research method helps to uncover the attractions and challenges of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It provides information about the focus on the study. The quantitative research method permits examination of the occupational commitment of hospitality

educators in Hong Kong and determination of how the antecedents influence that commitment through hypotheses tests.

Table 4-1: Some advantages of quantitative and qualitative research methods  
(Sources: Awais, 2015; Creswell, 2008; Denzin, 2010; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Neuman, 2013)

Advantages of a quantitative research method	Advantages of a qualitative research method
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Its mass data collection results in highly reliable data.</li> <li>• It precisely identifies both specific dependent and independent variables (Creswell, 2008).</li> <li>• It tests the relationships between each dependent and independent variable comprehensively through mathematical calculations (Awais, 2015).</li> <li>• It addresses specific research problems (Neuman, 2013).</li> <li>• It reduces the subjectivity of judgement (Awais, 2015).</li> <li>• It tests hypotheses and determines causality issues objectively (Awais, 2015).</li> <li>• It tests the longitudinal measures of the consequent variables (Awais, 2015).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is useful for researchers to determine a focus in the early research stages.</li> <li>• It does not require a detailed research plan at the start of the research (Awais, 2015).</li> <li>• It provides researchers freedom to unfold their studies (Denzin, 2010).</li> <li>• It is used to investigate the social meaning and context of the research topic (Awais, 2015).</li> <li>• It can describe phenomena as they are situated and embedded in local contexts (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).</li> </ul>

The mixed-method approach must be adopted to achieve the research objectives (Feilzer, 2010). As such, it is necessary to consider the following questions (Bryman, 2006).

1. Are the quantitative and qualitative data collected at the same time?
2. Which research method has priority – quantitative or qualitative?
3. What are the functions of quantitative and qualitative research methods?
4. At what stage in the research process is the mixed-method approach used?

In this study, qualitative and quantitative data are collected at different stages because the hypotheses developed for the quantitative part of the study are based on qualitative findings. The sequential mixed-method approach is used, as it provides the flexibility necessary to adapt the findings from the first to second research stages (Feilzer, 2010). Specifically, the study uses a discovery-oriented preliminary qualitative design to serve as an input to the quantitative part of the study (Morgan, 2013) (shown in Table 4.2).

*Table 4-2: Sequential mixed-methods design (Source: Morgan, 2013)*

<p><b><u>Preliminary Qualitative Input</u></b></p> <p><b><u>qual → QUANT</u></b></p>	<p>Preliminary Quantitative Input</p> <p>quant → QUAL</p>
<p>Follow-up Qualitative Extension</p> <p>QUANT → qual</p>	<p>Follow-up Quantitative Extension</p> <p>QUAL → quant</p>

One of the key objectives of this study is to explore the challenges and attractions of hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. The challenges and attractions identified are the key variables for the study's development of a research model. However, although they are important for the research model formation, the challenges and attractions of hospitality education as an occupation have not yet been determined. The qualitative research method can help to uncover the attractions and challenges of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The discovery-oriented preliminary qualitative design is used to uncover the key variables for research model development. It provides information about the research model formation, after which the quantitative research method is adopted. The quantitative research method permits examination of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong and determination of how the antecedents influence the occupational commitment of hospitality educators through hypotheses tests.

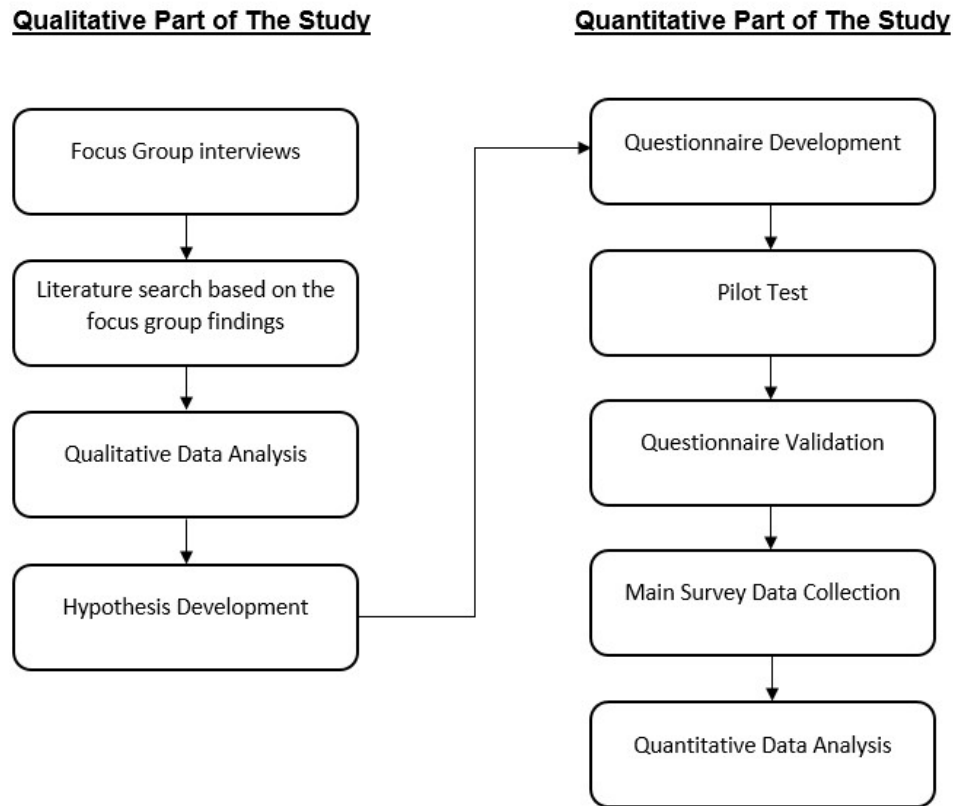
#### **4.4 The Research Process**

The study starts with focus group interviews to explore the attractions and challenges of hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. Thereafter, a literature search is conducted to clarify the challenges and attractions of hospitality education and structure the research framework (Bryman, 2015). The challenges and attractions are identified as the key antecedents of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Based on this, the research model is formed. At this stage, well-established measurements of the antecedents are also searched, such that the variables can be measured accurately in the quantitative study.

After that, the quantitative research method is conducted to study the influence of these antecedents on the three dimensions of occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The quantitative research method is particularly useful for testing the relationships between the three dimensions of occupational commitment and the antecedents (Tewksbury, 2009). In the quantitative part, the well-established measurements of the antecedents are validated and the relationships between the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators and the corresponding antecedents are tested via hierarchical multiple regression. Figure 4.1 shows the flow of the study's research process.



*Figure 4-1: A diagram of the study's research process*



## 4.5 Qualitative Part

### 4.5.1 Focus Group Interviews

The focus group interviews explore hospitality educators' thoughts on hospitality education as a career choice in Hong Kong. According to Gill et al. (2008), the focus group interview is a valuable exploratory data collection method for gathering insights into hospitality educators' view of hospitality education as an occupation. It is particularly useful to uncover interviewees' emotional concerns and beliefs about and impressions of hospitality education (Berg and Lune, 2012; Stewart et al., 1990). Through focus group discussions, the interviewees are encouraged to express their thoughts on hospitality education as a career choice, and they can integrate other interviewees' opinions into their responses (Al-Saggaf, 2016) such that the challenges and attractions of hospitality education as an occupation can be uncovered thoroughly. The interviewees' thoughts on

hospitality education as an occupation can be gathered through group interactions, and thus the educators' thoughts and concerns about hospitality education can be explored thoroughly (Berg and Lune, 2012). Thus, the key antecedents of hospitality educators' occupational commitment, which were essentially unknown at the start of this study, can be identified; the research model specification can also be improved by gaining insights to form research hypotheses (Morgan, 2013).

Seven focus group interviews with 31 participants were conducted in 2014 and 2015. To ensure the representativeness of the information collected from the focus group interviews, three criteria for choosing interview participants were set. First, the participants had to be currently working as hospitality educators. Second, the participants had to be from different hospitality institutions in Hong Kong. The criteria ensured that the information collected would represent the hospitality education industry and not only one or two particular organisations. Third, various positions of the participants had to be covered, from low to high positions.

The focus group interviews were semi-structured. The topics of discussion were flexible, and the educators were encouraged to express their thoughts, feelings and experiences related to hospitality education as an occupation. The inductive approach was used, as is common when the literature is insufficient to identify the key variables (Hinkin et al., 1997). Given that few studies have considered hospitality education as an occupation, and especially the occupational commitment of hospitality educators, the inductive approach was appropriate for identifying the attractions and challenges of hospitality educators and the possible factors influencing the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The interview questions were not designed based on the literature. Instead, the educators were asked to express their feelings about hospitality education as an occupation. The researcher led the discussion by asking open-ended and probing questions, such as "How do you feel about hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong?" and "What makes hospitality educators remain in the hospitality education industry?"

All of the interviews lasted for 45–60 minutes and were tape-recorded. The data collected from the focus group interviews were analysed using content analysis, which is the “process of identifying, coding, and categorising the primary patterns in the data” (Patton, 1990, p. 381). The taped interviews were transcribed, and distinct segments were coded to uncover common underlying themes.

#### **4.5.2 Literature Search**

The results of the focus group interviews informed the scope of the literature search. Secondary data analysis was conducted to investigate the relevant literature and thus provided a sound conceptual foundation for the research model development. Although the attractions and challenges of hospitality educators were identified in the focus group interviews, a comprehensive literature search had to be conducted to identify significant factors. According to Churchill's (1979) scale development guidelines, all domains should be identified by conducting a thorough literature review and ensuring that the definitions of all domains and variables are found in the literature. Thus, an electronic search for academic journals and books in the field of occupational commitment, educators' concerns, challenges for educators and hospitality education were conducted. By comparing the findings from the focus group interviews with those from the literature, all of the variables used in the study were clearly identified. The instruments scholars developed to measure the antecedents were also investigated. If the antecedents were consistent with those in the literature and the well-established instruments used to measure those antecedents were published, then the instrument was considered fit for adoption by the present study.

#### **4.5.3 Qualitative Data Analysis**

To ensure proper data analysis, it is essential to clarify the process and practice of the method (Braun and Charke, 2008). Content analysis and thematic analysis are the common qualitative analysis methods. For content analysis, there are three common approaches: conventional, directed and summative. Conventional

content analysis is conducted when the research aims to describe a phenomenon where the available theory or literature is limited. In conventional content analysis, researchers should allow categories of codes that flow from the data but not pre-assigned categories (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Directed content analysis is conducted when the research extends a conceptual theory to a phenomenon (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). It helps to predict the variables of interest and the relationships between the codes. The preliminary coding categories should be identified via directed content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Potter and Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). Summative content analysis is conducted to explore the contextual applications of certain words or content by counting the usages of those words or content (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Different content analysis approaches adopt different coding methods (Table 4.3). The focus group interview questions should be open-ended questions followed by probes (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005).

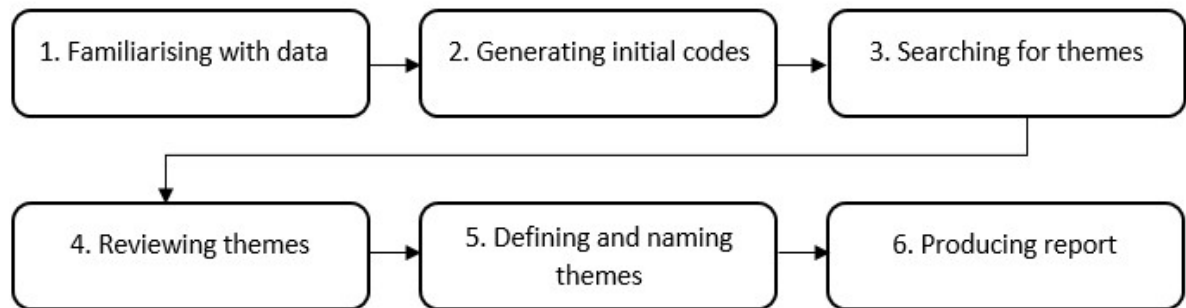
***Table 4-3: Major coding differences across three approaches to content analysis (Source: Hsieh and Shannon, 2005)***

<b>Types of Content Analysis</b>	<b>Study Starts With</b>	<b>Timing of Defining Codes or Keywords</b>	<b>Source of Codes or Keywords</b>
Conventional content analysis	Observation	Codes are defined during data analysis	Codes are derived from data
Directed content analysis	Theory	Codes are defined before and during data analysis	Codes are derived from theory or relevant research findings
Summative content analysis	Keywords	Keywords are identified before and during data analysis	Keywords are derived from interest of researchers or review of literature

However, Braun and Clarke (2008) argued that these content analysis methods were essentially thematic. Thematic analysis is conducted to identify and analyse patterns within data (Braun and Clarke, 2008). In thematic analysis, patterns are identified within data and then theorised as constituting meaningful themes. In this study, the attractions and challenges of the hospitality education occupation are

identified from focus group interviews but not from the literature. This fits the usage of thematic analysis. Therefore, thematic analysis is conducted in this study. The data collected are analysed according to six phases of the thematic analysis process proposed by Braun and Clarke (2008). Figure 4.2 shows the six phases of thematic analysis. To become familiar with the data, the researcher should first engage in the data collection process and transcription of verbal data (Braun and Clarke, 2008). The focus group interviews were audio recorded. To become familiar with the script, the researcher transcribed the audio recordings into written form manually instead of using any software. Through the transcription process, the researcher became much more familiar with the data (Braun and Clarke, 2008). After that, the researcher read the script several times to become even more familiar with the data.

*Figure 4-2: Six phases of thematic analysis (Source: Braun and Clarke, 2008)*



The second phase then begins: generating initial codes. The coding process is an important part of analysis because it organises and groups the coded data with common characteristics into categories to consolidate meaning and explanation (Bernard et al., 2016; Saldaña, 2009; Saldaña, 2009)². It starts with the generation of initial codes. Table 4.4 shows examples of the initial codes applied to data segments.

*Table 4-4: Examples of initial codes applied to data segments*

Examples of data segments	Initial codes
I am satisfied when my students appreciate my teaching and they come to visit me after graduation.	Satisfaction gained from students' appreciation
I like sharing my experience and knowledge with my students and showing them how to apply theory to real cases.	Knowledge transfer
I enjoy participating in students' improvement throughout their undergraduate studies.	Contribution to students' development
My friends are very surprised and show their respect to me when they discover my position as a hospitality educator at a university.	Respect gained from others
The social status of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is much higher than in other countries.	High social status of hospitality educators

After coding the data, a long list of different initial codes is generated. A search for themes within the codes is then conducted. In the focus group interviews, the participants were asked to express their opinions about the attractions and challenges of hospitality education as an occupation. Based on this, the initial codes are first categorised into two themes: attractions and challenges of the hospitality education occupation. To categorise the initial codes, the meaning of each code and the data segments must be understood. At this stage, it is necessary to read the codes and data segments several times to ensure the codes are categorised accurately (Braun and Clarke, 2008).

For instance, the participants mentioned some phrases such as 'I am satisfied', 'I like' and 'I am happy'. These codes are categorised as attractions of hospitality

education. In contrast, phrases such as 'it is difficult', 'very stressful', 'a hidden pressure' and 'a challenge for me' are categorised as challenges of hospitality education. However, some codes are coded based on the meaning of the data segment. For example, the code 'The social status of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is much higher than in other countries' is related to the high social status of hospitality educators. It is categorised as an attraction of hospitality education. After that, the codes are further categorised into potential themes (Braun and Clarke, 2008). Some codes may be categorised into main themes, some may form subthemes and some may not be categorised to any theme. Therefore, the researcher must review the themes.

After categorising the codes into potential themes, the researcher must review and refine the themes (Braun and Clarke, 2008). In this phase, the researcher reviews the whole dataset again to ensure the collated codes represent the identified themes accurately and to code any additional data to the related themes missing from previous phases (Braun and Clarke, 2008).

After the themes are refined, the researcher must define and name the themes. It is necessary to ensure that the themes' names accurately reflect what the themes are about. Through the categorising process, the researcher may acknowledge that the coding themes are interrelated with the existing concepts or theories (Saldaña, 2009). This provides a direction for the literature search. Based on this, another round of literature search is conducted to determine the proper names of the themes. Lastly, the full version of the workout themes is created and the results are reported, as shown in Chapter 5. In short, the findings show that 'self-fulfilment in education work', 'role significance', 'job autonomy', 'transparent career enhancement criteria', 'social status of educators' and 'long-term job security' are the key attractions of hospitality education as an occupation. 'Work load', 'low prestigious image of hospitality work', 'implementation of interactive teaching in a large class', 'the value of students', 'the needs of continuous knowledge

enhancement', 'collaboration with hospitality industry partners' and 'research' are the challenges of hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong.

## **4.6 Quantitative Part**

In the focus group interviews and literature search, the key antecedents of occupational commitment were identified. Chapter 5 relates the focus group interview and literature search findings. Based on the qualitative findings, the research model of the study was formed for the quantitative part of the study.

The quantitative part of the study serves to test the occupational commitment research model in the context of hospitality educators. The quantitative research method is adopted because of its suitability for testing the strength and persistence of relationships between identified antecedents and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong (Tewksbury, 2009). Moreover, the moderating effects of work experiences as hospitality educators and hospitality professionals can be tested. After completion of the scale development and the main survey data analysis, the moderating effect of work experiences and the relationships between the occupational commitment and antecedents can be tested via hierarchical multiple regression and moderating effect analysis. The quantitative part consists of two sections: the pilot test and main survey. Before conducting the pilot test and main survey, a good preliminary survey is developed following reliable scale development guidelines.

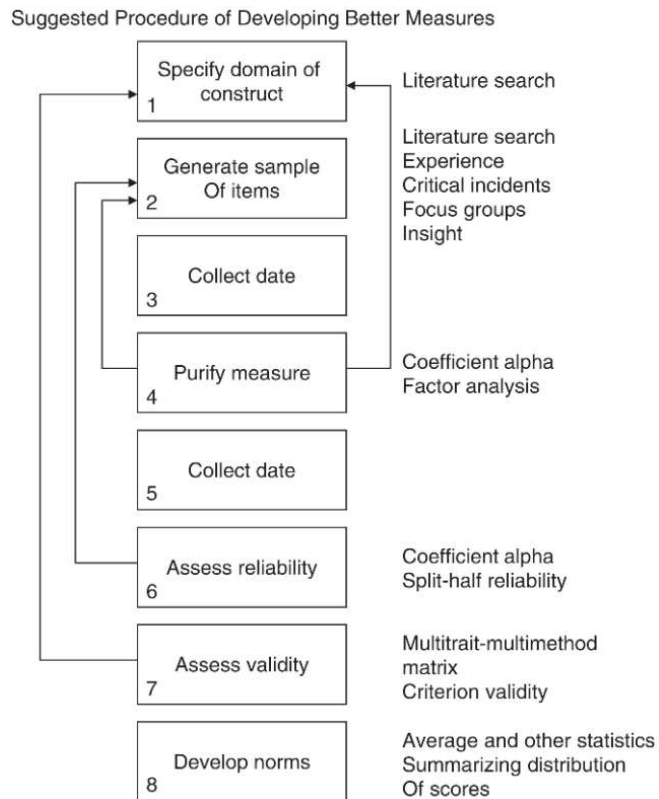
### **4.6.1 Scale Development Guidelines**

A valid and reliable measurement is important for collecting accurate and useful data and thus achieving the aims of the present study. In turn, an accurate measurement guideline should be applied to develop such a measurement. Among the scale development guidelines, Churchill's (1979) eight-step guideline (Figure 4.3) has been widely adopted by hospitality scholars because its



measurement can be validated by factor analysis and reliability tests. Churchill's (1979) guideline starts with 'specify the domain of the construct'.

***Figure 4-3: Scale development guideline suggested by Churchill (1979)***



Researchers must first identify all of the domains included in their studies by conducting thorough literature reviews and ensuring that the definitions of all domains and variables can be found in the literature (Churchill, 1979). They must also ensure that all domains are clearly defined in the literature when they design their research model. In this study, focus group interviews were conducted, and based on the findings a comprehensive literature search was conducted so that all of the variables used in the study could be clearly identified. This process ensured that the variables in the research model were convincing and reliable. Churchill's (1979) guideline suggests presenting different scenarios through focus group interviews. The scenario design should be based on the variables defined through the literature in the beginning. Therefore, the researcher must review the

related literature before conducting focus group interviews. This process helps the researcher to easily identify the key research model variables through the focus group interviews and can help to enhance the accuracy of variable identification. Moreover, the measurement can be modified accurately. Therefore, the present study adopts Churchill's scale development guideline.

#### **4.6.2 Pilot Test**

The pilot test was conducted using the research model. In the focus group interviews and literature search, the following key antecedents of occupational commitment were identified: self-actualisation at work, job characteristics, perceived person-job fit, impact concerns and perceived occupational prestige. Studies have also found well-established instruments for measuring the mentioned variables. Hence, these instruments were adopted in the present study.

The pilot test questionnaire consisted of three main sections. The first section was designed to measure the level of the identified key antecedents. Jones and Crandall's (1986) short index of self-actualisation was adopted to measure the level of self-actualisation at work. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job diagnostic survey was applied to measure job characteristics. Furthermore, Meek's (1996) teacher concern questionnaire was used to measure the impact concerns of hospitality educators. The person-job fit scale developed by Cable and DeRue (2002) was applied to measure the level of person-job fit. Finally, the occupational prestige instrument developed by Lim et al. (2000) was used to measure the level of occupational prestige. The second section was intended to measure the respondents' occupational commitment. The six-factor solution instrument developed by Meyer et al. (1993) was adopted to measure the level of occupational commitment. The third section aimed to measure the respondents' demographic data, such as gender, age group and teaching experience. The demographic data were used as control variables in this study. The questionnaire adopted a Likert scale, ranging from 1 ('Strongly Disagree') to 5 ('Strongly Agree').

The preliminary questionnaire was created accordingly. However, it was not ready for pilot test data collection. As many of the respondents were Chinese and not native English speakers, they might not have been able to fully understand the meaning of each statement. To ensure the respondents could understand the meaning of each statement in the questionnaire, a bilingual questionnaire was prepared. A professional interpreter was invited to help translate the questionnaire into Chinese. After that, content adequacy was assessed because the instruments were not developed in the context of hospitality education. The assessment was intended to determine the conceptual consistency of the items and the predetermined dimensions (Hinkin et al., 1997). Ten hospitality educators were invited to read the questionnaire and to match items with the construct definitions of the dimensions. The educators were also asked to evaluate the clarity and conciseness of the items and to provide feedback for revision. In this part, the questionnaire items were amended according to the respondents' comments.

Based on the content adequacy assessment, these instruments did not perfectly fit the context of hospitality education, despite being well developed by previous studies. For instance, the 10 hospitality educators reported that they were unable to understand the statement 'I attempt to analyse and simplify complex domains at work' in the short index of self-actualisation developed by Jones and Crandall (1986) in both Chinese and English. They also commented that there were too many reverse statements in the original version of the short index of the self-actualisation instrument. Eight out of 15 statements were reverse statements; this was potentially inappropriate, as the respondents could easily overlook the negative wording that typically formed the core meaning of the reverse statements (Nie, 2008). The researcher met with the 10 hospitality educators individually and discussed their comments on the questionnaire in detail for the questionnaire amendment.

After amending the preliminary questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted. The said test aimed to verify the whole instrument, such that the respondents understood

the wordings and sentences in the questionnaire, and to delete statistically unreliable items. The questionnaire was distributed to the hospitality educators in Hong Kong. One hundred and five samples were collected for the factor analysis. In the pilot test, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis were performed to refine and purify the structure of the instruments. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to identify the underlying dimensions of the variables, and the results were compared with those from the literature. Examination of any discrepancy between the factor analysis results and those from the literature was also conducted. Reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha test was performed to assess the internal consistency of each identified item and to purify the structure and dimension of each variable (Churchill, 1979).

#### **4.6.3 Sampling and sample size of pilot test**

The target population for the pilot test survey consisted of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Purposive sampling was also adopted in the present study. The respondents were identified based on their current occupations. The current Hong Kong hospitality educators were the target group, as they had the most useful information for the present study. Similar to focus group interviews, the respondents came from different hospitality institutions in Hong Kong to minimise the effect of organisational factors. The sample size for the pilot test was set at 100–120 and based on the five-cases-per-item rule (Gorsuch, 1983; Kerlinger, 1986, 2011). To measure a factor accurately, Hatcher et al. (1994) and Hatcher and O'Rourke (2014) recommended that the measurement of the factor consist of at least three items. Marsh et al. (1998) suggested that the appropriate number of items for a factor should be at least six. As predicted, three to four factors were studied, and approximately 20–24 items were tested in total. Gorsuch (1983) suggested a ratio of five respondents to one item and an overall sample size for exploratory factor analysis of at least 100. Based on this discussion, the sample size for the pilot test was set to 100–120.

#### **4.6.4 Main Survey**

After exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and reliability analysis of the pilot test, the questionnaire was fine-tuned and ready for the main survey data collection. The questionnaire was distributed to hospitality educators in Hong Kong in two ways: printed questionnaire and on-line survey. Printed copies of the questionnaires were sent to the educators from various hospitality institutions in Hong Kong, such as The Hong Kong Polytechnic University and Hong Kong Institute of Vocational Education. The educators helped to further distribute the questionnaire to their colleagues. In addition, an on-line version of the survey was set up, and the survey link was sent to the hospitality educators' e-mail addresses. The advantage of the on-line survey is its lack of time and destination boundaries. Educators could fill in the on-line survey at their convenience. All of the questions in the on-line survey were set as compulsory questions that the educators were required to answer before submitting. This reduced the problem of missing data. In this study, 356 questionnaires were received.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and hierarchical multiple regression were used to conduct the main survey data analysis. CFA was first performed to assess the reliability and validity of the factors and items in the selected model (Doll et al., 1994). Hierarchical multiple regression was then conducted to test and analyse the interrelationships between occupational commitment and its antecedents. As mentioned in the literature review, demographic differences may influence the career choice of hospitality educators throughout the career development process, implying that demographic differences may influence the analysis results. Therefore, it is necessary to set demographic differences as control variables. Using hierarchical multiple regression, hidden factors such as demographic differences can be set as control variables. The hidden bias caused by demographic differences can be eliminated, and the relationship between the identified antecedents and level of occupational commitment can be accurately measured (Gelman and Hill, 2006). In addition, the moderation analysis test in SPSS can be used to test the moderating effects of work experiences.

#### **4.6.5 Sample Size of the Main Survey**

With regard to the main survey sample size, several factors affected the sample size requirements, including model complexity and the estimation methods used. As complex models contain numerous parameters to estimate, they require large samples to achieve stable results. The sample size requirement is also affected by the different data analysis methods adopted. Two common types of quantitative data analysis methods are regression analysis and structural equation modelling analysis. In regression analysis, the present study required a sample size of around 120 for an alpha level of 0.05 and a 7-point scale. In structural equation modelling analysis, the required sample size is five to ten times larger than the number of variables.

Aside from regression analysis, Maccallum et al. (1996) proposed a model fit testing approach framed in the root mean square error of approximation fit index. The tables in Maccallum et al. (1996) showed that, given a degree of freedom of 100, achieving a power level of .80 would require a minimum sample size of 132 for close fit tests, 178 for not-close fit tests and 164 for exact fit tests. Some researchers have suggested that the determination of sample size should be based simply on the number of parameters. According to Kline's (2005) recommendation, a desirable ratio of cases to free parameters is 20:1. However, such a ratio is unrealistic for several empirical studies. Scholars have commonly used a ratio of 5:1. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) recommended a range of 200–500 as a typical sample size for a regional survey with no subgroup analyses.

The feasibility of the data collection process is also considered in the sample size design. The sample size should be achievable and feasible. In Hong Kong, two universities (the Chinese University of Hong Kong and the Hong Kong Polytechnic University) are currently offering government-funded hospitality undergraduate and postgraduate programs that employ around 104 academic staff. Approximately 10 higher education institutions are offering non-government-funded hospitality undergraduate programmes, and more than 20 other higher

education institutions offer higher diploma programmes. Hong Kong has approximately 1,000–1,500 hospitality educators. Based on this discussion, a sample size of 300 was set for the present study to ensure reliable results and the feasibility of the data collection process.

#### 4.7 Summary of the Research Methods

This study adopts the post-positivism approach and uses a sequential mixed-method design to achieve the research objectives. The research method is quantitative dominant. The qualitative part of the study adopts a discovery-oriented preliminary qualitative design and serves as an input to the quantitative part of the study. Questionnaire and focus group interviews are used to achieve the research objectives of the study. Table 4.5 shows this detail.

***Table 4-5: The research methods used for the objectives of this study***

<b>Research objectives</b>	<b>Methods</b>
To identify the reasons for choosing hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong	Qualitative method – focus group interview + literature search
To identify the current and perceived future challenges faced by hospitality educators in Hong Kong in the context of Chinese culture	Qualitative method – focus group interview + literature search
To develop the occupational commitment model in the context of hospitality education by identifying the key antecedents of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong	Qualitative method – focus group interview + literature search
To validate an instrument for measuring occupational commitment in the context of hospitality education	Quantitative method – questionnaire + factor analysis
To compile the profiles of hospitality educators in Hong Kong in terms of age, gender, marital status, job position and work experience	Quantitative method - questionnaire
To measure the level of occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators	Quantitative method – questionnaire + mean calculation
To test the interrelationships between occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators and its antecedent	Quantitative method – questionnaire + hierarchical multiple regression
To test the moderating effect of two types of work experience (that of hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators.	Quantitative method – questionnaire + moderating test by SPSS

#### **4.8 Limitations of the Research Methods**

Sample representativeness of exploratory qualitative method is a limitation of this study (Grube et al., 2002). This study began by adopting an exploratory qualitative research method to explore the attractions and challenges of hospitality educators. Based on the findings, the quantitative part identified the key antecedents of hospitality educators' occupational commitment and investigated how the key antecedents influence hospitality educators' level of occupational commitment. Thus, it is important to identify the key antecedents accurately because it may affect the quantitative results. Practically, it is infeasible to interview all of the hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Thus, determining how to select focus group interviewees is essential to ensuring sample representativeness. As mentioned in the previous part, some criteria were set to ensure sample representativeness. The participants were current hospitality educators in Hong Kong and held different positions from various institutions. However, the limitation of sample representativeness cannot be eliminated because the focus group participants' perceptions unavoidably create bias in the study.

In the quantitative part, purposive sampling was adopted, and current hospitality educators in Hong Kong were targeted as the respondents. However, how can hospitality educators in Hong Kong be identified? This question persisted in the qualitative part. In Hong Kong, some hospitality educators are part-time or term-contracted educators so that they can teach other disciplines at the same time. This condition may introduce bias to the study, thereby threatening the representativeness of the sample. Purposive sampling is based on the researcher's judgment of the possibility of researcher bias (Bovey and Hede, 2001). Thus, convincing readers that the sample group is representative of the population is challenging.

Moreover, hospitality educators in different institutions can have different job duties. For example, some institutions have research requirements for their educators, whereas some institutions have none. Moreover, some institutions



focus on offering diploma and degree programmes, whereas others offer degree and Master's programmes. The findings and data collected from the hospitality educators may be affected by other unexpected factors, such as the culture and characteristics of the institutions. Although the differences between occupational and organisational commitment were clearly explained to the interviewees during the focus group interviews, bias could not be eliminated.

In the qualitative part of this study, focus group interviews were conducted. Although focus group interviews can help to increase our understanding of the attractions and challenges of hospitality education as an occupation, the interviewees may censor their responses to the interview questions (Slater, 2004, 2005). The interviewees may not freely express their thoughts and opinions when they perceive that the group interview is an unsafe place to share their thoughts (Holmegaard et al., 2014). As all focus group interviewees are hospitality educators, they may be concerned about the privacy and sensitivity of the discussion content, especially when they are discussing the challenges faced by hospitality educators. Their concerns may be a limitation of this study.

The quantitative research methods adopted in this study also have some limitations. The questionnaire design was mainly based on the instruments developed by previous researchers and not specifically designed for the purpose of the present study. The results of the present study may be limited by the instrument design. To minimise this problem, CFA was conducted to measure all of the variables accurately.

Moreover, on-line surveys present some common limitations, such as non-response rate tracking (Andrews et al., 2003). The on-line survey link was sent to hospitality educators through e-mail, and the educators were asked to send the link to other hospitality educators at their institutions. The number of hospitality educators who received and read the e-mail is questionable, so the response rate cannot be calculated accurately. Another limitation is self-selection bias (Stanton,

1998; Thompson et al., 2003; Wright, 2005). Undoubtedly, some hospitality educators were more likely to participate in the survey, while some were unwilling to do so. This kind of individual preference might have induced a self-selection bias that made testing the difference between the two groups of hospitality educators impossible.

The language barrier was another limitation of the study. As the majority of the respondents were Chinese, the pilot test questionnaires and main survey were translated into Chinese, and the questionnaires were presented in a bilingual format (Chinese and English). However, the research model consisted of some psychology terms that were difficult to translate into Chinese. For example, one item from the self-actualisation scale, 'I attempt to analyse and simplify complex domains at work', is difficult to interpret and understand, even when translated into Chinese. Also, as some of the respondents were not native English or Chinese speakers, it was difficult for them to understand each of the statements in the questionnaire. Luckily, the respondents were current hospitality educators in Hong Kong higher education institutions, so their education levels were at the Master's level or higher. They should have had certain levels of English proficiency and the ability to determine the meanings of the psychology terms on their own.

#### **4.9 Ethical Issues**

This study mainly involves human participants. Several ethical issues must be handled carefully. The first ethical issue is confidentiality and anonymity. The participants' personal information and collected data must be kept confidential and be used for this study only. Following Longhurst's (2003) recommendations, all of the data collected remain secure under lock and the softcopy files are locked by password. To protect the participants' privacy, the information gathered from the focus group interviews and surveys was treated as anonymous so that it could not be traced back to any participant. All of the individual data are identified by numbers instead of names. The collected data and analysis results are used for academic purposes only.

The second ethical issue involves consent for participation. The hospitality educators who participated in this study did so on a voluntary basis (Fouka and Mantzourou, 2011). An invitational email was first sent to all potential participants clarifying the purpose of the study and the confidentiality of the data. Before starting the focus group interviews, the participants were asked to sign a focus group consent form (Appendix 1), the content of which was first explained to the participants orally. The data analysis procedure was also clearly explained to the participants to ensure that they understood the logic and purpose of the study before participating (Fouka and Mantzourou, 2011). As the survey data were kept anonymous, the participants were not asked to complete a separate participant information sheet or consent form for the survey data collection. However, both the invitational email and the front page of the survey clearly conveyed the purpose of the study, the handling of the data and the voluntary nature of participation.

The third ethical issue is conflict of interest. The researcher is a hospitality educator in Hong Kong and has an unavoidable self-perception bias regarding this study. Every effort made in this study should be free from bias, distortion and prejudice (Longhurst, 2003). For instance, the researcher must pay extra attention to the phrasing of questions for the focus group interviews. Differing views and opinions of the respondents were welcomed and treated with tolerance and respect. The researcher must be non-judgemental and interpret the findings without any bias. To remain impartial, no conditional question was set for the focus group interviews, but probing questions were asked based on the participants' opinions. In the quantitative part, the data were reported without any bias, and no personal opinion was added to either the conclusion or discussion. The analysis results are based on the data alone and have not been changed.

#### **4.10 Summary of Chapter 4**

This study adopts a post-positivism approach to guide its research method design. It applies a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to achieve its

research goals. This chapter presents the purposes and processes of both the qualitative and quantitative parts of the study. It also discusses the sampling methods of both the pilot test and main survey and presents the limitations of the study's research methods. The next chapter presents the qualitative data analysis findings of the study.

## **5. Chapter 5 – Attractions and Challenges of Hospitality Education as an Occupation**

### **5.1 Introduction to Chapter 5**

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the focus group interviews. A range of opinions on hospitality education as an occupation and hospitality educators' occupational commitment were collected from the focus group interviews. The findings reveal why hospitality educators in Hong Kong choose hospitality education as their career and the challenges they face. In this chapter, the demographic backgrounds of the focus group interview participants are highlighted. Furthermore, the attractions of hospitality education and challenges of hospitality educators are presented. The chapter ends by discussing the findings.

### **5.2. The Details of the Focus Group Interviews**

Seven focus group interviews were conducted with a total of 31 hospitality educators in Hong Kong on 3 June 2014, 9 July 2014, 11 July 2014, 14 July 2014, 24 July 2015 (two groups) and 6 August 2015. To avoid confusion, organisational commitment and occupational commitment were clearly explained to the focus group participants at the beginning of the interviews. The interviews lasted for 45–60 minutes and were tape recorded with the consent of the participants. The interview records were transformed into scripts. After that, the scripts were reviewed several times to identify patterns, relationships and commonalities. The findings were compared with the literature to identify the key antecedents of occupational commitment for the research model and to develop hypotheses. The following sections summarise the findings.

### **5.3 Demographic Backgrounds of the Pilot Test Interviewees**

Thirty-one hospitality educators participated in the focus group interviews. Table 5.1 shows the detailed demographic backgrounds of the interviewees. Twenty-three of the participants were female and eight were male. To explore the

attractions and challenges of hospitality education as an occupation, interviewees with diverse demographic backgrounds were sought. Their positions included instructor, lecturer, senior lecturer, assistant professor and associate professor. The participants included junior and senior hospitality educators. Their hospitality education experience ranged from less than three years to more than 10 years. The participants came from more than five institutions. To maintain their privacy, the names of their institutions are not indicated in Table 5.1. In terms of academic qualifications, the participants had Master's or doctoral degrees.

***Table 5-1: Demographic profiles of the interviewees***

Focus Groups		Date	Gender	Job position	Academic qualification	Teaching Experience
FG01	A1	3 June, 2014	Female	Instructor	Master degree	Less than 3 years
	A2		Male	Instructor	Master degree	More than 10 years
	A3		Male	Lecturer	Doctoral degree	More than 10 years
	A4		Female	Instructor	Master degree	3-5 years
	A5		Female	Lecturer	Master degree	More than 10 years
	A6		Female	Instructor	Master degree	More than 10 years
FG02	B1	9 July, 2014	Female	Instructor	Master degree	Less than 3 years
	B2		Female	Assistant Professor	Doctoral degree	5-10 years
	B3		Male	Associate Professor	Doctoral degree	More than 10 years
	B4		Female	Assistant Professor	Doctoral degree	5-10 years
	B5		Female	Instructor	Master degree	5-10 years
FG03	C1	11 July, 2014	Female	Assistant professor	Doctoral degree	5-10 years
	C2		Male	Lecturer	Master degree	More than 10 years
	C3		Female	Lecturer	Master degree	More than 10 years
	C4		Female	Instructor	Master degree	3-5 years
	C5		Female	Assistant Professor	Doctoral degree	More than 10 years
FG04	E1	14 July, 2014	Female	Assistant Professor	Doctoral degree	5-10 years
	E2		Male	Instructor	Master degree	5-10 years
	E3		Female	Associate Professor	Doctoral degree	More than 10 years
	E4		Male	Instructor	Master degree	5-10 years
FG05	F1	24 July, 2015 Morning	Female	Instructor	Doctoral degree	5-10 years
	F2		Male	Instructor	Master degree	3-5 years
	F3		Female	Instructor	Master degree	More than 10 years
	F4		Female	Instructor	Master degree	5-10 years
FG06	G1	24 July, 2015 Afternoon	Female	Assistant Professor	Doctoral degree	5-10 years
	G2		Female	Assistant Professor	Master degree	3-5 years
	G3		Female	Associate Professor	Master degree	More than 10 years
FG07	H1	6 August, 2015	Female	Lecturer	Doctoral degree	Less than 3 years
	H2		Female	Lecturer	Master degree	5-10 years
	H3		Female	Lecturer	Doctoral degree	More than 10 years
	H4		Male	Senior Lecturer	Master degree	More than 10 years

## **5.4 The Attractions of Hospitality Education as an Occupation in Hong Kong**

The coding process is introduced in Section 4.5.3. This section presents the coding and analysis results. Based on the focus group interview analysis results, the attractions of hospitality education are classified using terms such as 'self-fulfilment in education work', 'role significance', 'job autonomy', 'transparent career enhancement criteria', 'social status of educators' and 'long-term job security'. The terms are used based on the interview scripts and literature search. The key attractions of hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong are presented as follows.

### **5.4.1 Self-fulfilment at Education Work**

The participants talked about self-fulfilment through self-study, research and teaching. They indicated that they were passionate to be hospitality educators because they could inspire students through teaching and sharing their experience. Some of the participants mentioned that they felt happy and satisfied to be hospitality educators because they could contribute to the hospitality industry through their research and teaching. Self-fulfilment is a key factor in educators' satisfaction and retention intention. Educators have high retention intention when they gain a sense of self-fulfilment through their work (Wang and Gao, 2013). Clark et al. (2014) identified the needs of 'self-fulfilment through education work' as a key reason for pre-service educators to pursue their careers in the education field. Akomolafe and Ogunmakin (2014) also found that educators could overcome occupational stress when they felt self-fulfilled as educators. Therefore, self-fulfilment in education work is one attraction of the hospitality education occupation in Hong Kong.



*Examples of quotes:*

FG01(A2)      *'Before the students join the hospitality industry, I can provide a clear picture of this industry to them, such as the importance of punctuality, so that the students can be more prepared to join the industry. A few years later, I am satisfied when my students appreciate my teaching and they come to visit me after graduation.'*

FG02(B3):      *'I am motivated to stay in the hospitality education industry when my students experience positive changes in their values towards their studies and their careers throughout their undergraduate studies.'*

FG02(B2)      *'I feel satisfied when my students experience a great improvement in their academic performance and their learning attitude. I enjoy participating in the progress of students' improvement throughout their undergraduate studies.'*

#### **5.4.2 Role Significance**

In focus group interviews, the participants mentioned that the inspiration for their work was a key factor for them to join and remain in the industry. The participants highlighted the importance of their role as educators in students' development and the growth of hospitality and the hospitality education industry. The participants pointed out that they joined the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong because they could play an important role in students' development. They recognised this important role as an attraction of the hospitality education occupation. In addition, they thought that they played an important role in the development of hospitality and the hospitality education industry by inspiring teaching and quality research. As hospitality educators' role is important for both

students and the hospitality industry, the participants decided to join the hospitality education industry. Their perception of the significance of their role was closely related to their satisfaction. Tziner and Tanami (2013) found that one's perception of the significance of his or her role was positively related to his or her job motivation and job engagement. When educators perceive that their role is important for student and school development, they tend to feel more attached to their education work and engage in their education occupation. Yucel and Bektas (2012) also found that educators' commitment and satisfaction were related to their perceived task significance. When educators perceive that they play an important role for others, they are committed to their work and gain great satisfaction from it.

*Examples of quotes:*

*Role significance in student development*

FG03(C3)      *'I am taking on the role of coming out from the industry and now using examples to show future employees that there are situations they are going to overcome. My role is very unique and important.'*

FG02(B2)      *'The role of hospitality educators is different from that of trainers in the industry. We aim to provide high levels of education to students, such as critical thinking and analytical skills. It was my reason for quitting my trainer job and joining the hospitality education industry.'*

FG04(D3)      *'I am happy to be a hospitality educator because I can inspire people through research. I am happy to be a hospitality educator because I can inspire students through teaching as well. I will share my stories with them.'*

Role significance in hospitality industry growth

- FG01(A4)      *'I want to transfer my experience and knowledge to my students. It is a kind of contribution to the hospitality industry.'*
- FG04(D1)      *'I decided to join the hospitality education industry because I wanted to raise the hospitality industry up by giving awards and by offering different courses to the public.'*
- FG04(D4)      *'I like the research environment in the hospitality education industry because I can conduct different kinds of research to help the industry solve its problems. For example, little food and beverage research has been done, but it is very important, so I am here.'*

Role significance in the hospitality education industry

- FG01(A1)      *'Many people have the wrong perception that hospitality education is not professional education. So, I have come forward to show that hospitality education is professional education.'*

### **5.4.3 Job Autonomy**

The participants mentioned job autonomy as another attraction of hospitality education jobs. Job autonomy is related to the degree of an employee's capability and granted freedom to determine his or her way to accomplish work tasks (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Spector, 1997). The flexible and high job autonomy characteristics of the hospitality education career attract them to join the industry. They commonly agree that many hospitality educators stay in the industry because of the flexible work schedule. Their teaching schedule is usually released before the semester starts. It makes them feel more able to manage their teaching,

research work and personal matters. Most of the focus group participants had similar opinions in this regard. Job autonomy is important for educators to overcome their work challenges. Fernet et al. (2014) found that the high job autonomy of the education occupation helped educators and especially the junior educators to deal with work stress. Johari et al. (2017) pointed out that high job autonomy lent educators more confidence to handle their work and allowed them to manage their work-life balance. Thus, educators find it easier to overcome work challenges and commit to their occupation.

*Examples of quotes:*

FG01(A1)        *'I like this job because I can manage my work and my personal matters at the same time.'*

FG01(A2):        *'I can make the decisions about my working schedule. I can mark all assignments within a few days or more than a week. In the hospitality industry, the work is always out of my control. For example, you have to handle the customer complaints immediately.'*

FG01(A5):        *'I can foresee our teaching schedule, as the schedule is released before the semester starts. It makes it easier to manage my teaching load and my personal matters.'*

FG02(B2):        *'I can manage my time even though I need to teach both morning and evening classes.'*

FG04(D1)        *'I am lucky that I am able to manage my work flexibly. I can teach, do research and organise workshops if I want.'*

#### 5.4.4 Transparent Career Enhancement Criteria

Transparent career enhancement criteria are the factors attracting educators to stay in the industry. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the given criteria are available for academics who pursue academic career development at higher education institutions. The promotion system of the hospitality education industry is clear, which helps educators to understand the criteria (paper publications and student evaluation scores) for promotion. Educators can easily evaluate their performance based on the criteria, which makes them feel they are being treated fairly and more comfortable remaining in the industry. More importantly, educators are able to assess their performance because they can retrieve feedback on their performance from their job. Educators are able to receive information about their job performance so that they can evaluate the possibility of promotion. Transparent and clear promotion criteria are essential in the university education industry. To retain academics and enhance their career commitment, universities commonly set teaching and research career tracks for their educators to develop their careers based on their interests (research or teaching) (Kobayashi et al., 2017). Kobayashi et al. (2017) found that the works excluded from career enhancement criteria demotivate educators in committing to their occupation.

##### *Examples of quotes:*

FG01(A3) *'In the hospitality education industry, it is easy to forecast my career path in the next 10 years. The career structure of education is much simpler than that of the hospitality industry. As long as you publish and get high scores in the Student Feedback Questionnaire, you can get promoted.'*

FG01(A4) *'There is a relatively highly transparent promotion system. The requirements have been listed. Everyone knows them. Just see whether you want to achieve all of the requirements to get a higher position.'*

FG01(A6) *'The requirement for promotion is very clear. Promotion is simply based on research paper publications and the feedback score from students. If I fulfil the requirements, I can get promoted.'*

FG02(B3) *'Compared with the hospitality education industry, it is relatively more difficult to get promoted to a top management level in the hospitality industry. The hotels never tell you what you should do to get promoted.'*

#### **5.4.5 Social Status of Educators**

The findings show that social status and job image are the reasons why hospitality educators commit to the hospitality education sector in Hong Kong. In the focus group interviews, the participants stated that educators were highly respected by Hong Kong society. This finding is consistent with the literature review. As mentioned in the literature review, educators are highly respected in the Chinese community (Yang, 2012). Therefore, the participants felt that being hospitality educators was more prestigious than being hospitality professionals. Given the strong influence of Chinese culture, they tended to pursue occupations with high social status and occupational prestige. Due to the Chinese traditions, educators enjoy high social status and are highly respected by the Chinese community (Chen and Day, 2015). Chinese parents tend to encourage their children to be teachers, even though the average teacher salary is not high in mainland China (Dolton and Marcenaro-Gutierrez, 2011). Stable employment and high social status attract Chinese people to join the education industry (White, 2017). Therefore, hospitality educators are unsurprisingly attracted to join the hospitality education industry because of the social status of educators in Hong Kong.

*Examples of quotes:*

FG01(A2): *'No one is willing to be served by a 60-year-old staff member in a hotel lobby, but a 60-year-old professor is always viewed as a very experienced and professional expert. Hotels do not want a 60-year-old staff member. For example, how can a 60-year-old assist guests with evacuation when a fire occurs at a hotel?'*

FG02(B1): *'The social status of educators is very different across countries. Compared with other countries, the social status of hospitality educators in Asia is higher, especially in China and Hong Kong. ... The social status of university professors is not higher than other occupations in the US.'*

FG02(B5) *'My friends are very surprised and show their respect to me immediately when they know that I am now working as an educator at a university.'*

FG03(C4) *'In fact, the social status of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is high, which makes many hospitality practitioners want to join this industry.'*

#### **5.4.6 Long-term Job Security**

The sustainability of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong influenced whether the participants would stay in hospitality education. Compared with other education fields, the participants thought that hospitality education in Hong Kong was more sustainable because the hospitality industry was a major pillar of the Hong Kong economy (The Information Services Department HKSAR, 2012). They foresaw that job and promotion opportunities in the hospitality education field would increase. As the hospitality industry grows, many job opportunities are

available, attracting educators to join and develop their careers in the industry. Chinese people are commonly instilled with the belief from their parents and society that job security and social status are the key factors in career choice (Wang et al., 2015). Therefore, Chinese people exhibit a preference for education occupations. The participants did not show concerns about their job security within an organisation, but were concerned about the job security in the industry as a whole and about the job opportunities available in the long run. This provides support for the importance of hospitality educators' occupational commitment in Hong Kong.

*Examples of quotes:*

*FG02(B4): 'The hospitality industry is a very important and sustainable industry in Hong Kong, and I can foresee that it will play an important role in the Hong Kong economy in the long run. So, I foresee more offers in the hospitality education job market because the demands placed on hospitality education are continuing to grow.'*

*FG02(B3): 'The sustainability of the hospitality education industry influences whether I should stay in this industry. If the career opportunity or job security in hospitality education is poorer than my expectations, I may change my occupation, which could provide more career opportunities for me.'*

*FG03(C1) 'The hospitality industry is growing in Hong Kong, and hospitality education is becoming a sustainable industry. Hospitality education jobs are much more stable than hospitality industry jobs because hospitality education institutions are not purely commercial companies.'*



FG04(D1) *'The hospitality education industry provides an opportunity for my future career planning. I decided to join the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong because I can foresee there will be more career development opportunities in Hong Kong or even in Asia.'*

FG04(D3) *'I can see a lot more opportunities for employment in the hospitality education industry worldwide. However, I will continue working in a kitchen if I remain in the hotel industry.'*

In summary, hospitality educators are attracted to join the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong for six reasons: 'self-fulfilment in education work', 'role significance', 'job autonomy', 'transparent career enhancement criteria', 'social status of educators' and 'long-term job security'. The next section introduces the challenges of hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong.

## **5.5 The Challenges of Hospitality Education as an Occupation in Hong Kong**

Although the participants in the focus group interviews identified many reasons for them to join and remain in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong, they felt that hospitality educator in Hong Kong was not an easy job. They faced various challenges in their work. In the focus group interviews, the challenges faced by hospitality educators in Hong Kong were explored as follows.

### **5.5.1 Workload**

The focus group participants indicated that workload was the key challenge for hospitality educators. The workload is dictated by the expectations of hospitality educators' organisations and industry norms. Hospitality educators are required to do research, teaching and administrative work at the same time to meet promotion or contract renewal requirements, which is consistent with studies of the demands of education sectors and students. Higher education has become more popular,

especially in China (Yang et al., 2014). The increasing number of students has induced a heavy workload for educators, especially those supervising postgraduate students. The large number of students has led university educators to experience burnout at work (Watts and Robertson, 2011). Educators also face various pressures from policymakers, supervisors, parents, students and societal expectations (Van Droogenbroeck et al., 2014). They must maintain good relationship with colleagues, students, supervisors and parents. They also have heavy teaching- and non-teaching-related workloads (e.g., administrative work). The heavy workloads and external pressures are the key factors contributing to educator burnout (Van Droogenbroeck et al., 2014). Handling workloads properly is a challenge for educators.

*Examples of quotes:*

FG01(A2,A3,A4) *'Other than teaching, we have service and administrative work such as admission interviews. We are also required to attend different events organised by the school or industry partners.'*

FG05(E2) *'I am happy to work on new things if the school assigns less of a teaching workload to me. But there are too many things to do at the same time. I am always assigned to work on different duties. For example, I may suddenly need to work on e-learning development for the school. I am also forced to apply e-learning to my subject.'*

FG05(E4) *'The working environment is really tough. Our teaching hour load is only for teaching and excludes teaching material preparation time. The working hours are even heavier than those of secondary school educators.'*

- FG06(F1) *'If I work normal working hours such as 44-48 hours per week, I may not be able to fulfil the all of the university's promotion requirements. That means I need to spend extra time on my work and sacrifice my family time.'*
- FG07(H1) *'The workload is a kind of pressure. I need to teach and I need to learn how to do research. You know, even though the school does not ask you to do research, you have to do it anyway. When I joined the industry, I thought that my duty was only teaching. However, that was not correct. I do feel very stressed by the workload. Yes, I can choose not to do research, but everyone knows that I have no choice if I want to advance my career.'*

### **5.5.2 Implementation of Interactive Teaching in a Large Class**

In the focus group interviews, the participants indicated that interactive teaching was important for enhancing their teaching quality. However, they pointed out that class sizes were often too big to take care of the students individually. As such, it was difficult for them to achieve their teaching goals and interact with their students, which affected their teaching quality. This is consistent with previous studies of teaching effectiveness in large classes. Studies have found that large class learning environments reduce the student-educator interaction opportunity that causes low engagement motivation and student commitment to the courses (Hornsby and Osman, 2014). Mulryan-Kyne (2010) pointed out that the educators in higher education sectors find it difficult to respond to large demands from students in a large class. Large class sizes reduce the chances of informal communication between students and educators. Interaction in a large class is superficial. Educators differ in terms of how they elicit their students to answer and how they test whether students understand the taught knowledge (Mulryan-Kyne, 2010). Therefore, it is challenging to determine how educators provide quality interactive teaching in a large class.

*Examples of quotes:*

- FG05(02) *'As the class size is too large, it is difficult to have interactions with students and difficult to make sure all of the students understand your teaching.'*
- FG05(04) *'I have no time to interact with students and follow their learning progress one by one because the class size is too big. Even I cannot recognise my students' names.'*
- FG07(01) *'If you compare a mass lecture with 100 students with a tutorial with 30 students, of course you can apply more interactive teaching methods in the tutorial. How can I apply interactive teaching methods in a large class?'*
- FG07(02) *'More and more students are taking my class and it is difficult to handle. It is impossible to talk with my students individually and follow their learning process. It induces a crazy workload.'*

### **5.5.3 Low Occupational Prestige of Hospitality Jobs**

The low occupational prestige of hospitality jobs is a challenge for hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The focus group participants revealed that hospitality work had such low prestige in the Chinese community. This finding is consistent with previous studies of occupational prestige in Chinese culture. Wan et al. (2014) found that the perceived social status of the hospitality occupation was a key factor in students' career choice and perceived prospects of a career in the hospitality industry, while salary expectations did not significantly affect their career choice. Chinese hospitality students with high career prospects are likely to commit to the hospitality industry regardless of the salary levels (Wan et al., 2014). Given the strong influence of collectivism in Chinese culture, the level of social pressure is higher, and students tend to choose the occupations with higher social status and

not the tourism or hospitality occupation (Wu, 2013). As hospitality jobs are perceived as less prestigious jobs, high quality students often hesitate to choose hospitality education as their major subject for their higher education. This also creates a challenge for hospitality educators to change the community's perception of the hospitality industry and of hospitality education.

*Examples of quotes:*

FG01(A1) *'Many people have the wrong perception that hospitality education is not professional education. So, I come forward to show that hospitality education is professional education.'*

FG06(F1) *'Given the strong influence of Chinese culture, service jobs are less prestigious jobs. The parents always ask, 'Will my kids need to work as servers after graduation?' I have also heard from students that their parents don't want them to work in the industry but want them to pursue a Master's degree after graduation instead. What we do to deal with the problem is a challenge that hospitality educators in Hong Kong face.'*

FG06(F1) *'I told my friend that I am now teaching hospitality management at XXX university. My friend responded immediately, 'Ha! I don't need to study at university if I want to do service-related jobs, do I?' People think that hospitality is not a profession at all!'*

FG07(01) *'You can see the cultural problem in the university student intake. None of the top students in the public examination choose hospitality education; they choose medicine for their university study.'*

#### 5.5.4 Student Values

The focus group participants also indicated that students had unclear long-term goals. Students focus too much on short-term outcomes such as grades and the starting salary of their first job. For example, students are overly concerned with grades yet overlook the meaning of those grades and the importance of knowledge exploration. It is difficult to change student values, and training students up for the industry has become a challenge. In fact, university students' expectations significantly influence their engagement in learning and their interactions with their educators (Buckner and Strawser, 2016; Kahu, 2013; Siu et al., 2014). As university students have different expectations of their university learning, it is difficult for educators to manage their students. Learning-oriented students tend to proactively communicate with their educators to enhance their self-efficacy. They are self-motivated to learn more through interacting with their educators (Goldman and Martin, 2014). However, grade-oriented students communicate with their educators mainly for participatory and sycophantic reasons (Goldman and Martin, 2014). They communicate with their instructors mainly because they want to obtain comments from their educators about their course work. Goldman and Martin (2014) found that grade-oriented students could prohibit the development of their self-efficacy because they focused on their academic entitlement while overlooking the importance of their learning experiences. It has become a challenge for educators to motivate and enhance grade-oriented students' self-efficacy and engagement.

*Examples of quotes:*

FG05(01)      *'I have high expectations of our hospitality students. I require my students to attend class on time because the industry is seeking these kinds of people. Students must have this attitude towards their work. So, determining how to train up the attitudes of the students is a challenge for me. I found that the current students seldom respect the industry at all. For*

*example, they always come to class late and are even late in placement. The students have no interest in any activities without any grade contribution.'*

FG07(01) *'The students pay too much attention to their subject grades because the grades will be printed in their transcripts. They need to present their transcripts to others in the future. However, they seldom think that the grades are actually indicators of their knowledge in the subject area. Unfortunately, they are concerned about grades rather than their knowledge gain.'*

FG07(02) *'The students have no interest in those class activities without any grade contribution.'*

FG06(01) *'The values of students are another challenge. The students always ask about the starting salaries of hotel jobs. Is money the most important thing in life?'*

FG06(02) *'As a hospitality educator, my challenge is to manage the gap between students' expectations of hospitality jobs and the reality. To manage the gap, my role is to tell the students about the importance of hard work as junior staff members and ask them to not care too much about salary. The work experience is essential for their career enhancement in the future.'*

### **5.5.5 The Need for Continuous Knowledge Enhancement**

The need for continuous knowledge enhancement is another challenge for hospitality educators. The participants identified continuous knowledge enhancement as a challenge. As the hospitality industry is continuously changing,

they must continuously enhance their knowledge to ensure they can transfer the latest and most useful knowledge to their students. To meet the expectations of their organisations, students and hospitality industry partners, they must continually enhance and update their knowledge. Higher education is an industry with continuous technological innovation and knowledge enhancement characteristics (Leiber, 2018). It is based on knowledge transfer through research, teaching, interdisciplinary knowledge transfer and even continuous educator learning (Leiber, 2018). Furthermore, technology innovation forces educators and institutions to adopt changes in education style. For instance, hospitality students expect the use of multimedia in their university learning experience. Consequently, hospitality institutions and educators are expected to learn and adopt new educational technology to enhance their students' learning experiences (Lee et al., 2016).

*Examples of quotes:*

FG05(03)      *'As an educator, we need to learn a lot of things. E-learning has been a learning trend norm. So, we need to learn! We also need to pursue PhDs, learn how to do research and use new teaching methods. There are many things to learn.'*

FG07(02)      *'Even when you have a PhD, you still need to pursue other knowledge/skills advancement to keep your knowledge up to date. The world is changing and we need to receive new knowledge continuously to provide the most up-to-date knowledge and skills to students.'*

FG07(01)      *'The industry is constantly changing. When you have been teaching for 10 years, your knowledge may be out-dated. So, making sure your knowledge aligns with industry development is a kind of challenge.'*



FG07(04) *'The business world is changing every day. For example, the marketing strategies adopted in the industry are changing. In the hospitality industry, tourist practices and behaviour also keep changing. So, we need to keep learning.*

#### **5.5.6 Collaboration with the Hospitality Industry**

The participants also mentioned the challenge of collaborating with hospitality industry partners. They pointed out that their role was not only that of educator but also that of a middle person to build up communication between students and industry employers so that employers have ideas of what the students expect to gain in their career development. They must help the hospitality sectors to improve and modify their employment package and their training programmes to improve the image of the hospitality industry. This is consistent with previous studies of career development of hospitality educators. As mentioned in Section 2.6.3, hospitality educators are expected to collaborate with the industry closely so that they can provide realistic information about hospitality industry career development to students (Richardson and Thomas, 2012; Schoffstall et al., 2013). They are also expected to provide constructive recommendations for the industry to overcome contemporary challenges (Kachniewska and Para, 2017). To achieve this, educators must make extra effort and work closely with hospitality practitioners to match students up with the hospitality industry.

#### *Examples of quotes:*

FG06(01) *'As a hospitality educator, we have limited power and cannot change the whole industry practice. However, we still need to tell the industry partners how they can attract people to stay in the industry. The problem with the industry is not a lack of new joiners but high turnover. The industry cannot retain the people. As a hospitality educator, what can we do? ... We need to think about it.'*

FG07(01) *'The attitude of hospitality employers will affect the growth of hospitality education. Hospitality jobs are always perceived as being less prestigious, having long working hours and offering low salary jobs. ... If they were willing to change the employment packages, it could change the perception of hospitality jobs and make more people willing to work in the industry. We play an important role in letting the industry know and asking them to change. It is not easy. ... It is very difficult!'*

FG07(02) *'Our role is very important. We need to work as the middleman. We need to tell current employers such as human resources directors about student expectations. We also need to tell students about the reality of hospitality career development. The students should work hard as junior staff to gain more experience and equip themselves better for future career enhancement.'*

### **5.5.7 Research**

Another challenge for hospitality educators is research. The focus group participants pointed out that research requirements were put in place not by their schools but by the whole industry. Research output, including publication and funding, has become a standard guideline for promotion in the hospitality education industry. This is consistent with previous studies of research work. In the past decades, hospitality education has developed from vocational-oriented to academic-oriented (Airey et al., 2015). To gain international recognition, hospitality institutions place great emphasis on their research outputs. Consequently, the hospitality educators' research outputs have become important criteria for their career enhancement in the hospitality education industry and a challenge they must therefore face (Airey et al., 2015).

*Examples of quotes:*

FG05(01) *'It is difficult to develop my career nowadays. I need to learn and do research to develop my career in education.'*

FG05(02) *'Research is a hidden requirement. If you want to survive in this industry, you have to do it.'*

FG06(01) *'Other than research publications, research funding is a requirement for my contract renewal or promotion. That means I will be terminated if I cannot fulfil one of the two requirements.'*

FG07(01) *'There is no black and white policy regarding the research requirements for educators. However, if I want to get a promotion or look for job advancement, I need to show my research performance at the school.'*

FG07(03) *'The research pressure at my school is not high. However, when you view the hospitality education industry as a whole, research is very important for your career advancement. Regardless of whether your school asks you to do research, you still have to do it.'*

## **5.6 Future challenges**

The hospitality business environment is continually changing. To cope with the changes, hospitality educators may face new challenges in the future. Therefore, on top of the current challenges they faced, the participants were asked about their thoughts on future challenges.

### 5.6.1 Role in Student Development

Hospitality educators in Hong Kong are concerned about their role in their students' development. The thoughts of the students keep changing. The focus group participants showed concern for their roles in and contributions to their students' learning development. Technology allows students to access and gain knowledge through various on-line channels easily. Therefore, the participants thought they should not only be knowledge contributors, but also do something to meet the students' expectations and help turn them into talented graduates. Thus, educators are challenged by determining how to meet students' expectations and how to equip them to be ready for the industry.

The participants interestingly realised the change in teachers' role in the learning progress of students, a change highlighted by previous studies. Students' expectations are increasing, and the educators' role is not limited to knowledge sharing; rather, they are expected to influence their students through engagement, an authentic attitude and sharing and caring (Fossland, 2016). Educators should not expect students to be engaged in class, but must be engaged with students in the learning process (Zepke et al., 2014). Technology is not a replacement for educators. Instead, technology can be an effective tool for educators to enhance their students' learning experience (Fossland, 2016). For instance, technology can help educators to stimulate their students' learning and motivate them to participate in in-class activities in large classes (Fossland, 2016). However, determining how to adopt technology effectively and properly is a challenge for educators.

#### *Examples of quotes:*

FG06(01)      *'In the future, the students will expect not only to acquire academic knowledge, but also to achieve all-round development and be equipped to work in the industry. It is because the knowledge is easily accessed on-line. So, what*

can we do for the students? We need to think it through carefully.'

FG06(03) *'Because of the popularity of higher education, the diversity of student ability has increased. Some of them are knowledgeable but some of them are not. So, determining how to design the course context and how to develop/equip them will be big challenges.'*

### **5.6.2 Uncertainty about China's Policy and Economy**

Another future challenge faced by hospitality educators is societal uncertainty of Hong Kong. The hospitality industry is a major pillar of Hong Kong's economy. Aligning with the growth of the hospitality industry, hospitality education has developed rapidly in Hong Kong. However, the focus group participants indicated that Hong Kong hospitality and tourism industry strongly relied on the Chinese market. If any travel policy change or economic downturn were to occur in China, the hotel and tourism industry would be seriously affected. Consequently, hospitality education in Hong Kong would be affected.

In fact, both hospitality higher education and general higher education development in Hong Kong are closely related to Chinese policy development. In the mid-1980s, the People's Republic of China aimed to catch up in its economic development and modernisation (Xi, 2016). To do so, China needed a lot of educated and talented people to support the rapid growth of its economy. Taking the US as a role model, China started to promote higher education popularisation and provide grants for qualified students to pursue degrees and even higher qualifications overseas (Hölttä and Cai, 2012; Xi, 2016). Hong Kong universities are favourable for mainland Chinese students because the university programmes are internationally recognised (Hsu, 2015).

In 2003, China proposed a new policy, the 'Belt and Road Initiative', to further encourage economic globalisation (Liu, 2015). In support of the Belt and Road Initiative, the Hong Kong government committed to strengthening its position as an education hub and promoting higher education opportunities with Belt and Road regional members (The Hong Kong Government, 2017). Hong Kong hospitality and tourism education is a part of the Belt and Road policy. It aims to help Belt and Road regional members to develop their tourism and hospitality industries (The Hong Kong Government, 2017). It favours the growth of hospitality education in Hong Kong. However, at the same time, it shows that hospitality education growth is highly dependent on Chinese policy. If any change were to occur, it might induce a strong wave in Hong Kong higher education development, including Hong Kong hospitality education.

*Examples of quotes:*

- FG06(01)      *'The Hong Kong economy and hospitality industry in Hong Kong are significantly influenced by the Chinese government. For example, the Chinese government suddenly stopped the multi-entry permit for mainland people and constrained the individual travel scheme. The number of mainland visitors traveling to Hong Kong has dropped significantly. Compared with the situation of Hong Kong prior to 1997, there has been a big change.'*
- FG06(02)      *'More than 70% of inbound visitors are from mainland China. The business of the hotel and tourism sectors has dropped significantly since the Chinese government stopped the individual travel scheme.'*
- FG07(01)      *'The future challenge will be the societal uncertainty of Hong Kong. If the Chinese economic situation worsens, I can*

*foresee less and less people coming to Hong Kong for travel. Then, fewer students will choose hospitality as their study field.'*

## 5.7 Discussion of Focus Group Findings

In summary, 'self-fulfilment in education work', 'role significance', 'job autonomy', 'transparent career enhancement criteria', 'social status of educators' and 'long-term job security' are the factors contributing to hospitality educators in Hong Kong choosing hospitality education as their occupation. Meanwhile, 'work load', 'less prestigious image of hospitality work', 'implementation of interactive teaching in a large class', 'student values', 'the needs of continuous knowledge enhancement', 'collaboration with hospitality industry partners' and 'research' are the challenges faced by hospitality educators in Hong Kong. On top of the current challenges, they foresee that they may need to face future challenges including determining their future role in students' development and their 'uncertainty about China's policy and economy'. Based on the findings of the focus group interviews, the key antecedents of hospitality educators' occupational commitment can be identified.

In the focus group interviews, the participants pointed out that they felt satisfied when they gained appreciation from students for their teaching. They also believed that they were responsible for changing societal perception, as society perceived hospitality work as non-professional work. Their commitment to hospitality education work was induced by their intrinsic motivation. They felt satisfied to be hospitality educators because they could inspire people through research and teaching. Studies have interpreted this as self-actualisation at work. As mentioned in the literature review, self-actualisation needs in education work are interpreted as educators' psychological and spiritual needs (Yang, 2012). The perceived meaningfulness of their job induces an intrinsic motivation for hospitality educators, and they gain self-fulfilment through their work. Eventually, their self-actualisation needs in work are satisfied. Therefore, **self-actualisation at work** is recognised as a key antecedent of hospitality educators' occupational commitment.

Moreover, the participants mentioned job characteristics at length. One of these characteristics is task significance. In the focus group interviews, the participants pointed out that they played an important role in the development of hospitality and the hospitality education industry through inspiring teaching and quality research. As their role significantly influences others, including their students, colleagues, organisations and hospitality industry partners, they were committed to the hospitality education industry. The significance of their role provided a reason for them to join and remain in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. This fits the concept of task significance in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model, which refers to the extent to which the job is perceived to make a significant contribution to or have a significant impact on the lives or work of other people. As educators believe that their job performance will make a significant contribution to the hospitality industry and their students, they are committed to performing well in their jobs.

Furthermore, the participants mentioned that they could manage their work and personal matters at the same time and determine the method, place and time to complete their work. This can be interpreted as **job autonomy**, which is related to the degree of the employee's capability and granted freedom to determine his or her way to accomplish work tasks (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Spector, 1997). Although some of the focus group participants raised concerns about their teaching schedule, such as that they sometimes needed to teach evening classes and spend plenty of time fulfilling their job requirements, they commonly agreed that the flexibility and high job autonomy of hospitality education jobs attracted them to join and remain in the industry.

Feedback from job and transparent career enhancement requirements are another reason why hospitality educators join and remain in the hospitality education industry. In the interviews, the participants discussed the promotion system in the industry. They stated that the career enhancement criteria were well known and included research publications and student feedback on teaching.



Although the requirements for each criterion differ across institutions, the criteria for promotion are very similar. Some institutions may be more concerned about research publications while others are more concerned about student feedback. However, the criteria are similar. As the results of student feedback provided every semester and publication numbers are easy to count, hospitality educators can easily assess their performance and determine whether they may receive a promotion. This fits the concept of **feedback from job** in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model, which refers to the degree of information received from a job regarding the effectiveness of the employee's performance (Na-Nan and Pukkeeree, 2013). As educators can gain sufficient information from their jobs about the career enhancement criteria, they consider it a fair game. They can evaluate their performance and estimate the possibility for career enhancement, which makes them feel satisfied in pursuing careers in the hospitality education industry.

Moreover, the participants discussed the demands of their jobs. On the one hand, they were required to have research publications. On the other hand, they were expected to provide quality teaching to their students. They also had to collaborate with colleagues and industry partners, and had some administrative duties assigned by their institutions. Therefore, they were concerned about their workload. However, the participants also required a variety of skills to fulfil their duties. Based on the focus group findings, they needed to have good research skills, rich knowledge of their taught subjects, good teaching techniques and excellent communication skills to meet their job requirements. This can be interpreted as **job skill variety** in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model. Job skill variety refers to the skills and professional knowledge needed for and involved in the occupation (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). The need for various skills to handle their job duties makes hospitality educators feel stressed. This fits the concept of job skill variety. As 'job autonomy', 'task significance', 'job skill variety' and 'feedback from work' are related to job characteristics, **job characteristics** are a key antecedent of hospitality educators' occupational commitment in this

study; therefore, this study adopts Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model.

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, hospitality educators must have good research skills, rich knowledge of their taught subjects, good teaching techniques and excellent communication skills to meet their job requirements. In the focus group interviews, some of the participants indicated that they encountered challenges arising from the expectations or demands of their organisations and their needs for career development and knowledge enhancement. However, although the demands from various parties (institutions, students and the hospitality industry) are a challenge for hospitality educators, some of the participants felt satisfied and gained self-fulfilment through their work. Furthermore, some of the participants thought that their work significantly influenced both their students and the industry, so they were committed to being hospitality educators. This implies that the demand from various parties can be both a challenge and an attraction for hospitality educators. This may be related to the expectation gap between the attributes of the occupation and the career needs of the educators. When hospitality educators' expectations fit with the attributes of the occupation, they feel satisfied and perceive the demands from various parties as an attraction of hospitality education as an occupation. In contrast, when they do not expect to handle the demands from various parties, it becomes a challenge for them. Studies have interpreted this gap as perceived person-job fit. Person-job fit is generally defined as the level of congruence or compatibility between an individual and his or her job (Edwards, 1991). If the employee has a poor person-job fit, he or she perceives the job as having a higher workload (Taylor et al., 2015). Therefore, **person-job fit** is identified as the third key antecedent of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Furthermore, the participants voiced concerns about the change in students' values and expectations. They found that the students were able to gain knowledge easily through various channels such as YouTube. Classroom learning

and schools are no longer the only ways for students to gain knowledge. This raises educators' concerns about their role in students' learning. Students' values have also changed. The participants pointed out that the students were too concerned with their grades and overlooked the importance of the knowledge gained in class. The participants were concerned about how to enhance students' learning effectively in school. The interactive teaching method is a good way for educators to enhance students' learning, but it is always limited by class size. Furthermore, they are expected to pursue knowledge enhancement continuously and collaborate with hospitality industry partners to provide quality teaching to their students. All of these concerns can be understood as 'impact concerns' in the education literature. Impact concerns refer to teachers' apprehensive concerns about the impact of their teaching on students, such as motivating students to learn and handling student diversity (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004; Teachout and McKoy, 2010). Based on the focus group findings, the participants were greatly concerned about the impact of their teaching on students. Therefore, **impact concerns** are recognised as a key antecedent of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

In addition, the participants indicated that they engaged in hospitality education because it was highly respected by society. The social status of hospitality educators was much higher in Hong Kong than in other countries and much higher than that of hospitality practice in the industry. This finding is consistent with the literature review. On the one hand, hospitality educators are highly respected by society because of traditional Chinese culture. On the other hand, Hong Kong society relegates hospitality education as non-mainstream education because service jobs are usually perceived as non-professional and low-skilled occupations. This attracts many hospitality practitioners to join the hospitality education industry. However, after educators join the hospitality education industry, they face a great challenge in society's perceptions of tourism and hospitality careers. As the Chinese people always perceive hospitality jobs as non-professional and less prestigious, it is difficult to attract a young generation to pursue higher education

in hospitality and tourism management, as they commonly perceive hospitality management study as unnecessary, especially at the higher education level. Consequently, hospitality educators find it difficult to train up quality students for the hospitality industry in the Chinese community. As occupational prestige is particularly important for Chinese people, perceived **occupational prestige** is a key antecedent of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Some of the participants in the focus group interviews mentioned work-life balance and work-family conflict. They thought they were unable to fulfil their job requirements within the normal working hours, such as 44-48 hours per week, even with a flexible work schedule. Therefore, they might need to sacrifice their family time to fulfil their job requirements. However, some of the other participants disagreed with this argument. They thought they could manage their work, which made it easier to manage their family lives. Some of the participants perceived work-family conflict as a challenge, while others thought their job flexibility reduced the conflict. This shows that work-family conflict may not always significantly negatively impact hospitality educators' commitment.

The influence of work-family conflict may vary for hospitality educators in relation to life cycle. When educators get older, they may become more experienced at managing their work-family balance and reduce the conflict. As the focus group participants did not fully agree that work-family conflict was a key factor in their commitment, it is not included in the research model used in this study. However, it provides insight into the individual differences in hospitality educators' commitment. The participants also mentioned that they wanted to contribute to the hospitality industry by transferring their experience and knowledge to students. Work experience may have a certain impact on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Therefore, we propose that work experience in both the hospitality and hospitality education industries has a moderating effect on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

## **5.8 Summary of Chapter 5**

This chapter discusses the focus group findings. In summary, the findings show that 'self-fulfilment in education work', 'role significance', 'job autonomy', 'transparent career enhancement criteria', 'social status of educators' and 'long-term job security' are the factors that contribute to hospitality educators retaining and developing their careers in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. Meanwhile, 'workload', 'implementation of interactive teaching in a large class', 'low occupational prestige of hospitality jobs', 'student values', 'the needs of continuous knowledge enhancement', 'collaboration with hospitality industry partners' and 'research' are the challenges faced by hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Hospitality educators perceive that they may face the challenges of determining their 'role in students' development' and their 'uncertainty about China's policy and economy' in the near future.

This chapter ends by identifying and discussing the key antecedents of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong: 'self-actualisation at work', 'perceived occupational prestige', 'perceived person-job fit', 'impact concerns' and 'job characteristics'. The next chapter develops the hypotheses and presents a refined research model. It also presents the instrument development process.

## **6. Chapter 6 – Research Model and Instrument Development**

### **6.1 Introduction to Chapter 6**

Based on the findings of the focus group interviews and literature search, five antecedents of occupational commitment of hospitality educators have been identified and the research model has been developed. In this study, the questionnaire is formulated by adopting the instruments of all of the variables identified in previous research. However, the published variable instruments may not effectively measure the variables in this study due to differing factors such as respondent backgrounds and cultures. Therefore, to validate and ensure the instruments are fit to measure all of the variables in this study, exploratory factor analysis, a reliability test and confirmatory factor analysis are conducted. The exploratory factor analysis and reliability test are conducted in the pilot test and confirmatory factor analysis and hierarchical regression analysis are conducted for the main data collection. Chapter 6 presents the results of both the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses and the questionnaire development and validation processes.

### **6.2 Hypothesis Development**

Based on the findings of the focus group interviews and literature search, five key antecedents of occupational commitment have been identified: self-actualisation at work, job characteristics, perceived occupational image, perceived person-job fit and impact concerns. As mentioned in Chapter 1, this study adopts the occupational commitment model proposed by Meyer et al. (1993) and tests the three dimensions of Hong Kong hospitality educators' occupational commitment: affective, continuance and normative. The study's hypotheses are developed based on the occupational commitment model and the five key antecedents identified in the qualitative part of the study.

### Self-actualisation at work

In the focus group interviews, the participants pointed out that they felt satisfied when they gained appreciation from students for their teaching. They were happy to be hospitality educators because they could inspire people through research and teaching. This study interprets this behaviour as self-actualisation at work. The importance of an educator's sense of self-actualisation at work has been mentioned in the education research. The need for self-actualisation at education work can also be interpreted as educators' psychological and spiritual needs (Yang, 2012).

Goldstein (1940) first used the term 'self-actualisation', identifying its basic drive as one of three main characteristics of man. The other two characteristics are the occurrence of anxiety based on subjective experience and the inability of the mentally sick to grasp the abstract (Goldstein, 1940). Self-actualisation is defined as the continual change in tension of a person that enables him or her to actualise his or her further activities according to his or her nature (Seeman, 1948). Simply put, people naturally actualise their potential without any external influence.

Maslow (1943; 2013) further interpreted the term 'self-actualisation' as the desire for self-fulfilment. It is the tendency for an individual to become actualised in what he or she is potentially. It can also be interpreted as the process of developing an individual's potential (Maslow, 1973). Self-actualisation is the highest category in Maslow's hierarchy of needs model. Maslow (1943, 1970) proposed a hierarchy of needs with five categories, including physiological needs, safety and security, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualisation. An individual's needs move from basic survival needs to higher categories. When basic survival needs have been fulfilled, an individual will seek the fulfilment of a higher category of needs and become more intrinsic and reflective in nature. Maslow believed that everyone had a potential to reach. Self-actualisation is an on-going process of personal fulfilment (Maslow, 1973).

Based on the definition of self-actualisation (Maslow, 1973), the term 'self-actualisation at work' can be elaborated as the desire for self-fulfilment at work. Scholars have well recognised the importance of self-actualisation at work. Maslow (1973) pointed out that if individuals did not perceive their jobs as meaningful and purposeful, they could not go through the self-actualisation process and thus could not work up to their professional capacity. Individuals can be motivated by their self-actualisation needs, and their work is a means for them to fulfil those needs (Agarwal, 1993).

Educators who achieve psychological and spiritual fulfilment have a strong sense of belonging and a strong sense of responsibility for education work (Yang, 2012). In contrast, their self-actualisation needs in work cannot be fulfilled through their working environment, which may induce low organisational commitment and work alienation (Agarwal, 1993), and eventually their activeness in and enthusiasm for teaching work may deteriorate (Yang, 2012). Roth et al. (2007) also found that educators' autonomous motivation was positively related to their sense of self-actualisation at work to induce their autonomy-supportive teaching. The concept of autonomous motivation is similar to that of intrinsic motivation. Employees with strong autonomous motivation tend to perform with volition (Gagné, 2009; Hon, 2011). As educators with strong autonomous motivation tend to conduct their teaching activities with volition, they are likely to gain self-fulfilment through teaching. Thus, the following hypotheses are made.

H1a: Self-actualisation at work is significantly related to hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment.

H1b: Self-actualisation at work is significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.

H1c: Self-actualisation at work is significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.



### *Perceived occupational prestige*

The focus group findings show that educators engage in hospitality education because the social status of hospitality education is much higher than that of hospitality practice in the industry. The social status of hospitality educators is much higher in Hong Kong than in other countries. This status is interpreted as occupational prestige in this study. Occupational prestige refers to societal perceptions of job power and authority and thus reflects the social standing of a particular occupation (Korman et al., 1983). Given the strong sense of collectivism in Chinese culture, occupational prestige is significantly correlated with job commitment (Lu et al., 2002). In the Chinese community, perceived occupational prestige is associated with career commitment and turnover intention (Zhou et al., 2009). Lim et al. (2000) found that perceived occupational image was positively associated with organisational commitment and job satisfaction, but negatively associated with the intention to leave an organisation or an occupation. In particular, they mentioned that occupational image could have a stronger link to normative commitment than to other types of commitment. Jacob et al. (2017) indicated that the educators in the Chinese community with higher perceived occupational prestige enjoyed a higher degree of occupational commitment. This exhibits the strong link between perceived occupational prestige and occupational commitment. As educators are highly respected by the Chinese community, educators with higher perceived occupational prestige enjoy a higher degree of occupational commitment (Lu et al., 2002). Based on the aforementioned arguments, the following hypotheses are made.

H2a: Perceived occupational prestige is significantly related to hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment.

H2b: Perceived occupational prestige is significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.

H2c: Perceived occupational prestige is significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.

### Impact concerns

In the focus group interviews, the educators emphasised their concerns about the changes in students' values and expectations. Their concerns can be understood as 'impact concerns' in the education literature. The concept of impact concerns is taken from teacher concerns theory. Proposed by Fuller (1969), it holds that teachers experience three stages of concerns in their career development: self-concerns, task concerns and impact concerns (Fuller and Bown, 1975). Self-concerns refer to teachers' concerns about their ability to perform well in the school environment, and task concerns refer to their concerns about their daily teaching duties and teaching constraints such as class size and a lack of resources (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004).

Impact concerns refer to teachers' apprehensive concerns about the impact of their teaching on students, such as motivating students to learn and handling student diversity (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004; van de Grift et al., 2014). Impact concerns rank as the most crucial of the three kinds of concerns according to in-service teachers (Cakmak, 2008). Fuller's (1969) teacher concerns theory contends that pre-service teachers focus on self-concerns and task concerns but eventually shift their concerns towards the impact of teaching on students through their career development process. Cakmak (2008) found that of the three concerns, in-service teachers ranked impact concerns as the most important. Fuller's (1969) teacher concerns theory contends that pre-service teachers focus on self-concerns and task concerns but eventually shift to concerns about the impact of their teaching on students in their career development process. However, Borich (2013) pointed out that Fuller and Brown's (1975) sequence of concern stages was idealistic, and that self-task-impact concerns may not represent a linear progression in teachers' career development process. This means that teachers may have more than one concern at the same time in their teaching career process. Campbell and Thompson (2007) found that pre-service teachers ranked impact concerns as their priority among the three concerns. Teachout and McKoy (2010) tested the difference in concerns among teachers with different years of teaching

experience and found that teachers with various teaching experience ranked impact concerns significantly higher than other concerns. Regardless of whether Fuller and Brown's (1975) sequence of concern stages is applicable to the education industry, impact concerns are important for all teachers with different teaching experience.

Impact concerns is closely related to job satisfaction. Educators with high impact concerns have low levels of job satisfaction and may affect their working attitudes (Dunn et al., 2013; Huber, 2011). Given the evidence of the strong relationship between occupational commitment and job satisfaction in previous studies (e.g. Alniaçik et al., 2013; Aydin et al., 2013; Buonocore and Russo, 2013; McCarthy et al., 2014), a meaningful relationship is believed to exist between impact concerns and occupational commitment. As such, the following hypotheses are made.

H3a: Impact concerns are significantly related to the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

H3b: Impact concerns are significantly related to the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

H3c: Impact concerns are significantly related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

### *Perceived person-job fit*

In the focus group interviews, many educators indicated that they had encountered challenges arising from the expectations or demands of their organisations and their needs for career development and knowledge enhancement. Evidently, an expectation gap exists between the attributes of educators' occupations and career needs. Studies have interpreted such a gap as perceived person-job fit.

According to person-environment interaction theory, person-job fit is one of the four dimensions of person-environment fit. Person-job fit is generally defined as the level of congruence or compatibility an individual has with his or her job

(Edwards, 1991). Person-job fit consists of two types of fit: need-supply fit and demand-ability fit. Need-supply fit denotes the degree of fit or congruence between an individual's work-related needs and the attributes of his or her job (Taylor et al., 2015). This fit corresponds to the satisfaction variable in investment theory. Employees experience poor need-supply fit when their work-related needs are not fulfilled by their work environment (Edwards, 2008; French et al., 1982; Kristof, 1996). Work-related needs include both intrinsic and extrinsic needs. These needs can be fulfilled by intrinsic or extrinsic rewards in the environment (Taylor et al., 2015). Examples of extrinsic work-related needs include salary, promotion opportunities and job security. The need for meaningful, broadly defined work is an example of intrinsic work-related needs (Benoliel and Somech, 2010).

Conversely, demand-ability fit refers to the degree of fit or congruence between occupation requirements and the employee's abilities, such as knowledge and skills (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Maynard and Joseph, 2008). Employees experience poor demand-ability fit (high demand-ability conflict) when employees' capability is insufficient to fulfil the occupation requirements, such as education, knowledge, experience and skills qualifications (Edwards, 2008; Maynard and Parfyonova, 2013). Expectations from organisations and collaboration with colleagues and industry partners can also be categorised as occupation requirements or job demands. Educators with a great level of perceived person-job fit have great job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Maynard and Joseph, 2008; Ru, 2012). Specifically, perceived demand-ability fit is an important antecedent for organisational and occupational commitment (Bogler and Nir, 2014).

Ru (2012) pointed out that the educators with a greater level of perceived person-job fit have greater job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Maynard and Joseph (2008) also found that educators' perceived person-job fit was strongly related to their job satisfaction and commitment. Bogler and Nir (2014) specifically investigated the relationship between educators' perceived demand-ability fit and

found that perceived demand-ability fit played an important antecedent of both organisational and occupational commitment. Thus, this study proposes that person-job fit is closely related to the occupational commitment of educators. Thus, the following hypotheses are made.

H4a: Perceived person–job fit is significantly related to the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

H4b: Perceived person–job fit is significantly related to the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

H4c: Perceived person–job fit is significantly related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

#### *Job characteristics*

In the focus group interviews, the educators talked at length about job characteristics such as workload, transparent career enhancement criteria and feedback from job, job autonomy and collaboration with colleagues. Therefore, job characteristics are a key antecedent of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics theory divides core job characteristics into five dimensions: job skill variety, task identity, task significance, job autonomy and feedback from job. Employees tend to have a low occupational commitment and a high intention to withdraw from their occupations when they frequently encounter negative work experiences and interpersonal interactions (Grandey and Cropanzano, 1999). Therefore, job characteristics are closely associated with hospitality educators' occupational commitment.

This study adopts Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job characteristics theory. The term 'job characteristics' was originally defined as the content and nature of job tasks (Spector, 1997). Later, the core components of job characteristics were further modified and consisted of five core characteristics: job skill variety, task identity, task significance, job autonomy and feedback from job (Hackman and

Oldham, 1980; Spector, 1997). Job skill variety refers to the skills and professional knowledge required by and involved in the occupation (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Sometimes, a variety of skills and knowledge is required to fulfil the occupation requirement. For example, hospitality educators are required to have various skills such as research skills, professional knowledge of their teaching area and good communication skills. This implies that hospitality education places a high demand on job skill variety. Task identity refers to the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Educators' work is difficult to divide into pieces. For example, they provide quality teaching to their students and monitor their learning progress. Teaching and student learning monitoring is also difficult to quantify and divide into pieces of work. Task significance refers to an individual having a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organisation or in the external environment (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Task significance is about the consequences of the work. For example, educators' main duty is to provide quality teaching, and their teaching quality directly and significantly affects both their students and their colleagues. In this case, education work has a high level of task significance. Job autonomy is related to the degree of the employee's capability and the freedom he or she is granted to determine a way to accomplish work tasks (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Spector, 1997). If the occupation allows the employee to determine when and how to complete his or her work, it has a high level of job autonomy. Finally, feedback from job refers to the degree of information received from the job regarding the effectiveness of the employee's performance (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Na-Nan and Pukkeeree, 2013). Hackman and Oldham (1980) pointed out that employees could experience the meaningfulness of their jobs through job skill variety, task identity and task significance. Employees can experience work responsibility outcomes through job autonomy and can understand the actual results of their work. By managing these job characteristics, internal work motivation, job satisfaction and work effectiveness can be enhanced.

The focus group participants revealed that they felt satisfied about the flexible work. This fits the concept of job autonomy, which is related to the degree of the employee's capability and the freedom he or she is granted to determine his or her way to accomplish work tasks (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Spector, 1997). They also could determine the way, place and time to complete their work that made them enjoy and commit to their job. Therefore, it is believed that occupational commitment is positively correlated with autonomy (Lee et al., 2000). Among job characteristics, job autonomy can induce intrinsic motivation, as it can positively activate the employee's critical psychological states (Pierce et al., 2009) and eventually induce intrinsic motivation and affective commitment (Galletta et al., 2011). On this basis, the following hypotheses are made.

H5a: Job autonomy is significantly related to hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment.

H5b: Job autonomy is significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.

H5c: Job autonomy is significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.

The participants also felt satisfied with the transparent career enhancement criteria and that their work performance could be easily assessed based on criteria such as number of research publications. As they can gain sufficient information about their job performance, they can assess their career enhancement paths in the hospitality education industry. This makes them feel happy to pursue their careers in the industry. It fits the concept of feedback from job in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model, which refers to the degree of information received from the job regarding the effectiveness of the employee's performance (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Na-Nan and Pukkeeree, 2013). Feedback from job is widely recognised as a factor influencing intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction (e.g., Battistelli et al., 2013; Emmert and Taher, 1992; Hays and Hill, 2001). Hospitality educators can evaluate the quality of their work performance through

the information gained from their jobs. They can also improve their work performance accordingly. This motivates educators to perform well and commit to the hospitality education industry. On this basis, the following hypotheses are made.

H6a: Feedback from job is significantly related to the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

H6b: Feedback from job is significantly related to the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

H6c: Feedback from job is significantly related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

The focus group interview participants mentioned that they played an important role in the development of hospitality and the hospitality education industry through inspiring teaching and quality research. This fits the concept of task significance, which refers to the extent that one's job is perceived as a significant contribution or impact on the lives or work of other people (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Task significance refers to how educators' work influences others, including their colleagues, organisations and society. If they think the task significance of their current occupation is unique and cannot be found in other occupations, their occupational commitment is high (Dunham et al., 1994). On this basis, the following hypotheses are made.

H7a: Task significance is significantly related to the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

H7b: Task significance is significantly related to the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

H7c: Task significance is significantly related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

Task identity is one of the five core characteristics of Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model. Task identity refers to the degree which a job



requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). It is recognised as an antecedent of job satisfaction and commitment (e.g., Bhuian and Mengue, 2002; Dubinsky and Skinner, 1984; Lin and Hsieh, 2002), perhaps because task identity allows employees to have better work control and evaluate their performance in identifiable pieces of work. Although the focus group participants did not mention task identity, they often mentioned job characteristics such as job autonomy, job skill variety and feedback from job and recognised task identity as a core job characteristic. Task identity may be a key antecedent of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Thus, the following hypotheses are made.

H8a: Task identity is significantly related to hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment.

H8b: Task identity is significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.

H8c: Task identity is significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.

Finally, the focus group participants felt that their institutions had increasing expectations for not only the quantity but also the quality of their teaching, research and service work. The quality of teaching, research and service work requires various skills. It can be interpreted as the variety of skills required from jobs according to Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics theory. Job skill variety is about the skills and professional knowledge needed by and involved in the occupation (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). It is believed that job skill variety is closely associated with occupational commitment (e.g., Dockel et al., 2006; Dunham et al., 1994). An occupation with a variety of high skills may make employees develop a sense of competency and thereby a sense of belonging (Dockel et al., 2006). Eventually, the employees commit to the occupation and pursue their competency enhancement in the industry. On this basis, the following hypotheses are made.

H9a: Job skill variety is significantly related to hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment.

H9b: Job skill variety is significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.

H9c: Job skill variety is significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.

### Work experiences

Based on social cognitive career theory, personal inputs such as work experience have direct and indirect impacts on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong (Lent et al., 2008). It is believed that individuals' work experience not only is closely associated with learning experience and self-efficacy expectations, but also has a moderating effect on the occupational commitment.

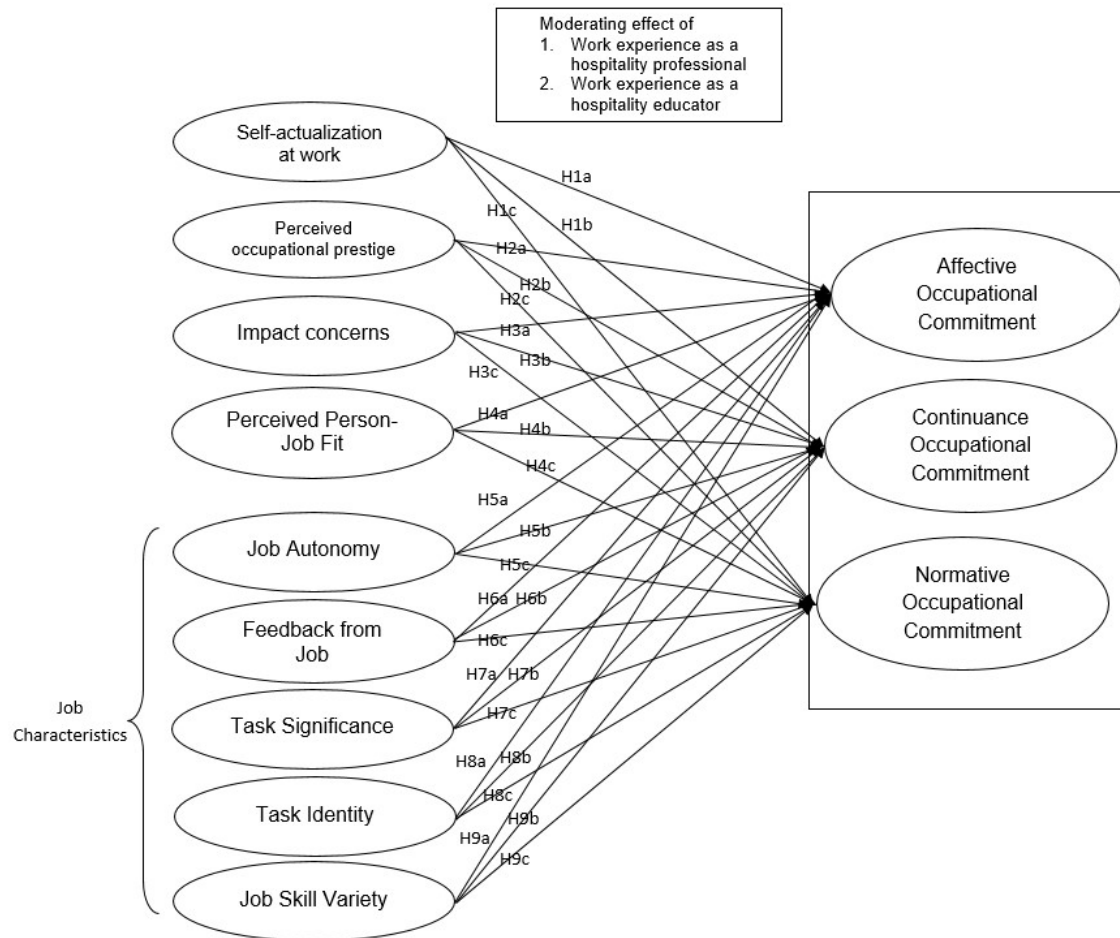
Hospitality education is closely related to the hospitality industry; it has a strong vocational element and is often geared towards educating and preparing students for professional positions in the sector (Wadongo et al., 2011). Hospitality educators are always expected to collaborate closely with the hospitality industry and train talented graduates with related technical and human skills to meet industry needs (Chan, 2011). For hospitality educators with previous experience in the hospitality industry before joining the hospitality education field, their experience is beneficial for them to fulfil the industry-related aspect of hospitality education. Based on this argument, this study proposes that hospitality educators' occupational commitment may be influenced by not only their work experience as hospitality educators but also their experience as hospitality professionals.

The relationship between work experience and organisational or occupational commitment has been evident in the research. According to Rusbult (1983) investment theory, work experience is a form of investment variable. When

employees remain in their occupation for a long time, their occupational commitment increases as their investment size increases. They may lose the value of their work experience if they change their occupation. The link between occupational commitment and work experience has been widely studied by commitment scholars (e.g., Klassen and Chiu, 2011; Tam et al., 2002; Yousaf et al., 2013). However, the relationship between work experience and commitment is contested and inconsistent. For instance, Tang et al. (2012) and Snape et al. (2008) suggested that employees' occupational commitment was closely related to the tenure of their occupations. In contrast, Lee et al. (2000) found a weak link between occupational commitment and occupation tenure. However, studies have consistently proved the moderating effect of experience on organisational commitment (e.g., Bennett et al., 2005; Hunter and Thatcher, 2007; Lee and Chang, 2013; Russ and McNeilly, 1995). On this basis, work experience is suggested to have a moderating effect on commitment but is not considered a key antecedent of commitment. Therefore, this study explores this link under the assumption that the work experience of hospitality educators as hospitality professionals and as hospitality educators moderates the relationship between occupational commitment and its antecedents.

Figure 6.1 presents the research model based on the aforementioned arguments.

***Figure 6-1: Research Model***



## 6.3 Instrument Development

### 6.3.1 Questionnaire Item Generation

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the pilot test questionnaire consisted of three main sections. The first section was designed to measure the level of the identified key antecedents. The short index of self-actualisation developed by Jones and Crandall (1986) was adopted to measure employees' levels of self-actualisation at work. The job diagnostic survey developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980) was applied to measure job characteristics. Furthermore, the teacher concern questionnaire developed by Meek (1996) was used to measure hospitality

educators' impact concerns. The person-job fit scale developed by Cable and DeRue (2002) was applied to measure person-job fit. Finally, the occupational prestige instrument developed by Lim et al. (2000) was used to measure occupational prestige. The second section was intended to measure the respondents' occupational commitment. The six-factor solution instrument developed by Meyer et al. (1993) was adopted to measure occupational commitment. The third section aimed to measure the respondents' demographic data, such as gender, age group and teaching experience. The questionnaire adopted a Likert scale ranging from 1 ('Strongly Disagree') to 5 ('Strongly Agree').

Consequently, the preliminary questionnaire was created for the pilot test by implementing instruments from previous research. Ten hospitality educators were invited to read the questionnaire and to match items with the construct definitions of the dimensions. The educators were also asked to evaluate the clarity and conciseness of the items and to provide feedback for revision. In this part, the questionnaire items were amended according to the respondents' comments.

### **6.3.2 Questionnaire Translation**

The questionnaire was in bilingual format (both English and Chinese). As English is not the first language for many hospitality educators in Hong Kong, the questionnaire was translated into Chinese by a professional translator. The translation was then reviewed by five hospitality educators in Hong Kong to ensure its linguistic and cultural equivalence to the English version of the items.

## **6.4 Demographic Background of the Pilot Test Respondents**

One hundred and five responses were received in the pilot test. Table 6.1 summarises the demographic profiles of the respondents. The proportions of male (49.5%) and female (50.5%) respondents were quite even. Only five respondents (4.8%) were aged 30 years old or younger. Most of the respondents were aged 31 or older. Forty-one respondents (39.0%) were aged between 31 and 40. Thirty-

three respondents were aged between 41 and 50. Twenty-six respondents were aged above 51.

*Table 6-1: The demographic profile summary of the pilot test respondents*

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	52	49.5%
	Female	53	50.5%
Age	<=30	5	4.8%
	31-40	41	39.0%
	41-50	33	31.4%
	51 or above	26	24.8%
Position	Associate Professor	10	9.52%
	Assistant Professor	25	23.8%
	Lecturer/Instructor	52	49.5%
	Teaching Assistant	18	17.1%
Nationality	Chinese	73	69.5%
	Asian	20	19.0%
	Others	12	11.4%

## 6.5 Instrument Validation

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and a reliability test were conducted for instrument validation through SPSS. The EFA and reliability test results are presented in later sections. After validating the instruments through EFA and the reliability test, the questionnaire was modified to collect the main data.

Before the EFA and reliability test results are presented, the indicators they show must be interpreted correctly. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity are used to test the factorability of the matrix (Joukamaa, 2001). The value of the KMO measure of sampling adequacy should be greater than 0.5 and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity should be less than 0.05 for factor analysis (Kaiser and Rice, 1974;

Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Williams et al., 2012). When both the KMO value and significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity are acceptable, the communalities of each item and the factor loading can be examined. Communality is the sum of squared loadings for each test (Langsam, 1941). An item with high communality means it is explained well by the factor (Fabrigar et al., 1999). The communalities should be greater than 0.4. For the factor loading of each item in the factor matrix, the loadings should be higher than |0.3| or the cross-loadings should exhibit a difference greater than 0.15 from another item (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006).

Cronbach's reliability test is commonly used to evaluate and measure the internal consistency of an instrument (Rocha et al., 2008). It can help to determine whether the attributes of an instrument constitute a reliable measurement (Chen, 2001). Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient ranges from 0 to 1. The greater internal consistency of the items in the instrument, the closer Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is to 1. The rule of thumb of Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is  $> 0.7$  (George and Mallery, 2003). The following sections show the results and implications of the EFA and reliability tests of each variable based on the preceding guidelines.

#### **6.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Test Results for the Self-actualisation Instrument**

The study adopts the self-actualisation instrument created by Jones and Crandall (1986) to measure self-actualisation at work. The statements of the instrument are shown in Table 6.2.

The first round of EFA shows that the value of KMO is 0.705, which is greater than 0.5, and that the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000, which is smaller than 0.05. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. It also shows that all of the statements represent one factor. This means that there is no sub-dimension of self-actualisation, which is consistent with the previous research (Jones and Crandall, 1986). However, three items (SA04, SA13 and SA15) have

very small loadings on the factor ( $<0.3$ ). Therefore, the three items should be deleted and the EFA test should be conducted again to determine whether the deletions create any problems.

Table 6-2: Statements of the short index of self-actualisation developed by Jones and Crandall (1986)

SA01	I do not feel ashamed of any of my emotions at work.
SA02	In my work, I feel I must do what others expect me to do. @
SA03	I believe that people are essentially good and can be trusted.
SA04	I feel free to be angry at those I love.
SA05	In my work, It is always necessary that others approve of what I do.
SA06	I accept my own weakness at work.
SA07	I can like people without having to approve of them.
SA08	I fear failure at work. @
SA09	I attempt to analyse and simplify complex domains at work.
SA10	It is better to be myself than to be popular.
SA11	I have mission at work to which I feel especially dedicated.
SA12	I can express my feelings even when they may result in undesirable consequences at work.
SA13	In my work, I feel responsible to help everybody.
SA14	I am bothered by fears of being inadequate at work. @
SA15	I am loved because I give love at work.

@ = reverse statement

In the second round of EFA, the value of KMO is 0.707, which is greater than 0.5, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. In addition, the results show that the remaining 12 items still represent one factor. Some of the items have relatively small factor loadings but are still above 0.3, which is acceptable. Table 6.3 shows the factor loadings of each statement. However, it is too rash to delete the three items (SA04, SA13 and SA15). The reliability test result should also be considered



*Table 6-3: Factor loadings of the statements of the self-actualisation instrument*

	Factor
	1
SA01	.508
SA02	.507
SA03	.571
SA05	.423
SA06	.368
SA07	.366
SA08	.453
SA09	.604
SA10	.476
SA11	.483
SA12	.575
SA14	.467

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

After conducting EFA, we look at the reliability test results. In the first round of reliability test results for the self-actualisation instrument, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.652, which is lower than 0.7. This means the items have a weak internal consistency. However, if item SA04 is deleted, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is increased to 0.704. As such, SA04 is deleted for the second round of reliability tests.

In the second round of reliability test results for the self-actualisation instrument, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient rises from 0.652 to 0.704, which is slightly higher than 0.7. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient increases to 0.720 if item SA13 is deleted. As such, SA13 is deleted for the third round of reliability tests.

In the third round of reliability test results for the self-actualisation instrument, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient rises from 0.704 to 0.720, which means the internal consistency is further improved. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient increases to 0.725 if item SA15 is deleted. As such, combining the results of the

EFA and reliability tests, SA04, SA13 and SA15 should be deleted for the main survey data collection.

### 6.5.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Test Results for the Perceived Occupational Prestige Instrument

The study adopts the perceived occupational prestige instrument created by Lim et al. (2000). Table 6.4 shows the statements of the instrument.

*Table 6-4: Modified statements of the perceived occupational prestige instrument created by Lim et al. (2000)*

OP01	Hospitality education work is an occupation highly respected in Hong Kong community.
OP02	A career in hospitality education is definitely worth considering in Hong Kong.
OP03	Hong Kong hospitality and tourism education work provides good opportunity for advancement.
OP04	The Hong Kong public generally looks down on hospitality educators. @
OP05	The hospitality education profession is high in status and prestige in Hong Kong.
OP06	Hong Kong hospitality education work is generally less prestigious than other education professions such as science education. @
OP07	Most parents want their children to choose hospitality education as a profession.
OP08	Hospitality education is a satisfying job in Hong Kong.
OP09	Basically, hospitality educators in Hong Kong are just glorified vocational trainers. @
OP10	A job in Hong Kong hospitality education is generally better than most other job opportunities nowadays.
OP11	Hospitality education is “dirty work”. @
OP12	Hospitality educators are an esteemed corps of educators.
OP13	Hospitality educators are generally very well paid in Hong Kong.
OP14	Generally, the Hong Kong public is suspicious of the profession of hospitality educators.@

@ = reverse statement

The first round of EFA shows that the value of KMO is 0.827 which is greater than 0.5, and that significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000, which is smaller than 0.05. It shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. It also shows that all of the statements represent one factor, which is consistent with the previous research (Lim et al., 2000). However, two items (OP07 and OP10) have small loadings on the factor, which are 0.234 and 0.208 respectively ( $<0.3$ ). The small loadings imply that the two items (OP07 and OP10) are not appropriate for measuring occupational prestige in this study (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). Therefore, the two items should be deleted and EFA test should be conducted again to determine whether the deletions create any problems.

In the second round of EFA, the value of KMO is 0.881 which is greater than 0.5, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. In addition, the results show that the remaining 12 items still represent one factor. Table 6.5 shows the factor loadings of each statement. Some of the items have relatively small factor loadings but are still above 0.3, which is acceptable. However, it is too rash to delete the two items (OP07 and OP10). The reliability test result should also be considered.

In the reliability test results for the perceived occupational prestige instrument, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.790 which is higher than 0.7. This means the items have a high internal consistency. Although Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient increases to 0.856 if item OP10 is deleted, the coefficient before deletion is still acceptable. As such, OP07 and OP10 are kept for the main survey data collection.

**Table 6-5: Factor loadings of the statements of the perceived occupational prestige instrument**

	Factor
	1
OP01	.844
OP02	.899
OP03	.760
OP04	.761
OP05	.882
OP06	.573
OP08	.770
OP09	.700
OP11	.651
OP12	.594
OP13	.397
OP14	.383

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

### **6.5.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Test Results for the Impact Concerns Instrument**

The study adopts the impact concerns instrument created by (Meek, 1996) to measure hospitality educators' impact concerns. Table 6.6 shows the statements of the instrument.

**Table 6-6: Statements of impact concerns instrument created by (Meek, 1996)**

IC01	I am concerned about meeting the needs of different kinds of students.
IC02	I am concerned about diagnosing students learning problems.
IC03	I am concerned about challenging unmotivated students.
IC04	I am concerned about guiding students towards intellectual and emotional growth.

@ = reverse statement

The first round of EFA shows that the value of KMO is 0.740, which is greater than 0.5, and that the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000, which is smaller than 0.05. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. It also shows that all of the statements represent one factor, which is consistent with previous research (Meek, 1996). However, the item (IC03) has a small loading on the factors, which is only 0.298 ( $<0.3$ ). It implies that the item IC03 is not appropriate

for measuring hospitality educators' impact concerns in the study (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). Therefore, the items IC03 should be deleted and the EFA test should be conducted again to determine whether the deletion creates any problems.

In the second round of EFA, the value of KMO is 0.715, which is greater than 0.5, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. In addition, the results show that the three items still represent one factor (shown in Table 6.7). However, it is too rash to delete the item IC03. The reliability test result should also be considered.

**Table 6-7: Factor loadings of the statements of perceived occupational prestige instrument**

Factor Matrix <sup>a</sup>	
	Factor
	1
IC01	.891
IC02	.825
IC04	.728

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

In the reliability test for the perceived occupational prestige instrument, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is only 0.338, which is much lower than 0.7. This means

the items have a weak internal consistency. If the item IC03 is deleted, the alpha is increased to 0.847. It shows that the item IC03 significantly affects the reliability of the instrument. As such, combining the results of the EFA and reliability tests, the item IC03 is deleted for the main data collection.

#### **6.5.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Test Result for the Perceived Person-Job Fit Instrument**

The study adopts the perceived person-job fit instrument created by Cable and Derue (2002) to measure perceived person-job fit. Table 6.8 shows the statements of the instrument.

*Table 6-8: Statements of the perceived person-job fit instrument created by Cable and Derue (2002)*

PJ_fit01	There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job.
PJ_fit02	The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job.
PJ_fit03	The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job.
PJ_fit04	The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills.
PJ_fit05	My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job.
PJ_fit06	My personal abilities and education provides a good match with the demands that my job places on me.

@ = reverse statement

The first round of EFA shows that the value of KMO is 0.879, which is greater than 0.5, and that the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000, which is smaller than 0.05. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. It also shows that all of the statements represent one factor, which is consistent with previous research (Cable and Derue, 2002). However, the item PJ\_fit03 has low small loadings on the factor (0.265), which is smaller than 0.3. It implies that the item PJ\_fit03 is not appropriate for measuring hospitality educators' person-job fit

in the study (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). Therefore, the item PJ\_fit03 should be deleted and the EFA test should be conducted again to determine the deletion creates any problems.

In the second round of EFA, the value of KMO is 0.877, which is greater than 0.5, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. In addition, the results show that the remaining 5 items still represent 1 factor. The remaining items are have high factor loadings. Table 6.9 shows the factor loadings of each statement. However, it is too rash to delete the item PJ\_fit03. The reliability test result should also be considered.

Table 6-9: Factor loadings of the statements of perceived person-job fit instrument

Factor Matrix <sup>a</sup>	
	Factor
	1
PJ_fit01	.839
PJ_fit02	.778
PJ_fit04	.850
PJ_fit05	.918
PJ_fit06	.828

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

In the reliability test results for perceived person-job fit instrument, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.573, which is lower than 0.7. This means that the items have a weak internal consistency. However, if the item PJ\_fit03 is deleted, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is increased to 0.922. As such, combining the results of the EFA and reliability tests, the item PJ\_fit03 should be deleted for the main data collection.

### **6.5.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Test Result for Job Characteristics Instrument**

The study adopts the job diagnostic survey created by Hackman and Oldham's (1980) to measure five dimensions of job characteristics, which are 1) job skill variety required 2) task identity 3) task significance 4) autonomy, and 5) feedback from job. The statements of the instrument are shown in table 6.10.

The EFA shows that the value of KMO is 0.724 which is greater than 0.5, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000, which is smaller than 0.05. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. It also shows that all of the statements represent five factors which are consistent with Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job diagnostic survey. In addition, all of the item have high loadings on the factor ( $< 0.3$ ). Table 6.11 shows the factor loadings of each statement. Some of the items have cross-loadings (e.g., AU02 and SV02) but the cross-loading difference of the items is greater than 0.15, which is acceptable (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006) (shown in table 6.11). However, the cross-loading difference of FJ02 is 0.138, which is less than 0.15. It implies that the item FJ02 is not an appropriate item for measuring feedback from job in the study (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). The reliability test is conducted to further validate the item FJ02.

In the reliability test for the job characteristics instrument. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.832, which is greater than 0.7. This means the items have a high internal consistency. If this item FJ02 is deleted, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient drops to 0.825. As such, combining the results of the EFA and reliability tests, FJ02 is kept for the main survey data collection.



Table 6-10: Statements of the job diagnostic survey developed by Hackman and Oldham's (1980)

Job Autonomy	JC_AU01	To what extent does my job permit me to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?
	JC_AU02	My job allows me to use my personal initiative or judgments in carrying out the work.
	JC_AU03	My job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
Task Identity	JC_TI01	To what extent does my job involve doing a “whole” and identifiable piece of work?
	JC_TI02	My job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end. @
	JC_TI03	My job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
Task Significance	JC_TS01	To what extent are the results of my work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?
	JC_TS02	My job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
	JC_TS03	My job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things. @
Job skill variety	JC_SV01	To what extent does the job require me to do many different things, using a variety of your skills and talents?
	JC_SV02	My job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
	JC_SV03	My job is quite simple and repetitive. @
Feedback from Job	JC_FJ01	What extent does doing the job itself provide me with information about my work performance?
	JC_FJ02	Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
	JC_FJ03	My job itself provides clues about whether or not I am performing well.

@ = reverse statement

*Table 6-11: Factor loadings of the statements of the job diagnostic survey*

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
AU01	.301			.744	
AU02			.312	.657	
AU03				.793	
TI01	.545		.317		
TI02	.526				
TI03	.682			.310	
TS01		.894			
TS02		.804			
TS03		.817			
SV01		.321	.628		
SV02	.308		.609		
SV03			.603		
FJ01					.585
FJ02	.310				.448
FJ03			.323		.538

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

### 6.5.6 Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Test Results for Occupational Commitment Instrument

The study adopts the occupational commitment instrument created by Meyer et al. (1993). Table 6.12 shows the statements of the instrument. The EFA shows that the value of KMO is 0.828 which is greater than 0.5, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity is 0.000, which is smaller than 0.05. This shows that the statements are fit for factor analysis. It also shows that all of the statements represent three factors, which are consistent with previous research (Meyer et al., 1993). All of the items have high factor loadings, which are above 0.3. The items NOC02 and NOC03 have cross-loadings but the cross-loading difference of the two items is greater than 0.15, which is acceptable (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). Table 6.13 shows the factor loadings of each statement.

Table 6-12: Statements of the occupational commitment instrument created by Meyer et al. (1993)

Affective occupational commitment	AOC01	Hospitality and tourism education is important to my self-image.
	AOC02	I regret having entered hospitality education profession. @
	AOC03	I am proud to be in hospitality education profession.
	AOC04	I like being a hospitality educator.
	AOC05	I identify with hospitality education profession.
	AOC06	I am enthusiastic about hospitality education.
Continuance Occupational Commitment	COC01	I have put too much into hospitality education profession to consider changing now.
	COC02	Changing professions now would be difficult for me to do.
	COC03	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession.
	COC04	It would be costly for me to change my profession now.
	COC05	There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions. @
	COC06	Changing profession now would require considerable personal sacrifice.
Normative Occupational Commitment	NOC01	I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period of time.
	NOC02	I do not feel any obligation to remain in hospitality education profession. @
	NOC03	I feel a responsibility to hospitality education profession to continue in it.
	NOC04	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave hospitality and tourism education now.
	NOC05	I would feel guilty if I left hospitality education.
	NOC06	I am in hospitality education because of a sense of loyalty to it.

@ = reverse statement

**Table 6-13: Factor loadings of the statements of occupational commitment instrument**

	Factor		
	1	2	3
AOC01	.753		
AOC02	.736		
AOC03	.755		
AOC04	.734		
AOC05	.603		
AOC06	.725		
COC01			.461
COC02			.835
COC03			.898
COC04			.836
COC05			.377
COC06			.373
NOC01		.797	
NOC02	.338	.506	
NOC03	.418	.695	
NOC04		.755	
NOC05		.774	
NOC06		.713	

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

In the reliability test results for the occupational commitment instrument, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.797, which is acceptable ( $> 0.7$ ). This means that the items have a high internal consistency. This means that all of the items are appropriate for main data collection.

## **6.6 Summary of Chapter 6**

This chapter develops the hypotheses of this study. A research model is formed accordingly. The chapter also presents the demographic profiles of the pilot test respondents and the instrument validation process based on EFA and reliability tests. Based on the results, the instruments are fine-tuned and made ready for the main survey data collection. The next chapter presents the analysis results of the study.

## **7. Chapter 7 – Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators with Various Demographic Characteristics**

### **7.1 Introduction to Chapter 7**

This chapter highlights the level of occupational commitment of hospitality educators with various demographic characteristics. First, it presents the main survey data examination based on confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), an important process to ensure the data accurately measure the exogenous and endogenous variables. After presenting the data examination results, the educators' levels of occupational commitment are presented.

### **7.2 Examination of Main Survey Data**

After the factor and reliability analyses conducted in the pilot test (see Chapter 6), the questionnaire was fine-tuned and readied to collect the main survey data. The researcher collected the main survey data from October 2015 to May 2016. In this study, 356 questionnaires were received, 314 of which (88.8%) are valid for data analysis.

#### **7.2.1 Data Screening Test**

A data screening test was conducted to detect univariate and multivariate outliers. A univariate outlier is a data point that is extremely different from the rest of a variable's data, while a multivariate outlier is a data point that is very different from the rest of the data for a combination of two or more variables (Stout, 2008). A univariate outlier affects the accuracy of the measurement results for each variable, while a multivariate outlier affects the hypotheses test results. Therefore, both types of outliers should be deleted. In this study, two multivariate outliers were detected and deleted. Following the data screening test, 314 questionnaires are used for data analysis.

### 7.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

For good model fit, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) values should be greater than 0.9 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value should be below .08 (Hoyle, 1995; Hu and Bentler, 1999). The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) value should be greater than 0.90 (Hu and Bentler, 1999; McDonald and Ho, 2002). The chi-square/degree of freedom ratio (CMIN/DF) should be less than 5 and preferably less than 3 (Bentler, 1990; Hu and Bentler, 1999). Based on these guidelines, the fitness of the model can be evaluated.

Table 7.1 shows the model fit summary of the exogenous variables before amendment. It shows that the CMIN/DF is 3.265, which is slightly greater than 3 but less than 5 and therefore acceptable. The RMSEA is 0.085, which is slightly higher than 0.08 and therefore acceptable. However, the CFI is 0.751 (<0.9), the GFI is 0.888 (<0.9) and the TLI is 0.896 (<0.9). The CFI, TFI and TLI are less than 0.9, indicating a poor model fit. Therefore, further amendment is needed.

*Table 7-1: The model fit summary of exogenous variables before amendment*

Chi-square/degree of freedom ratio (CMIN/DF)	3.265
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.751
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	0.888
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.896
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.085

Based on the analysis findings, items SA08, SA10, OP10, COC06 and AOC02 have a significant impact on the model fit result. The five items are deleted and CFA is conducted again. The CMIN/DF is improved to 2.647 (<0.3), which indicates a reasonable model fit. The RMSEA is improved to 0.072 (<0.8), which represents reasonable errors. The CFI is 0.937, the GFI is 0.907 and the TLI is 0.931. The three indicators are all above 0.9, indicating a good model fit. Table 7.2

shows the model fit summary of the exogenous variables after amendment. Therefore, the five items are eliminated for the hypotheses test.

*Table 7-2: The model fit summary of exogenous variables after amendment*

Chi-square/degree of freedom ratio (CMIN/DF)	2.647
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.937
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	0.907
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.931
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.072

### 7.2.3 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

In this study, construct reliability (CR), convergent and discriminant validity are used to test construct validity. CR should be greater than 0.7. Furthermore, the average variance extracted (AVE) should be greater than 0.5 for the convergent validity test (Hair Jr et al., 2016). The AVE should also be greater than the maximum shared variance (MSV), and the square root of AVE for each construct should be greater than the inter-construct correlations to support discriminant validity. Table 7.3 shows the CR, AVE, MSV and shared variance values. The CR values of all of the variables are greater than 0.7, which supports construct reliability. Moreover, the AVE values of all of the variables are greater than 0.5, which means that the variables correlate well with each other within their parent factors (Hair Jr et al., 2016). For discriminant validity, Table 7.3 shows that the AVE values of all of the variables are greater than the MSV, and the square root of AVE on each variable is greater than the inter-construct correlations.

*Table 7-3: Construct reliability, convergent and discriminant validity on the research model*

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	O_Pre	AOC	COC	NOC	JC_AU	JC_IDE N	JC_SIG N	JC_SV	JC_FB	SA	IC	PJ_Fit
<b>O_Pre</b>	0.970	0.747	0.438	0.976	<b>0.864</b>											
<b>AOC</b>	0.934	0.703	0.416	0.982	0.628	<b>0.839</b>										
<b>COC</b>	0.964	0.869	0.249	0.988	0.171	0.082	<b>0.932</b>									
<b>NOC</b>	0.975	0.866	0.249	0.992	0.369	0.466	0.499	<b>0.931</b>								
<b>JC_AU</b>	0.891	0.731	0.605	0.993	0.543	0.634	-0.078	0.236	<b>0.855</b>							
<b>JC_IDE N</b>	0.850	0.655	0.605	0.993	0.540	0.625	0.065	0.267	0.778	<b>0.809</b>						
<b>JC_SIG N</b>	0.893	0.808	0.175	0.993	0.221	0.275	0.375	0.290	0.151	0.282	<b>0.899</b>					
<b>JC_SV</b>	0.887	0.725	0.332	0.994	0.405	0.518	0.070	0.222	0.513	0.576	0.418	<b>0.851</b>				
<b>JC_FB</b>	0.938	0.834	0.333	0.994	0.444	0.577	0.199	0.426	0.332	0.473	0.373	0.414	<b>0.913</b>			
<b>SA</b>	0.936	0.620	0.072	0.995	0.095	0.215	-0.081	0.025	0.129	0.268	-0.048	0.075	0.205	<b>0.787</b>		
<b>IC</b>	0.927	0.810	0.089	0.995	0.291	0.201	0.075	0.166	0.178	0.244	0.117	0.298	0.139	-0.057	<b>0.900</b>	
<b>PJ_Fit</b>	0.964	0.844	0.438	0.996	0.662	0.645	0.082	0.314	0.655	0.627	0.288	0.435	0.441	0.020	0.290	<b>0.919</b>

Notes: AOC→ Affective occupational commitment  
COC→ Continuance occupational commitment  
NOC → Normative occupational commitment  
SA → Self-actualisation at work  
IC → Impact concerns  
PJ\_Fit → Perceived person-job fit  
O\_Pre → Perceived occupational prestige

JC\_AU→ Job autonomy  
JC\_IDEN → Task Identity  
JC\_SIGN → Job significance  
JC\_FB → Feedback from job  
JC\_SV → Job skill variety



### **7.3 Demographic Profiles of the Main Survey Respondents**

The main survey respondents are the current hospitality educators in Hong Kong. They come from more than 12 countries including Korea, Canada, the Philippines, Thailand, mainland China, Austria, New Zealand and others. They are categorised into three groups: Chinese, Asian and non-Asian. The 221 educators in the Chinese category are from mainland China, Hong Kong and Taiwan. The 43 educators in the Asian category come from other Asian regions such as Japan, Korea and the Philippines. The 50 educators from non-Asian regions such as the United States, Austria and Germany are categorised into the 'Western' category. The findings show that the backgrounds of hospitality educators in Hong Kong are diverse and international. The background diversity allows examination of the differences in occupational commitment and the identified antecedents. In addition, the majority of educators (around 70%) are Chinese, which implies that Chinese culture has a strong influence on hospitality education as an occupation choice.

In terms of age, 32 hospitality educators (10%) are under 30, 129 educators (41%) are 31-40 years old, 102 educators are 41-50 years old and 51 educators are over 50 years old. More than 50% of the educators are younger than 40, and around 32% are 41-50 years old. This shows the healthy structure of the Hong Kong hospitality education industry, as a large portion of young hospitality educators can support sustainable hospitality education development.

In terms of education level, none of the educators are undergraduate degree holders. Of the 314 hospitality educators, 142 are Master's degree holders and 172 are doctoral degree holders, indicating that they are well educated. In terms of hospitality work experience, 98 hospitality educators have less than three years of experience, 94 educators have three to five years of experience and 91 educators have five to ten years of experience. Furthermore, 31 educators had more than 10 years of hospitality work experience prior to joining the hospitality education industry. This is consistent with the literature, which has stated that many hospitality educators in Hong Kong come from hospitality professionals (Hsu,

2015). Based on the findings, more than two thirds of the hospitality educators have three or more years of hospitality work experience. Around 40% of the educators have more than five years of experience and 30% have more than 10 years of experience. It is a good sign that the educators can share their real industry experience with their students, who can benefit from it.

Moreover, 41 educators have less than five years of hospitality education work experience, while 137 educators have five to ten years of experience. In addition, 103 educators have 11-20 years of experience, and 33 educators have more than 20 years of experience. Of the 314 hospitality educators, 63 have been working in the Hong Kong hospitality education industry for less than five years, 142 educators have been working in the industry for five to ten years, 82 educators have been working in the industry for 10-20 years and 27 educators have been working in the industry for more than 20 years. This shows that hospitality educators in Hong Kong have rich experience in both the hospitality and hospitality education industries, which is beneficial for the rapid growth of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong

Of the 314 respondents, 176 (around 55%) are female and 138 (44%) are male, a desirable gender distribution. In terms of job position, eight educators are professors or higher. Thirty-three educators are associate professors and 93 educators are assistant professors or senior lecturers. Furthermore, 154 educators are lecturers or instructors and 19 educators are teaching assistants or tutors. Seven educators are in other positions such as teaching fellow and education specialist. The distribution of different positions shows that the hospitality education industry is well structured. The majority of educators are in the junior or middle position. However, a comparison of the gender distribution across different positions (shown in Table 7.4) shows that the majority of female hospitality educators are working in middle and junior positions, while men mainly comprise the hospitality educators in senior positions. This indicates a potential gender inequality problem.

*Table 7-4: A comparison of the gender distribution across different positions*

		Position				
		Associate Professor or higher	Assistant Professor	Lecturer/ Instructor	Teaching Assistant/Tutor	Others
Gender	Male	31	39	57	4	7
	Female	10	54	97	15	0

In terms of marital status, 107 educators are single and 195 educators are married. In addition, 149 educators have no children, 100 educators have one child, 61 educators have two children and only four educators have three or more children. The findings show that the all of the female hospitality educators with a position of associate professor or higher and 60% of female assistant professors are married. This indicates that the female hospitality educators in Hong Kong can manage their family and career development well. Table 7.5 summarises the demographic profiles. Chapter 11 discusses the implications of the demographic characteristics.

*Table 7-5: The demographic profile summary of the main survey respondents*

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	138	43.9%
	Female	176	56.1%
Age	<=30	32	10.2%
	31-40	129	41.1%
	41-50	102	32.5%
	51 or above	51	16.2%
Position	Associate Professor or above	41	13.1%
	Assistant Professor/Senior lecturer	93	29.6%
	Lecturer/Instructor	154	49.0%
	Teaching Assistant	19	6.1%
	Others	7	2.2%
Nationality	Chinese	221	70.4%
	Asian	43	13.7%
	Western	50	15.9%
Number of children	0	149	47.5%
	1	100	31.8%
	2	61	19.4%
	more than 3	4	1.3%
Education background	Master	142	45.2%
	Doctoral	172	54.8%
Hospitality work experience	less than 3 years	98	31.2%
	3 to 5 years	94	29.9%
	5 to 10 years	91	29.0%
	more than 10 years	31	9.9%
Hospitality education experience	less than 5 years	41	13.1%
	5 to 10 years	137	43.6%
	11 to 20 years	103	32.8%
	more than 20 years	33	10.5%

#### **7.4 Occupational Commitment Differences between Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators**

According to the occupational commitment model, demographic differences are a type of personal antecedent of occupational commitment (Lim, 2010; Meyer and Espinoza, 2016). Of the demographic characteristics, it is believed that age, gender, work experience and education background are closely related to occupational commitment (Jones and McIntosh, 2010; Weng and McElroy, 2012). Therefore, these four demographic characteristics are tested in this study. In addition, Hong Kong hospitality educators have an international profile. Some studies (e.g., Chen et al., 2017; Liu and Cohen, 2010) have indicated that cultural background is a factor contributing to occupational commitment. Based on this, the researcher believes that occupational commitment levels may vary across hospitality educators with different nationalities. In addition, studies (e.g., Buonocore and Russo, 2013; Major et al., 2013) have indicated that the congruence between work and family is positively related to occupational commitment. Based on this, the researcher believes that nationality and marital status may be other demographic characteristics linked to occupational commitment. Therefore, marital status and nationality are also tested in this study.

As Meyer et al. (1993) recommended, the three dimensions of occupational commitment (affective, continuous and normative) are tested separately in this study. An analysis of variance test was conducted to determine the differences in occupation commitment across various demographic groups of hospitality educators. In general, the findings show that hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment ( $\mu = 4.26$ ) is the highest of all types of occupational commitment. The levels of continuance ( $\mu = 3.62$ ) and normative ( $\mu = 3.59$ ) occupational commitment are similar. This implies that the educators are intrinsically committed to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. Their occupational commitment is mainly induced by intrinsic motivation. However, the levels of occupational commitment vary across different demographic groups of

hospitality educators. Table 7.6 summarises the demographic variables that influence the three dimensions of occupational commitment.

***Table 7-6: Summary of the key findings on the influence of demographic variables on the three dimensions of occupational commitment***

Dimensions of occupational commitment	Demographic variables						
	Age	Gender	Marital status	Education background	Nationality	Position	Hospitality education work experience
Affective occupational commitment	√			√	√	√	√
Continuance occupational commitment	√		√		√	√	√
Normative occupational commitment	√		√		√	√	√

√ = significant difference

The findings show that different demographic variables have different impacts on the three dimensions of occupational commitment (Table 7.6). The results are discussed in the following sections.

#### **7.4.1 Gender**

The p value of affective occupational commitment is 0.855 ( $>0.05$ ), that of continuance occupational commitment is 0.342 ( $>0.05$ ) and that of normative occupational commitment is 0.750 ( $>0.05$ ). As the p values of the three forms of occupational commitment are greater than 0.05, there is no significant difference in the three forms of occupational commitment between male and female hospitality educators. Both female and male hospitality educators in Hong Kong have similar levels of affective, continuance and normative occupational commitment.

Table 7-7: The occupational commitment levels of male and female hospitality educators in Hong Kong

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AOC	Male	138	4.2638	.54891	.04673
	Female	176	4.2511	.65054	.04904
COC	Male	138	3.6884	.93435	.07954
	Female	176	3.5739	1.19771	.09028
NOC	Male	138	3.6135	.95158	.08100
	Female	176	3.5767	1.06531	.08030

\*AOC = affective occupational commitment

\*COC = continuance occupational commitment

\*NOC = normative occupational commitment

Furthermore, both female and male hospitality educators have very high levels of affective occupational commitment. The means are 4.26 and 4.25, respectively (shown in Table 7.7). This shows that both female and male hospitality educators are intrinsically committed to hospitality education as their occupations. In addition, although the findings show that male hospitality educators ( $\mu = 3.61$ ) have higher levels of normative occupational commitment than female hospitality educators ( $\mu = 3.58$ ), there is no significant difference in normative occupational commitment between male and female hospitality educators. This implies that both male and female hospitality educators face the same level of external pressure in their occupations.

This finding differs from the study's prediction. It was expected that male hospitality educators could face greater pressure in their career development than female hospitality educators in Hong Kong because of Chinese culture. In Chinese culture, males are mainly responsible for work and earning money for the family, while females are mainly responsible for taking care of the family members at home. In the Chinese tradition, marriage has always been perceived as a life goal or self-identity of Chinese women (Gaetano, 2014). Career enhancement for Chinese women is perceived as unnecessary. In contrast, the occupations of male family members are particularly important for families. The community perceives that

occupation is an important indicator of success, particularly for men (Li, 2015). When male family members have prestigious occupations, they improve their families' reputations. Therefore, Chinese men are more concerned about the social status of their occupations. Consequently, in the Chinese community, people are commonly greatly concerned about the occupations of male family members. For instance, while the Chinese community perceives that a man should not work in less prestigious occupations such as service-related occupations, women are expected to be more committed to their families and their occupations are considered relatively less important (Cooke, 2007; Li, 2015). Based on this, male hospitality educators should exhibit greater normative occupational commitment than female hospitality educators, as normative commitment is induced by external pressures such as colleagues, friends and family. However, this finding differs from the study's prediction that external pressures have similar impacts on the normative occupational commitment of both female and male hospitality educators.

Moreover, this study predicts that male hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment is higher than that of female hospitality educators in Hong Kong. As education is a highly prestigious occupation in Hong Kong and educators are widely respected by society, male hospitality educators are less likely to quit the hospitality education industry. If they do so, they may lose respect from society and their prestigious social status as educators. There may be a kind of investment cost of leaving the occupation. Therefore, male hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment is expected to be higher than that of female hospitality educators. However, the findings show no significant difference in continuance occupational commitment between male and female hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

The unexpected results for continuance and normative occupational commitment between male and female hospitality educators may be related to the change in society culture. Chinese women have started to pursue careers. Family is no



longer their whole life. More Chinese women are committed to their families and careers at the same time (Cheung and Halpern, 2010). Chinese women must overcome high barriers to their career development from various parties such as family and colleagues (Cooke, 2005; Yu-Ning, 2015). To overcome the high barriers, female hospitality educators may need to be more committed to their occupations, inducing their normative occupational commitment. Overcoming the barriers and enhancing their careers may be their investment in leaving their occupations, inducing a high level of continuance occupational commitment in them. Therefore, their continuance and normative occupational commitment are gradually matching those of male hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

#### **7.4.2 Education Background**

All of the respondents hold either Master's or doctoral degrees. The significance (p value) of affective occupational commitment is 0.000 ( $<0.05$ ), which implies that the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators with doctoral degrees ( $\mu = 4.37$ ) and Master's degrees ( $\mu = 4.12$ ) are significantly different (shown in Table 7.8). The results show that the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators with doctoral degrees is significantly stronger than that of hospitality educators with Master's degrees. This implies that hospitality educators with doctoral degrees are more intrinsically committed to the hospitality education industry, which is consistent with the previous study. Weng and McElroy (2012) found that education background was positively related to affective occupational commitment. Employees tend to have greater intention to gain professional knowledge when they are intrinsically committed to their occupations. This study shows a similar result: hospitality educators with doctoral degrees are highly engaged in and committed to the hospitality education industry. If they did not intend to develop their careers in hospitality education, they would not pursue their doctoral degrees. The curricula of many doctoral degree programmes are designed for people who want to develop their careers in higher education and research-related industries (McAlpine and Emmioğlu, 2015). Therefore, it is

reasonable that hospitality educators with doctoral degrees are more intrinsically committed to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

In contrast, hospitality educators with Master's degrees may not have yet made decisions about their lifelong careers. If they want to develop lifelong careers in the hospitality industry, they must gain a doctoral degree. The doctoral degree has become a basic requirement of high positions in the higher education industry. This study shows that hospitality educators with Master's degrees have less work experience in the hospitality education industry. Of the 142 hospitality educators with Master's degrees, 90 (63.38%) have less than 10 years of work experience in the industry and 137 (96.48%) are in junior positions (lecturer or lower). This shows that hospitality educators with Master's degrees are relatively junior in the industry. When they are intrinsically committed to the hospitality education industry, they pursue further education and gain a doctoral degree. Therefore, it is reasonable that their affective occupational commitment is relatively lower than that of hospitality educators in Hong Kong with doctoral degrees.

**Table 7-8: The occupational commitment levels across hospitality educators in Hong Kong with different education backgrounds**

	Education	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AOC	Master	142	4.1197	.72876	.06116
	Doctoral	172	4.3698	.45629	.03479
COC	Master	142	3.5352	1.09585	.09196
	Doctoral	172	3.6977	1.08223	.08252
NOC	Master	142	3.5728	1.03361	.08674
	Doctoral	172	3.6095	1.00298	.07648

\*AOC = affective occupational commitment

\*COC = continuance occupational commitment

\*NOC = normative occupational commitment

The p value of continuance occupational commitment is 0.189 (>0.05) and that of normative occupational commitment is 0.750 (>0.05). The p values of continuance and normative occupational commitment are greater than 0.05, which implies that

there is no significant difference in continuance occupational commitment between hospitality educators with doctoral and Master's degrees. This is consistent with previous studies. McAlpine et al. (2014) argued that doctoral graduates' commitment to their academic careers is significantly influenced by their doctoral study experience. Doctorate study is perceived as preparation for an academic position. Doctoral students commonly have an interest in their research field and academic career opportunities (McAlpine and Emmioğlu, 2015). However, this does not mean that doctoral graduates have a greater commitment to their academic careers than Master's graduates. Many factors influence the doctoral study experience such as supervision experience, support from institutions for academic career preparation and teaching opportunities (McAlpine et al., 2014). Therefore, the doctoral degree is not a key factor in hospitality educators' commitment.

These findings show that hospitality educators with Master's degrees have similar levels of continuance occupational commitment. This implies that their academic qualifications are not perceived as the investment cost of leaving the hospitality education industry for their commitment. Career choice is not an individual matter, but a family matter in Chinese society. The social status of an occupation is always the key concern for career choice and career retention in the Chinese community (Fan, 2000; Pearce and Lin, 2007; Yan and Berliner, 2016). Therefore, the levels of continuance occupational commitment between hospitality educators with doctoral and Master's degrees are similar because they are influenced by Chinese culture – the importance of occupational prestige.

The p value of normative occupational commitment is 0.750 ( $>0.05$ ), which implies that there is no significant difference in normative occupational commitment between hospitality educators with doctoral and Master's degrees. Regardless of academic background, hospitality educators are influenced by Chinese culture in that parental influence is a key factor contributing to their career choice and career

retention (Liu et al., 2015). Therefore, hospitality educators with doctoral and Master's degrees have similar levels of normative occupational commitment.

### **7.4.3 Nationality**

The findings show that hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment differs significantly across different nationalities ( $p$  value = 0.004 < 0.05). The affective occupational commitment of Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $\mu$  = 4.18) is significantly lower than that of Asian ( $\mu$  = 4.45) and non-Asian ( $\mu$  = 4.42) hospitality educators in Hong Kong (shown in Table 7.9). This shows that Chinese hospitality educators are less likely to emotionally engage in their occupation. The cultural differences between countries account for this. Chang et al. (2007) pointed out that affective occupational commitment was developed as an important role of the individual in an individualistic culture, but perhaps not in a collectivist culture. Collectivist cultures encourage behaviours according to societal norms and family expectations (Chen et al., 2017a). Given that the Chinese community has a strong sense of collectivistic culture, Chinese educators' occupational commitment is mainly induced by external forces and the cost of leaving (Liu and Cohen, 2010). In contrast, non-Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong are highly and intrinsically committed to their occupation, so they decided to leave their home countries and develop their careers in Hong Kong, effectively sacrificing for their career development. Their continuance occupational commitment should also be higher than that of Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong, as continuance occupational commitment is induced by the perceived investment cost of leaving. However, unexpectedly, the findings show that non-Asian hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment of ( $\mu$  = 2.96) is significantly lower than that of Chinese ( $\mu$  = 3.76) and Asian ( $\mu$  = 3.69) hospitality educators ( $p$  value = 0.000 < 0.05). This implies that Chinese and Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong are more committed to hospitality education, as they are more concerned about the cost of leaving their occupation than non-Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Table 7-9: The occupational commitment levels across varying nationalities of hospitality educators in Hong Kong

	Nationality	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AOC	Chinese	221	4.1828	.64939	.04368
	Asian	43	4.4465	.45948	.07007
	Non-Asian	50	4.4200	.44309	.06266
COC	Chinese	221	3.7602	.97768	.06577
	Asian	43	3.6977	.77259	.11782
	Non-Asian	50	2.9600	1.49775	.21181
NOC	Chinese	221	3.6900	.93045	.06259
	Asian	43	3.8295	.72511	.11058
	Non-Asian	50	2.9600	1.32247	.18703

\*AOC = affective occupational commitment

\*COC = continuance occupational commitment

\*NOC = normative occupational commitment

Similar to the results for continuance occupational commitment, hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment differs significantly across nationalities ( $p$  value = 0.000 < 0.05). Non-Asian hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment ( $\mu$  = 2.96) is lower than that of Chinese and Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This implies that Chinese and Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong are more committed to hospitality education, as they encounter greater pressure from others than do non-Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

This implies that non-Asian hospitality educators are more committed to hospitality education as their occupation in Hong Kong because they gain self-fulfilment in this occupation. Therefore, they are intrinsically motivated and committed to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. Although they have sacrificed for the move, they do not commit to the industry for that reason. Rather, they are willing to leave their home countries and develop their careers in the Hong Kong hospitality education industry because they are emotionally attached to that industry. Therefore, their level of affective occupational commitment is high.

In contrast, Asian and Chinese hospitality educators are committed to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong because of the perceived cost of leaving and external pressure from others. In particular, Chinese hospitality educators have the lowest level of affective occupational commitment, which implies that they are unable to gain self-fulfilment through hospitality education. Institutions should put more effort into assisting their educators in gaining self-fulfilment through their work. Affective occupational commitment is positively and closely associated with teaching quality (Bland et al., 2006; Xiao and Wilkins, 2015). If Chinese hospitality educators are unable to gain self-fulfilment through their occupation, it may affect the quality of their teaching and work performance.

Chinese and Asian hospitality educators have high levels of continuance and normative occupational commitment, perhaps because they are significantly influenced by Chinese and Asian cultures. These cultures share some similarities. Both have a strong sense of collectivism (Chao, 1994; Du et al., 2015). For instance, parental influence on career choice is strong in both cultures. Chinese and Asian hospitality educators' levels of occupational commitment are significantly influenced by external pressures such as family. Chinese and Asian hospitality educators have high levels of normative occupational commitment. Also, as educators are highly respected in the Hong Kong community, Chinese and Asian hospitality educators perceive this respect as a cost of leaving the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. Therefore, their levels of continuance and normative occupational commitment are high.

#### **7.4.4 Age**

Studies have found a link between age and occupational commitment. Lin et al. (2013) found that age was closely associated with three dimensions of occupational commitment. Lee et al. (2000) found that age and affective occupational commitment were positively associated. Snape et al. (2008) indicated that age and continuance occupational commitment were positively

associated. This study shows a similar result: age is associated with three dimensions of occupational commitment.

First, there are significant differences in affective occupational commitment across various age groups ( $p$  value = 0.001 < 0.05). Hospitality educators above 51 years old have the strongest affective occupational commitment ( $\mu = 4.43$ ), which means they are very emotionally attached to hospitality education as their occupation. Hospitality educators between 31 and 40 years old have the least affective occupational commitment ( $\mu = 4.10$ ) (shown in Table 7.10).

***Table 7-10: The occupational commitment levels across various age groups of hospitality educators in Hong Kong***

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AOC	<=30	32	4.2375	.54816	.09690
	31-40	129	4.0977	.74251	.06537
	41-50	103	4.3786	.36398	.03586
	51 or above	50	4.4280	.56570	.08000
COC	<=30	32	2.7813	.94132	.16640
	31-40	129	3.6744	.93677	.08248
	41-50	103	3.7476	1.13516	.11185
	51 or above	50	3.7800	1.23371	.17447
NOC	<=30	32	3.2292	1.33920	.23674
	31-40	129	3.4961	1.01539	.08940
	41-50	103	3.7314	.94950	.09356
	51 or above	50	3.7900	.83150	.11759

\*AOC = affective occupational commitment

\*COC = continuance occupational commitment

\*NOC = normative occupational commitment

This may be related to their life cycle. It has been found that one's personal life cycle has a significant influence on his or her occupational commitment (Robinson et al., 2014). This study finds that educators above 51 years old have less family liability if their children have grown up. This allows them to pursue self-fulfilment without too much of a burden. Therefore, their affective occupational commitment is the strongest among all of the age groups. In contrast, hospitality educators

between 31 and 40 years old may have a strong burden as a result of their family commitment. They may also focus on enhancing their careers and spend a lot of effort on doing so. The focus group participants mentioned that they were too busy improving their teaching, research and social skills for career enhancement to think about self-fulfilment. These pressures may demotivate their commitment to the hospitality education industry.

Second, there are significant differences in continuance occupational commitment across various age groups ( $p$  value = 0.000 < 0.05). Younger hospitality educators have lower levels of continuance occupational commitment while hospitality educators above 51 years old have the highest level ( $\mu$  = 3.78). This finding is reasonable. As educators above 51 years old have been in the hospitality education industry for many years, they are experienced, and their experience can be a cost of leaving. This finding proves that hospitality educators in Hong Kong perceive their work experience in the hospitality education industry as an investment cost of leaving the occupation. As younger hospitality educators have less experience in the hospitality education industry, their perceived investment cost of leaving may be lower than that of experienced hospitality educators.

Third, there are significant differences in normative occupational commitment across various age groups ( $p$  value = 0.028 < 0.05). Hospitality educators below 30 years old have the lowest level of normative occupational commitment ( $\mu$  = 3.23), which means they face less pressure in their occupations from others. Hospitality educators above 51 years old have the highest level of normative occupational commitment ( $\mu$  = 3.79), which means they are committed to the hospitality education industry because they face great external pressures. Young hospitality educators are the junior members in their families and social groups. Senior members have fewer expectations of junior members' contributions to the family reputation. In contrast, senior hospitality educators are also the senior members in their families and social groups. As mentioned in the literature review, seniors have a higher status than juniors in the Chinese community. Senior family



members are regarded as family leaders and are expected to be role models for the juniors. They are also expected to improve the reputations of their families through their career success. Therefore, their level of normative occupational commitment is high.

#### **7.4.5 Marital Status**

Studies have provided a lack of evidence of the link between marital status and occupational commitment. However, work-family conflict is believed to be closely related to individuals' occupational commitment, particularly females (Major et al., 2013). As a high level of occupational commitment requires a significant time commitment and energy (Buonocore and Russo, 2013), a high commitment to work may influence one's family life. This influence can be positive or negative depending on the work-family culture and the support of the organisation (Major et al., 2013). As such, this study predicts that marital status has a certain impact on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

The findings show no significant difference in affective occupational commitment across hospitality educators with varying marital status. The p value of affective occupational commitment is 0.433 ( $>0.05$ ). Table 7.11 shows that divorced hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment ( $\mu = 4.47$ ) is slightly higher than that of single ( $\mu = 4.23$ ) and married ( $\mu = 4.26$ ) hospitality educators in Hong Kong. However, as only 12 respondents are in the divorce category, there is insufficient statistical strength to support that divorced hospitality educators have higher levels of affective occupational commitment than single and married hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It can only be concluded that marital status is not significantly associated with the affective commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

However, the results show significant differences in continuance occupational commitment across hospitality educators with varying marital status (p value = 0.000  $<0.05$ ). Married hospitality educators' continuance occupational

commitment ( $\mu = 3.92$ ) is significantly higher than that of single ( $\mu = 3.13$ ) and divorced ( $\mu = 3.25$ ) hospitality educators, perhaps because they have strong family liability. As they must provide support to their families, the stability and sustainability of their occupation is important. The focus group interview participants mentioned that they were attracted to the sustainability of the hospitality education industry. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the demand for hospitality management programmes in Hong Kong has risen significantly in recent years, increasing the demand for hospitality educators to support this growth. There are many career opportunities in the hospitality education industry that educators can take advantage of to support their families. They may perceive the growth trend of the hospitality education industry as the investment cost of leaving. If they then leave hospitality education industry in Hong Kong, they may need to sacrifice the career opportunities of this occupation. Therefore, their level of continuance occupational commitment is high.

***Table 7-11: The occupational commitment levels across hospitality educators with different marital statuses in Hong Kong***

	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AOC	Single	107	4.2280	.50540	.04886
	Married	195	4.2595	.66870	.04789
	Divorced	12	4.4667	.28710	.08288
COC	Single	107	3.1308	1.09099	.10547
	Married	195	3.9179	.98097	.07025
	Divorced	12	3.2500	1.13818	.32856
NOC	Single	107	3.3879	1.13888	.11010
	Married	195	3.6897	.94139	.06741
	Divorced	12	3.8472	.75364	.21756

\*AOC = affective occupational commitment

\*COC = continuance occupational commitment

\*NOC = normative occupational commitment

The results also show significance differences in normative occupational commitment across hospitality educators with varying marital status (p value =

0.031 < 0.05). The normative occupational commitment of divorced ( $\mu = 3.85$ ) and married ( $\mu = 3.69$ ) hospitality educators is significantly higher than that of single hospitality educators ( $\mu = 3.38$ ). This shows that divorced and married hospitality educators are more concerned about how people view them as hospitality educators. Chinese culture explains this finding. Married hospitality educators' status has changed from son/daughter to husband/wife, and they take greater responsibility for their families. As mentioned earlier, an occupation is a tool for family members to improve the family's reputation. Therefore, as education is a prestigious occupation in the Chinese community, married hospitality educators may face greater external pressures in their occupations from society and family. This makes them more committed to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

The finding also shows that divorced hospitality educators have a high level of normative occupational commitment ( $\mu = 3.85$ ). In Chinese culture, divorced and separated people, especially women, are recognised as 'leftover' people and are discriminated against by society (Fincher, 2016; Hwang, 2007). To gain recognition from society, divorced people pretend to be strong and seldom share their unhappiness and weakness with others (Hwang, 2007). Therefore, they are very concerned about the views of others, which places extra pressure on them. The findings show that divorced hospitality educators have a higher level of normative occupational commitment, perhaps because they want to be recognised by their family members, friends and society. They can gain respect from others through their occupation as hospitality educators. However, as mentioned previously, as only 12 respondents are in the divorced educator category, there is insufficient statistical strength to support this argument. Still, it may provide insight for future studies of divorced educators or employees in the Chinese community.

#### **7.4.6 Position**

This study predicts that position is closely related to hospitality educators' occupational commitment due to the differing job nature of positions. In the

academic field, positions differ drastically in job nature (Eley et al., 2012). Job nature is a key factor contributing to occupational commitment (Wan et al., 2014). Based on this, educators' positions should be linked to their occupational commitment. The findings of this study prove that positions are closely related to three dimensions of occupational commitment. First, there are significant differences in affective occupational commitment across various hospitality educator positions ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). Across all of the rankings, associate professors or higher positions have the greatest affective occupational commitment ( $\mu = 4.60$ ), while lecturers and instructors have the lowest affective occupational commitment ( $\mu = 4.49$ ) (shown in Table 7.12). This indicates that the higher ranking of hospitality educators results in a higher level of affective occupational commitment.

This may be due to the differing job nature across positions. The job nature of associate professors or higher positions is research-oriented, while that of lecturers and instructors is teaching-oriented. Associate professors and even professors may gain self-fulfilment through their research. In the focus group interviews, the educators also mentioned that they felt satisfied when they could help the hospitality industry through their research. Therefore, the finding proves that those with an associate professor position or higher have gained self-fulfilment through their work and thus have a high level of affective occupational commitment. Another possible reason for the result is that the hospitality educators in high positions in Hong Kong have a high level of self-competency. Hospitality educators in high positions have built up their self-competency through research, teaching and collaboration with colleagues and hospitality industry partners. Therefore, they find it relatively easier to gain enjoyment from their work.

***Table 7-12: The occupational commitment levels across hospitality educators in different positions in Hong Kong***

	Position	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AOC	Associate Professor or higher	41	4.6049	.55944	.08737
	Assistant Professor	93	4.3699	.40641	.04214
	Lecturer/Instructor	154	4.0779	.66796	.05383
	Teaching Assistant/Tutor	19	4.4947	.61235	.14048
	Others	7	4.0000	.00000	.00000
COC	Associate Professor or higher	41	3.5854	1.26443	.19747
	Assistant Professor	93	3.8710	.96938	.10052
	Lecturer/Instructor	154	3.5714	1.09579	.08830
	Teaching Assistant/Tutor	19	2.7895	.97633	.22399
	Others	7	4.0000	.00000	.00000
NOC	Associate Professor or higher	41	4.0244	.70864	.11067
	Assistant Professor	93	3.5520	1.08124	.11212
	Lecturer/Instructor	154	3.4848	1.02570	.08265
	Teaching Assistant/Tutor	19	3.6053	1.14424	.26251
	Others	7	3.9524	.12599	.04762

\*AOC = affective occupational commitment

\*COC = continuance occupational commitment

\*NOC = normative occupational commitment

In contrast, the finding shows that hospitality educators in low positions (e.g., lecturers and instructors) are unable to gain self-fulfilment through their work, perhaps because educators in low positions have not decided on hospitality education as their lifelong career. Therefore, they are not intrinsically committed to hospitality education. However, it may also be attributed to their job nature. As mentioned, hospitality educators' main duty is teaching, and when they are greatly concerned about their teaching, their job satisfaction and commitment are negatively affected (Huber, 2011; Thompson et al., 1997). Hospitality educators in low positions must monitor students' learning and development. They must also work hard on academic enhancement and research publications to get promoted in the industry. This may induce a severe workload. Therefore, institutions should provide support to enhance hospitality educators' job satisfaction and commitment (Kabungaidze et al., 2013).

The finding indicates that there are significant differences in continuance occupational commitment across various hospitality educator positions ( $p$  value =  $0.002 < 0.05$ ). Furthermore, there is no significant difference in continuance occupational commitment across positions, except for the position of teaching assistant, whose continuance occupational commitment ( $\mu = 2.79$ ) is significantly lower than others. Teaching assistants may have a lower investment cost of leaving due to their entry-level position in the hospitality education industry. When they put effort into enhancing their academic qualifications and improving their teaching quality and are promoted to lecturer/instructor or even higher positions, their continuance occupational commitment may increase.

The finding also shows significant differences in normative occupational commitment across various hospitality educator positions ( $p$  value =  $0.036 < 0.05$ ). Similar to the result for affective occupational commitment, the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in associate professor or higher positions is significantly higher than that of educators in other positions, perhaps because they are in a very high position and highly respected by society. As mentioned previously, higher education educators in the Chinese community are highly respected by society. When educators are in a high position, they are even more prestigious. However, at the same time, society places very high expectations on these educators, which may induce them to be more committed to hospitality education. Therefore, their normative occupational commitment is higher than that of others.

#### **7.4.7 Work Experience in the Hospitality Education Industry**

The findings show that work experience is significantly linked to the three dimensions of occupational commitment. This is consistent with previous studies, which found that work experience was significantly associated with occupational commitment (Major et al., 2013; Numminen et al., 2016). This study finds significant differences in affective occupational commitment across hospitality educators with different hospitality education work experience ( $p$  value =  $0.000 <$

0.05). Hospitality educators with less than five years of work experience have lower affective occupational commitment ( $\mu = 3.89$ ) (shown in Table 7.13). This shows that junior hospitality educators are less emotionally attached to the hospitality education industry than the more experienced hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This is due to the nature of education work. In the focus group interviews, educators mentioned that they felt satisfied when their students were inspired by their teaching. They also felt happy when the industry benefited from their research. However, it takes a long time for students to grow and establish their competency. Furthermore, it takes a long time to publish research. Therefore, junior hospitality educators may be unable to see the outcomes of their work and cannot gain self-fulfilment in the early stages of their careers. Educators may not be able to enjoy any self-fulfilment in the early stages of their career paths, as their students are still being educated in their institutions and their research is still under review. If they stay in the industry for a long period, they may gain self-fulfilment when their students recognise their teaching and other scholars and the industry appreciate their research. This explains why experienced hospitality educators are more emotionally attached to junior hospitality educators.

The findings also indicate significant differences in continuance occupational commitment across hospitality educators with different hospitality education work experience ( $p \text{ value} = 0.001 < 0.05$ ). This shows that hospitality work experience is positively associated with hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment. It makes sense that the perceived investment costs of leaving an occupation are high when educators have spent plenty of effort developing their careers over years. They may also be promoted to a high position in the industry. Therefore, the opportunity costs of leaving, such as tenure, are high for experienced hospitality educators, and more experienced hospitality educators have greater continuance occupational commitment.

**Table 7-13: The occupational commitment levels across hospitality educators with various hospitality education experience**

	Experience year	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AOC	<5	41	3.8683	.92153	.03660
	5 - <10	137	4.2584	.55049	.10402
	10 - <20	103	4.3631	.45223	.04214
	=>20	33	4.4828	.44567	.05383
COC	<5	41	3.2683	.92262	.03426
	5 - <10	137	3.5255	1.05077	.61962
	10 - <20	103	3.9223	1.00674	.19986
	=>20	33	3.6897	1.39139	.10052
NOC	<5	41	3.3089	1.05578	.00000
	5 - <10	137	3.4477	1.16083	.06149
	10 - <20	103	3.8285	.79605	.23306
	=>20	33	3.8966	.72977	.12579

\*AOC = affective occupational commitment

\*COC = continuance occupational commitment

\*NOC = normative occupational commitment

However, the findings show that hospitality educators with more than 20 years of work experience in hospitality education have lower continuance occupational commitment, perhaps because tenure or other extrinsic rewards are no longer their key concerns. They may seek self-fulfilment in work instead of extrinsic rewards. Therefore, their commitment is mainly induced by self-fulfilment and not the investment costs of leaving.

The findings indicate significant differences in normative occupational commitment across hospitality educators with different hospitality education work experience ( $p$  value =  $0.005 < 0.05$ ). This shows that experienced hospitality educators are more committed to the hospitality education industry because of the pressures external parties place on them. This may be due to the high expectations of society. Educators in higher education are highly respected in the Chinese community, but the community also places high expectations on them, which may induce them to be more committed to hospitality education. Therefore, their normative



occupational commitment is slightly higher than that of less experienced hospitality educators.

## **7.5 Summary of Chapter 7**

In summary, the findings show that educators with different demographic backgrounds and work experience have different levels of occupational commitment. This study specifically tests the three dimensions of occupational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) across educators with different demographic backgrounds. The findings related to occupational commitment level are discussed in the previous sections.

## **8. Chapter 8 – The Antecedent Differences in Occupational Commitment across Hospitality Educators with Various Demographic Characteristics**

### **8.1 Introduction to Chapter 8**

Chapter 7 highlights the levels of occupational commitment of hospitality educators with various demographic backgrounds. In addition, this study tests the differences in key antecedents of hospitality educators' occupational commitment. This chapter begins with a rationale for studying the antecedent differences in occupational commitment between hospitality educators with various demographic characteristics. It then highlights and discusses some interesting findings of the study.

### **8.2 The Rationale for Studying the Antecedent Differences in Occupational Commitment between Hospitality Educators**

Based on social cognitive career theory, demographic differences have significant influences throughout the career development process (Lent et al., 1994). The differences affect not only occupational commitment but also all of the career-related variables involved in the process. Studies have indicated the importance of studying the differences in antecedents across different demographic groups. For instance, Ruiz-Palomino et al. (2013) pointed out that employees with different personal characteristics had different self-actualisation levels. Akinpelu et al. (2011) revealed that perceptions of occupational prestige were affected by demographic variables such as age, gender, education background and related work experience. Hao and Lee (2016) indicated that the concerns of teachers could differ widely between people with various demographic characteristics such as age, gender and education. Ali et al. (2014) suggested that institutions must understand educators' demographic characteristics to create a positive perception of job characteristics. To provide appropriate support to educators, it is necessary to understand the change in career-related variables throughout the career

development process (Lent et al., 1994). As such, it is necessary to study differences in the key antecedents between hospitality educators with various demographic characteristics. Thus, this study investigates the differences in occupational commitment antecedents between hospitality educators using SPSS. Analysis shows that demographic variables have various influences on the key antecedents of occupational commitment. Table 8.1 summarises the key findings.

**Table 8-1: Summary of the key findings on the influence of demographic variables on the key antecedents of occupational commitment**

The Antecedents of occupational commitment		Demographic variables						
		Age	Gender	Marital status	Education background	Nationality	Position	Hospitality education work experience
Self-actualisation at work								
Perceived occupational prestige					√	√	√	√
Impact concerns		√	√			√	√	√
Perceived person-job fit					√		√	√
Perceived Job characteristics	Job skill variety		√		√	√	√	
	Task significance		√					√
	Feedback from job				√		√	√
	Job autonomy				√	√	√	
	Task identity						√	√

√ = significant difference

### **8.3 Self-actualisation at Work across Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators**

In this study, the differences in self-actualisation at work across various demographic groups are assessed. The findings show that the levels of self-actualisation at work across demographic groups of hospitality educators in Hong Kong are similar and exhibit no significant differences. This finding differs from the

study's prediction. Self-actualisation at work is a kind of psychological need that may change throughout one's career lifecycle (Maslow, 1943, 2013). Ruiz-Palomino et al. (2013) indicated that employees with different demographic personal characteristics should have different self-actualisation needs at work due to their career lifecycles. As such, this study predicts that self-actualisation levels may differ across hospitality educators with different demographic characteristics. The unexpected result may be due to the nature of higher education. Hospitality educators in higher education institutions are required to pursue knowledge enhancement continuously. They can gain self-fulfilment and meaningfulness in their lives through self-enhancement and eventually reach a high self-actualisation level (Zholdasbekov et al., 2014). When they decide to join the industry, they should have a certain level of self-actualisation no matter which positions they are in. Therefore, there is no significant difference between hospitality educators with different demographic characteristics. The results are shown in detail in the following sections.

### **8.3.1 Gender**

The findings indicate no significant difference in self-actualisation at work between male and female hospitality educators ( $p$  value =  $0.076 > 0.05$ ). This means that female and male hospitality educators have similar levels of self-actualisation needs at work. Male hospitality educators' self-actualisation at work ( $\mu = 4.02$ ) is slightly higher than that of female hospitality educators ( $\mu = 3.92$ ), but the difference is not significant. This implies that both female and male hospitality educators need sufficient and adequate support and opportunities to fulfil their self-actualisation needs at work. In fact, equal career development opportunities for both Chinese women and men have been promoted in past years (Schmid, 2014). However, it is insufficient to support female hospitality educators in pursuing their self-actualisation needs at work in their occupations. In Chinese society, women are expected to focus on their families (Gaetano, 2014). If they want to enhance their careers, they must ensure that their families are not affected. Therefore, Chinese women encounter great family-related barriers when developing their

career in Chinese society. Other than equal career opportunities, institutions should provide adequate support for female hospitality educators in Hong Kong to overcome these barriers so that they can gain self-fulfilment through their work and contribute to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

### **8.3.2 Nationality**

The findings indicate no significant difference in self-actualisation at work across hospitality educators with different nationalities ( $p \text{ value} = 0.095 > 0.05$ ). This study predicts that hospitality educators with different nationalities have different levels of self-actualisation at work due to cultural differences. Asian and especially Chinese culture emphasises collectivism, while Western culture has strong individualistic characteristics (Oyserman, 2011; Zha et al., 2006). Asian people tend to be concerned about the shared benefits of their family, while Western people tend to focus on self-fulfilment and self-actualisation through their work (DeCapua and Marshall, 2011). The high level of self-actualisation at work may motivate educators to move to Hong Kong from their home countries, even if it means sacrificing their friends and previous jobs. It also motivates them to overcome the challenge of the cultural differences between Hong Kong and their home countries. Therefore, the level of self-actualisation at work of non-Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong should be higher than that of Chinese hospitality educators.

However, the findings show that Chinese and Asian hospitality educators have similar levels of self-actualisation at work to non-Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This implies that hospitality educators in Hong Kong equally desire self-fulfilment in work, perhaps due to the perceived important roles of educators in the Chinese community. In Chinese culture, society always recognises educators as moral figures and role models for students (Fwu and Wang, 2002). Given their high recognition in society, Chinese hospitality educators may pursue a higher level of need: self-actualisation needs at work. It is believed that self-actualisation increases when the needs of competency, social belonging and

autonomy have been fulfilled (Deci and Ryan, 1985). This explains why hospitality educators with different nationalities have similar levels of self-actualisation at work.

### **8.3.3 Work Experience in the Hospitality Education Industry**

The findings indicate no significant difference in self-actualisation at work across hospitality educators with varying work experience in the hospitality education industry ( $p \text{ value} = 0.057 > 0.05$ ). This implies that hospitality educators with varying hospitality education work experience have similar levels of self-actualisation at work. The result is consistent with the results related to position and age. Experienced hospitality educators build up their careers and are promoted to higher positions. If the levels of self-actualisation at work are similar across hospitality educators in all position and age groups, they should also be the same across hospitality educators with varying hospitality education work experience. Therefore, this result is reasonable.

To conclude, hospitality educators have similar levels of self-actualisation at work across various demographic groups. Their affective occupational commitment should also be similar. Affective occupational commitment is related to hospitality educators' emotional attachment to their occupation (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993; Mowday et al., 1979). If they have the same level of self-actualisation at work, they should be equally emotionally attached and committed to their occupation. Thus, various demographic groups of hospitality educators should also have the same affective occupational commitment. However, the results show that their affective occupational commitment differs. Based on this argument, some factors may influence hospitality educators to pursue their self-actualisation at work.

## **8.4 Perceived Occupational Prestige across Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators**

This section presents the differences in perceived occupational prestige across various demographic groups of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Akinpelu et al. (2011) pointed out that demographic variables significantly influenced perceived occupational prestige. Perceptions of occupational prestige can vary widely across different age, gender and education and work experience groups (Akinpelu et al., 2011). This study obtains a similar result. The findings show that perceived occupational prestige is significantly related to hospitality educators' education background, nationality, positions and work experience but not closely related to their gender, marital status and age differences. This implies that people in the same occupation may perceive their occupation prestige differently based on their education, nationality and occupation position. This helps us to better understand perceived occupational prestige. The following sections provide a detailed demographic analysis of the perceived occupational prestige of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

### **8.4.1 Education Background**

The findings show significant differences in self-actualisation at work across hospitality educators with different nationalities ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). Compared with hospitality educators with Master's degrees in Hong Kong ( $\mu = 3.66$ ), hospitality educators with doctoral degrees ( $\mu = 4.05$ ) have a stronger perception that hospitality education is a prestigious occupation (shown in Table 8.2). Chinese culture also explains this point. In Chinese culture, occupations with high education requirements are respectful in the Chinese community (Choi, 2014). Of the 172 main survey respondents with doctoral degrees, 126 (73%) have assistant professor or higher positions in which research publication and collaboration with the hospitality industry are among their main duties. Their work requires high academic qualifications. They contribute to society through not only their teaching but also their research publications and collaboration with the

hospitality industry. This may make them feel that their occupation is prestigious. In contrast, 89% of the respondents with Master's degrees (127 out of 142 respondents) have lecturer/instructor or lower positions in which teaching is their main duty. This may make them feel that they are less prestigious than hospitality educators with doctoral degrees. Therefore, their level of perceived occupational prestige is lower than that of hospitality educators with doctoral degrees. Based on this argument, it can be predicted that perceived occupational prestige is closely related to the positions of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

*Table 8-2: Perceived occupational prestige across hospitality educators in Hong Kong with different education background*

	Education	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OP	Master	142	3.6620	.86561	.07264
	Doctoral	172	4.0504	.53139	.04052

\*OP = Occupational Prestige

#### **8.4.2 Nationality**

The findings show significant differences in perceived occupational prestige across hospitality educators with different nationalities ( $p$  value =  $0.036 < 0.05$ ). The level of perceived occupational prestige of Chinese hospitality educators ( $\mu = 4.18$ ) is significantly lower than that of Asian ( $\mu = 4.44$ ) and non-Asian ( $\mu = 4.42$ ) hospitality educators (shown in Table 8.3). This reflects the conflict between perceptions of the hospitality education industry and the reality of that industry, as mentioned in the literature review. As educators in universities, hospitality educators are highly respected by society. However, Hong Kong society considers hospitality education as non-mainstream education because service jobs are usually perceived as non-professional and low-skilled occupations in the Chinese community (Wong, 2017b). Hospitality education is commonly considered a non-professional stream of education and always relegated to a secondary position. Given the strong influence of Chinese tradition, Chinese hospitality educators may



perceive that they are less prestigious than other educators in other mainstream faculties.

In contrast, non-Chinese hospitality educators grown without the influence of Chinese traditional culture may not perceive service jobs as non-professional and low-skilled occupations. The rapid growth of the hospitality and tourism industry in Hong Kong and mainland China may positively influence their perception of the hospitality industry in Hong Kong. Furthermore, foreigners are always respected in Chinese society. Foreign hospitality educators may feel that they are even more prestigious in Hong Kong. Therefore, their perceived occupational prestige is higher than that of Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Few studies have considered the perceived social status of foreigners in the Chinese community. This may provide insight for future study.

**Table 8-3: Perceived occupational prestige across varying nationalities of hospitality educators in Hong Kong**

	Nationality	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OP	Chinese	221	4.1828	.64939	.04368
	Asian	43	4.4465	.45948	.07007
	Non-Asian	50	4.4200	.44309	.06266

\*OP = Occupational Prestige

### **8.4.3 Position**

The findings show significant differences in perceived occupational prestige across hospitality educators in different positions ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). The perceived occupational prestige of the hospitality educators in lecturer and instructor positions ( $\mu = 3.67$ ) is significantly lower than that of assistant professors or above ( $\mu = 4.14$ ) (shown in Table 8.4). This is consistent with the qualitative results. As mentioned previously, the main duties of those with assistant professor positions or higher are teaching, research publication and collaboration with the hospitality industry. Their work requires high academic qualifications. They contribute to society through not only their teaching but also their research

publications and collaboration with the hospitality industry (Azer et al., 2016; Bavdekar and Tullu, 2016). This may make them feel that their occupation is prestigious. In contrast, lecturers and instructors' main duty is teaching. This may make them feel that they are less prestigious than hospitality educators in higher positions. As lecturers and instructors are required to have a doctoral degree to get promoted, a clear gap is created between lecturers/instructors and assistant professors or higher. They may perceive themselves as teaching staff but not academics. Therefore, their perceived occupational prestige is significantly lower than that of educators in assistant professor or higher positions.

The perceived occupational prestige of hospitality educators in teaching assistant and tutor positions ( $\mu = 4.00$ ) is slightly higher than that of lecturers and instructors ( $\mu = 3.67$ ), perhaps because teaching assistants and tutors have newly joined the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong and their perceived occupational prestige is significantly influenced by Chinese culture. As educators in the higher education sector, they may perceive that they are prestigious and highly respected by the Chinese community. When they stay in the industry for a certain period, they may recognise the gap between themselves and assistant professors or higher. However, the difference is not significant ( $p \text{ value} = 0.072 > 0.05$ ), which implies that the levels of perceived occupational prestige are similar for lecturers/instructors and teaching assistants/tutors.

***Table 8-4: Perceived occupational prestige across various hospitality educator positions in Hong Kong***

	Positions	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OP	Associate Professor or higher	41	4.1402	.55915	.08733
	Assistant Professor	93	4.1353	.32132	.03332
	Lecturer/Instructor	154	3.6688	.83507	.06729
	Teaching Assistant/Tutor	19	3.9965	.69181	.15871
	Others	7	2.7857	.75132	.28397

\*OP = Occupational Prestige

#### 8.4.4 Work Experience in the Hospitality Education Industry

The findings also show significant differences in perceived occupational prestige across hospitality educators in different positions ( $p$  value =  $0.026 < 0.05$ ). More experienced hospitality educators in Hong Kong have higher levels of perceived occupational prestige. The perceived occupational prestige of hospitality educators with more than 20 years of work experience ( $\mu = 3.98$ ) is the highest, while that of hospitality educators with less than five years of work experience is the lowest ( $\mu = 3.60$ ) (shown in Table 8.5). In particular, the perceived occupational prestige of hospitality educators with less than five years of work experience is significantly lower than that of other groups of experienced educators. The result is consistent with the previous parts of the analysis.

Table 8-5: Perceived occupational prestige across hospitality educators with various hospitality education experience

	Work experience year	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OP	<5	41	3.5996	1.01126	.15793
	5 - <10	137	3.9252	.66053	.05643
	10 - <20	103	3.9142	.67150	.06616
	=>20	33	3.9799	.67357	.12508

\*OP = Occupational Prestige

Hospitality educators with less than five years of work experience are mainly new joiners of the hospitality education industry and mainly hold lecturer or lower positions (32 out of 41 respondents). As mentioned in the previous section, hospitality educators in lecturer or lower positions perceive themselves as teaching staff but not academics, as their main duty is teaching. They may feel that they are less prestigious than the educators in assistant professor or higher positions. Although some of them are assistant professors (9 out of 41 respondents), they are relatively junior in that they may not have many research publications or collaborations with the hospitality industry. They need more time to be recognised by the community. This may make them feel less prestigious than the more experienced hospitality educators. However, the more experienced

hospitality educators have built up their careers and been promoted to higher positions. They are more recognised by their schools and society as having a higher perceived occupational prestige.

## **8.5 Impact Concerns across Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators**

This study also investigates the differences in impact concerns across various demographic groups of hospitality educators. Impact concerns refer to teachers' apprehensive concerns about the impact of their teaching on students, such as motivating students to learn and handling student diversity (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004; Dunn et al., 2013; Teachout and McKoy, 2010). According to teacher concerns theory, educators have three main types of concerns: self-concerns, task concerns and impact concerns (Fuller and Bown, 1975). Educators' concerns appear in different stages of their career development process and are affected by demographics such as gender, age and education (Hao and Lee, 2016). For instance, Stair et al. (2016) found that junior educators had greater impact concerns that decreased throughout their education career development. Based on this, hospitality educators' impact concerns should be closely related to their demographic differences. This study arrives at similar findings. Impact concerns are closely related to gender, nationality, age, position and work experience in the hospitality education industry but not to marital status and education. The following sections detail the analysis results.

### **8.5.1 Gender**

The findings also show a significant difference in impact concerns between male and female hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.003 < 0.05$ ). Female hospitality educators ( $\mu = 4.22$ ) have greater impact concerns than male hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $\mu = 4.02$ ) (shown in Table 8.6). In previous studies, the link between impact concerns and gender differences was unclear. While some scholars (e.g. Cho et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2011) have indicated that female educators have higher levels of impact concerns than male educators, some

scholars (e.g. Haritos, 2004; Pigge and Marso, 1997) have revealed that female and male educators have similar level of impact concerns.

This study finds that female hospitality educators have greater concerns than male hospitality educators in Hong Kong, perhaps due to the perceived role of women in Chinese tradition. According to Chinese tradition, women are expected to be more committed to their families and take care of their family members (Cooke, 2007). This may be why Chinese women establish caring personalities. Given the strong influence of Chinese culture, female hospitality educators in Hong Kong may care strongly about student growth. Therefore, female hospitality educators' impact concerns are greater than those of male hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

***Table 8-6: Impact concerns of male and female hospitality educators in Hong Kong***

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
IC	Male	138	4.0217	.60171	.05122
	Female	176	4.2159	.70200	.05291

\*IC = Impact concerns

### **8.5.2 Nationality**

The findings indicate significant differences in impact concerns across hospitality educators with different nationalities ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). Chinese ( $\mu = 4.450$ ) and Asian hospitality educators ( $\mu = 4.53$ ) have greater impact concerns than non-Asian hospitality educators (shown in Table 8.7). There is no significant difference between the impact concerns of Chinese and Asian hospitality educators ( $p$  value =  $0.789 > 0.05$ ), perhaps because Chinese and Asian hospitality educators are significantly influenced by Chinese and Asian cultures. As mentioned, both Chinese and Asian cultures have a strong sense of collectivism (Chao, 1994). For instance, Chinese and Asian hospitality educators are greatly concerned about how students perceive their teaching quality and how their teaching influences the students' learning. Therefore, they have high expectations.

**Table 8-7: Impact concerns across hospitality educators with different nationalities in Hong Kong**

	Nationality	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
IC	Chinese	221	4.4799	.62937	.04234
	Asian	43	4.5271	.45561	.06948
	Others	50	4.0133	.84370	.11932

\*IC = Impact concerns

### 8.5.3 Age

The findings indicate significant differences in impact concerns across various age groups of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). The results show that younger hospitality educators have greater impact concerns. Hospitality educators below 30 years old have the greatest impact concerns ( $\mu = 4.57$ ) and those above 51 years old have the lowest impact concerns ( $\mu = 3.84$ ) (shown in Table 8.8). Younger hospitality educators may be concerned about the contribution they make through their impact on students. As mentioned earlier, young hospitality educators mainly hold lecturer or below positions in which their main responsibility is to provide quality teaching to their students and enhance their learning. The impact of their teaching on students is a key indicator of the quality of their work performance. Therefore, they have great impact concerns.

**Table 8-8: Impact concerns across hospitality educators with different nationalities in Hong Kong**

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
IC	<=30	32	4.5729	.29614	.05235
	31-40	129	4.1085	.70114	.06173
	41-50	103	4.1618	.46877	.04619
	51 or above	50	3.8400	.90411	.12786

\*IC = Impact concerns

In contrast, other than teaching, research publication and collaboration with the hospitality industry are the main job duties of senior hospitality educators. Thus,

beyond students' learning, they are concerned about making significant contributions to society. Therefore, their impact concerns are relatively lower.

#### 8.5.4 Marital Status

The results show significant differences in impact concerns across hospitality educators with varying marital statuses ( $p$  value = 0.002 < 0.05). Single hospitality educators have the greatest impact concerns ( $\mu$  = 4.31), while married hospitality educators have the lowest impact concerns ( $\mu$  = 4.03) (shown in Table 8.9). This shows that family status may influence the impact concerns of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The lower impact concerns of married hospitality educators may be caused by work-family conflict. Although the link between impact concerns and work-family conflict has yet to be proved, work-family conflict is recognised as a factor in educators' commitment (Johnston et al., 1999). When educators are required to pay great amounts of attention to their family issues, they unavoidably pay less attention to their students. Therefore, their impact concerns are lower than those of single hospitality educators.

*Table 8-9: Impact concerns across hospitality educators with different marital statuses in Hong Kong*

	Marital status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
IC	Single	107	4.3053	.41744	.04036
	Married	195	4.0274	.76158	.05454
	Divorced	12	4.2500	.45227	.13056
	51 or above	50	3.8400	.90411	.12786

\*IC = Impact concerns

#### 8.5.5 Position

The results indicate that there are significant differences in impact concerns across hospitality educators with various positions ( $p$  value = 0.000 < 0.05). Hospitality educators in low positions have greater impact concerns than hospitality educators in high positions (shown in Table 8.10). In particular, teaching assistants have the greatest impact concerns ( $\mu$  = 4.67). This is consistent with the age-related

findings. The main duty of hospitality educators in low positions is to provide quality teaching to their students and enhance their learning. Therefore, they have great impact concerns. The main duty of hospitality educators in high positions has switched from teaching to research and supervision of research students. Their concerns are no longer limited to impact concerns. The concerns of hospitality educators in high positions have switched from concerns about students' learning to broader concerns about their impacts on the hospitality and hospitality education industries through their research and supervision of doctoral students. The definition of the term 'impact concern' limits its application to the impact of their teaching on students (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004), Therefore, the impact concerns of hospitality educators in high positions is lower than that of hospitality educators in low positions.

***Table 8-10: Impact concerns across hospitality educators in different positions in Hong Kong***

	Position	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
IC	Associate Professor or higher	41	3.7172	.92467	.16096
	Assistant Professor	93	4.2079	.49371	.05120
	Lecturer/Instructor	154	4.1450	.59887	.04826
	Teaching Assistant	19	4.6667	.36851	.08454

\*IC = Impact concerns

### **8.5.6 Work Experience in the Hospitality Education Industry**

The results indicate significant differences in impact concerns across hospitality educators with varying work experience in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong ( $p$  value = 0.000 < 0.05). Table 8.11 shows the results. Hospitality educators with less work experience in the hospitality education industry have greater impact concerns than experienced hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Consistent with the results related to age and position, experienced hospitality educators have built up their careers and been promoted to higher positions.



However, this differs from teacher concerns theory. According to the theory, in the early stages of their education careers, educators have a high level of self-concern; they are greatly concerned about their self-image as educators and about their survival in the education industry (Kim et al., 2011). In the middle stages of their education careers, educators shift their concerns from self-concern to task concerns. Task concerns are related to their ability to use their skills in their teaching and job-related tasks. Ultimately, educators' concerns shift further from task concerns to impact concerns (Cakmak, 2008). They become greatly concerned about their impact on students' learning development.

However, the analysis results indicate the reverse, perhaps due to the job nature of hospitality higher education. As most experienced hospitality educators are in assistant professor or higher positions, their job duties are not limited to teaching, but also include research and collaboration with the hospitality industry. Experienced hospitality educators' concerns are not limited to their impact on students' learning, but also include their impacts on the hospitality and hospitality education industries through their research and supervision of doctoral students. Hospitality educators with less work experience in the hospitality education industry mainly work in low positions in which their main duty is teaching. Therefore, hospitality educators with less work experience have greater impact concerns.

**Table 8-11: Impact concerns across hospitality educators with varying work experience in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong**

	Work experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
IC	<5	41	4.1220	.91517	.14293
	5 - <10	137	4.2263	.51756	.04422
	10 - <20	103	4.1489	.43217	.04258
	=>20	33	3.8736	.96943	.18002

\*IC = Impact concerns

## **8.6 Perceived Person-job Fit across Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators**

We also investigated the perceived person-job fit differences across various demographic groups of hospitality educators. Perceived person-job fit is related to an individual's level of congruence or compatibility with his or her job (Edwards, 1991). The congruence between individuals and their jobs is affected by demographic variables such as gender and education (Park et al., 2011). Understanding the effect of demographic variables on the congruence between hospitality educators and their jobs may help to enhance their perceived person-job fit. This study arrives at similar findings, which show that perceived person-job fit is closely related to hospitality educators' education, position and work experience but unrelated to their gender, nationality, age and marital status. The following sections detail the results of the analysis of perceived person-job fit.

### **8.6.1 Education Background**

The findings show significant difference in perceived person-job fit across hospitality educators with various education backgrounds (the  $p\text{-value} = 0.000 < 0.05$ ). This implies that the perceived person-job fit of hospitality educators with doctoral degrees ( $\mu = 4.22$ ) is significantly higher than that of hospitality educators with Master's degrees ( $\mu = 3.83$ ) (shown in Table 8.12). Hospitality educators with doctoral degrees have a stronger feeling that they are a good fit for their occupations than hospitality educators with Master's degrees. The result is reasonable. As mentioned in the literature review, hospitality educators are required to meet demands from various parties including their institutions, students and the hospitality industry. They must provide quality teaching to their students, meet the research publication requirements of their institutions and contribute to the hospitality industry through collaboration with hospitality partners. To meet the demands, academic qualifications are an important factor in their job competency. For instance, the research competency of hospitality educators with doctoral degrees is higher than that of hospitality educators with Master's degrees. This

explains why hospitality educators with doctoral degrees have a stronger feeling that they are a good fit for their occupations than hospitality educators with Master's degrees.

**Table 8-12: Perceived person-job fit across hospitality educators with various education background**

	Education background	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PJ_Fit t	Master	142	3.8296	.81265	.16096
	Doctoral	172	4.2151	.44800	.05120

\* PJ\_Fit = Perceived person-job fit

### **8.6.2 Nationality**

The findings show no significant difference in perceived person-job fit across hospitality educators with different nationalities ( $p$  value =  $0.218 > 0.05$ ). This implies that hospitality educators with different nationalities have similar levels of perceived person-job fit. Studies have investigated the link between perceived person-job fit and nationality. However, one of the key characteristics of the hospitality education career is high mobility across institutions (Baruch, 2004; Goldhaber et al., 2011; Ladkin and Weber, 2009). Academics seek career advancement through networking, knowledge sharing and career advancement opportunities across institutions (Baruch and Hall, 2004; Williams and Mavin, 2015). Given high mobility characteristics, hospitality educators' nationality becomes unimportant for their job competency. Their work is not limited by geographical factors. For example, hospitality educators' research ability should be closely related to their academic backgrounds and experience instead of their nationality because research publication is internationally recognised. Educators' nationality may not be related to their research ability. This explains the weak link between perceived person-job fit and nationality.

### 8.6.3 Position

The findings show significant differences in person-job fit across hospitality educators in various positions ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). Hospitality educators in high positions have a stronger feeling that they are a good fit for their occupation. The means of assistant professor and associate professor or higher positions are 4.21 and 4.56, respectively (shown in Table 8.13). The mean of instructors and lecturers is the lowest ( $\mu = 3.90$ ), which means that their perceived person job fit is weak. As mentioned earlier, 89% of the respondents with Master's degrees (127 out of 142 respondents) hold lecturer/instructor or lower positions. As educators in the higher education sector, Master's degree qualification is not enough for them to pursue a career in the industry. Without a doctoral degree, they may become stuck in their career enhancement efforts. To develop their careers in the hospitality education industry, they must further pursue doctoral degrees and knowledge enhancement to fulfil the promotion requirement. Therefore, they perceive that they are not a good fit for their occupation.

*Table 8-13: Perceived person-job fit differences across hospitality educators in various positions*

	Education background	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PJ_Fit	Associate Professor or higher	41	4.5636	.62341	.10852
	Assistant Professor	93	4.2129	.38199	.03961
	Lecturer/Instructor	154	3.9039	.77383	.06236
	Teaching Assistant	19	4.0211	.50286	.11536

\* PJ\_Fit = Perceived person-job fit

### 8.6.4 Work Experience in the Hospitality Education Industry

The findings indicate significant differences in perceived person-job fit across hospitality educators with varying work experience in the hospitality education industry ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). This implies that experienced hospitality educators have a stronger feeling that they are a good fit for hospitality education.

Hospitality educators with more than five years of experience in the hospitality education industry have a stronger feeling that they are a good fit than hospitality educators with less than five years of working experience (shown in Table 8.14). Studies have recognised work experience as a key antecedent of perceived person-job fit (e.g., Kristof-Brown, 2000; Werbel and Gilliland, 1999). Teaching skills, research techniques and the skill of communicating with hospitality industry partners are enhanced by gaining work experience in the hospitality education industry. Experienced hospitality educators with strong job competency may reasonably perceive that they are a good fit for the hospitality education industry.

***Table 8-14: Perceived person-job fit differences across hospitality educators with varying work experience in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong***

	Work experience years	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PJ_Fit	<5	41	3.5756	1.06695	.16663
	5 - <10	137	4.1095	.58509	.04999
	10 - <20	103	4.0854	.51685	.05093
	=>20	29	4.2138	.55274	.10264

\* PJ\_Fit = Perceived person-job fit

## **8.7 Perceived Job Characteristics across Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators**

The last key antecedent is job characteristics. The perceptions of job characteristics and demographic characteristics are significantly correlated (Ali et al., 2014; Said and Munap, 2010). Understanding demographic characteristics may help to inspire positive perceptions of job characteristics (Chen et al., 2017b). Therefore, this study investigates the differences in perceived job characteristics across various demographic groups of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The key findings are highlighted in the following sections.

### 8.7.1 Gender

**Job skill variety:** The significance (p value) of the t-test is 0.000 ( $<0.05$ ), implying that male ( $\mu = 4.29$ ) and female ( $\mu = 4.02$ ) hospitality educators perceive the variety of skills needed for their jobs differently. This shows that male hospitality educators in Hong Kong feel they need to apply more job skills in their occupation than do female hospitality educators. This may be related to their position in hospitality education industry. Table 8.15 shows that male hospitality educators are working in higher positions than female hospitality educators. Overall, 31 of the 41 focus group interview participants who have associate professor or higher positions are male. Supposedly, a higher position requires greater job skill variety. Therefore, male hospitality educators in Hong Kong feel that their job allows them to apply a greater variety of skills than do female hospitality educators. This result is consistent with the position part of the analysis.

*Table 8-15: Relationship between gender and positions*

	Position				
	Associate Professor or above	Assistant Professor	Lecturer/Instructor	Teaching Assistant	Others
	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
Gender Male	31	39	57	4	7
Female	10	54	97	15	0

**Task significance:** The significance (p value) of the t-test is 0.001 ( $<0.05$ ), which implies that the task significances of the male ( $\mu = 4.13$ ) and female participants ( $\mu = 4.13$ ) differ significantly. The male hospitality educators have a stronger feeling that their work is important and has a substantial impact on other people (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). As mentioned for job skill variety, many male hospitality educators are working in high positions in the hospitality education industry. Their job duties include teaching, supervising postgraduate research

students, publishing research and collaborating with the hospitality industry. They influence their students through teaching and supervision. They also contribute to society through research publications and collaboration with the hospitality industry. Therefore, they feel their work is important.

### **8.7.2 Education Background**

**Feedback from job:** The significance (p value) of the t-test is 0.000 ( $<0.05$ ), which implies that hospitality educators with doctoral degrees ( $\mu = 4.01$ ) perceive that they can gain more feedback from job than those with Master's degrees ( $\mu = 3.71$ ). Job nature explains this point. As mentioned earlier, hospitality educators with doctoral degrees are mainly in higher positions, so their duties include not only teaching but also research and other services for both institutions and the industry. Hospitality educators with doctoral degrees are required to work with various parties that provide more channels for them to gain feedback on their work performance. Hospitality educators without doctoral degrees mainly have low positions in the hospitality education industry, so their main duty is teaching. They gain feedback on their performance only through student evaluations and their students' development, which is sometimes difficult to quantify. Therefore, they have lower levels of feedback from job.

**Job skill variety:** The significance (p value) of the t-test is 0.000 ( $<0.05$ ), which implies that hospitality educators with doctoral degrees ( $\mu = 4.36$ ) may be required to apply various professional skills on the job compared with hospitality educators with Master's degrees ( $\mu = 3.86$ ). Job nature also explains this point. As mentioned earlier, educators with doctoral degrees mainly have higher positions that involve various duties including teaching, research and other services for both institutions and the industry. Therefore, hospitality educators with doctoral degrees are required to apply more skills and knowledge to complete their jobs and to fulfil the expectations of various parties.

**Job autonomy:** The significance (p value) of the t-test is 0.000 ( $<0.05$ ), which implies that hospitality educators with doctoral degrees ( $\mu = 4.38$ ) have greater job autonomy than hospitality educators with Master's degrees ( $\mu = 4.01$ ). The result is reasonable. As mentioned earlier, educators without doctoral degrees mainly have low positions in the hospitality education industry, and their main duty is teaching. The curricula restrict their teaching content and assessment method. Their teaching schedule is also assigned by their institution, which limits their job autonomy. In contrast, educators with doctoral degrees have high job autonomy because their work, such as research or consultancy for the industry, allows them greater control of their work. They can determine the time, place and way to complete their research and consultancy work.

### 8.7.3 Nationality

**Job skill variety:** Job skill variety exhibits significance differences across hospitality educator nationalities (p value =  $0.002 < 0.05$ ). Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong have the lowest mean ( $\mu = 4.04$ ). Asian ( $\mu = 4.35$ ) and non-Asian ( $\mu = 4.38$ ) hospitality educators exhibit no significant difference in job skill variety (p value =  $0.997 > 0.05$ ), which implies that Chinese and non-Asian hospitality educators think they need to apply a greater variety of skills in their jobs. This may be related to the culture in Hong Kong. As Hong Kong is a Chinese community that is significantly influenced by Chinese culture, it is easier for Chinese people to work in Hong Kong and adopt the Hong Kong culture. Non-Chinese hospitality educators may require more effort and skills such as communication skills to handle their work duties. Therefore, their job skill variety is high.

**Job autonomy:** Job autonomy exhibits significance differences across hospitality educator nationalities (p value =  $0.009 < 0.05$ ). Non-Asian hospitality educators feel they have the greatest job autonomy ( $\mu = 4.47$ ). There is no significant difference in job autonomy between Chinese ( $\mu = 4.17$ ) and Asian ( $\mu = 4.12$ ) hospitality educators (p value =  $0.971 < 0.05$ ), perhaps due to Asian culture. Given



the strong sense of collectivism in Asian culture, Asian hospitality educators may be more concerned about power distance (Chao, 1994). Although their occupation has a high degree of autonomy, they may hesitate to enjoy that autonomy, and their behaviour is limited by power distance (DeCarlo and Agarwal, 1999; Liu et al., 2011). This explains why Asian and Chinese hospitality educators perceive a low level of job autonomy while non-Asian hospitality educators perceive a high level.

#### **8.7.4 Position**

**Feedback from job:** Feedback from job exhibits significance differences across various hospitality educator positions ( $p$  value = 0.000 <0.05). Hospitality educators who have assistant professor or higher positions have a stronger feeling that they can gain meaningful feedback from job to let them know how well they are performing their work. The mean range is from 4.11 to 4.63. Lecturers and instructors have weaker such feelings ( $\mu$  = 3.69). This result is consistent with the discussion in the previous sections. As the main duty of hospitality educators with low positions is teaching, they can gain performance feedback only through student evaluations and their students' development, although this is sometimes difficult to quantify. Therefore, hospitality educators with low positions have lower levels of feedback from job. In contrast, the job duties of hospitality educators with high positions include not only teaching but also research, research student supervision and other services for both institutions and the industry. This provides more channels for the educators to gain feedback on their work performance. Therefore, they feel they gain sufficient feedback from job.

**Job skill variety:** Job skill variety exhibits significant differences across various hospitality educator positions ( $p$  value = 0.000 <0.05). Hospitality educators with assistant professor or higher positions are significantly more likely to think they can apply various job skills and knowledge to their jobs ( $\mu$  = 4.35 and higher) than lecturers/instructors ( $\mu$  = 3.89) and teaching assistants ( $\mu$  = 3.34). The result is consistent with the previous section. The job duties of hospitality educators with

high positions are diverse, requiring the educators to apply various professional skills and knowledge to their occupations. Research is one of the main duties of educators with assistant professor or above positions. Therefore, there is a significant difference in job skill variety between assistant professor and higher positions and lecturer and lower positions.

**Task identity:** Task identity exhibits a significant difference across various hospitality educator positions ( $p$  value = 0.000 < 0.05). Hospitality educators with associate professor or higher positions in Hong Kong have the strongest feeling ( $\mu = 3.89$ ) that they must complete a whole work or identifiable pieces of a work in their job compared with hospitality educators with other positions, perhaps due to their work competency. As they have accumulated their experiences and professional knowledge, they have become capable of completing their work on their own. For instance, educators with associate professor or higher positions have a strong ability to publish research. Without rich research experience, junior researchers may need to collaborate with other researchers for research publications. Therefore, they perceive a lower level of task identity in their jobs.

**Job autonomy:** Job autonomy exhibits significant differences across various positions of hospitality educators ( $p$  value = 0.000 < 0.05). Hospitality educators with associate professor or higher positions ( $\mu = 4.59$ ) feel that they enjoy a high level of job autonomy, while those with assistant professor or lower positions do not feel that they have much autonomy in their jobs ( $\mu = 4.24$  or lower). This finding is consistent with previous sections (e.g., marital status). It is also consistent with the findings of previous studies. Educators with high positions have greater job autonomy than do educators with low positions (Liu et al., 2008). Educators with doctoral degrees have high job autonomy because their work, such as research or consultancy for the industry, allows them greater control. They can determine the time, place and way to complete their research and consultancy work. In contrast, the main duty of hospitality educators with low positions is teaching,

which limits their job autonomy due to the regular teaching schedule. Therefore, hospitality educators with higher positions can enjoy greater job autonomy.

#### **8.7.5 Work Experience in the Hospitality Education Industry**

**Feedback from job:** Feedback from job exhibits significant differences across hospitality educators with varying work experience in hospitality education ( $p$  value =  $0.042 < 0.05$ ). Hospitality educators with less than five years of hospitality education work experience receive insufficient meaningful feedback from job. Studies have arrived at similar findings. Hospitality educators must gain feedback on their performance through their work experience (Eskildsen and Dahlgaard, 2000). Education is a long-term service, and hospitality educators may need to spend a long time asserting the outcome of their performance. This may take years given the long-term nature of students' development process.

As mentioned previously, more experienced hospitality educators should be promoted to higher positions in the hospitality education industry. They may become involved in various duties including teaching, research, research student supervision and other services for both institutions and the industry. This provides various channels for them to gain information about their performance. Therefore, they receive more feedback from job than less experienced hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

**Task significance:** Task significance exhibits significant differences across hospitality educators with varying work experience in hospitality education ( $p$  value =  $0.029 < 0.05$ ). The findings show that more experienced hospitality educators strongly believe that their work makes a significant contribution to or impact on the lives or work of other people through their occupations. This may be because experienced hospitality educators have built up their careers in the hospitality education industry and can contribute to society through their research, consultation service and teaching.

**Task identity:** Task identity exhibits significant differences across hospitality educators with varying work experience in hospitality education ( $p$  value = 0.009 < 0.05). The findings show that experienced hospitality educators perceive a higher level of task identity. As mentioned in the previous section, experienced hospitality educators may accumulate enough experience and professional knowledge to believe that their work competency is strong enough for them to complete all of their work on their own. Without rich hospitality education experience, junior hospitality educators may need to collaborate with colleagues to complete their work. Work such as teaching is difficult to divide into identifiable parts. Therefore, junior hospitality educators perceive a lower level of Task identity in their jobs.

## 8.8 Discussion

Chapters 7 and 8 present the differences in occupational commitment and its antecedents across hospitality educators with various demographic characteristics. The findings show that demographic variables have various levels of impact on occupational commitment and its antecedents (summary shown in Tables 7.6 and 8.1). Several insights are provided. First, hospitality educators with doctoral degrees have greater affective occupational commitment than hospitality educators with Master's degrees. However, they have similar levels of continuance and normative occupational commitment. This implies that doctoral degrees are not perceived as an investment cost, but as a motivator for hospitality educators to emotionally attach themselves to hospitality education as their occupation. Pursuing a doctoral degree is a process of knowledge enhancement. In the focus group interviews, the participants mentioned the importance of knowledge enhancement for their career development. Knowledge enhancement may affect not only hospitality educators' occupational commitment but also their perceived person-job fit (Tims et al., 2016). The findings indicate that hospitality educators with doctoral degrees strongly feel that they are a good fit for the hospitality education occupation. This implies that knowledge enhancement may enhance one's work competency to handle job demand. To enhance hospitality educators'

affective occupational commitment and perceived person-job fit, institutions should provide sufficient support and opportunities for their knowledge enhancement.

In addition, Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong are found to have lower levels of affective occupational commitment than non-Chinese hospitality educators. However, Asian (including Chinese) hospitality educators have greater continuance and normative occupational commitment than non-Asian hospitality educators. This shows that their commitment level is significantly affected by their culture. As Asian culture consists of a strong sense of collectivism and power distance, Asian hospitality educators' commitment is significantly influenced by their companions (Bakir et al., 2015; Chao, 1994; Du et al., 2015). This may create a hidden problem for the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. Based on the findings, Chinese hospitality educators have lower levels of perceived occupational prestige than other hospitality educators. This reflects a conflict between Chinese hospitality educators' perceptions of the hospitality education industry and the reality of that industry. On the one hand, as university educators, hospitality educators are highly respected by society. On the other hand, hospitality education is relatively less valued by Hong Kong society. Hospitality educators are considered non-mainstream educators, which lowers Chinese hospitality educators' perception of their occupational prestige, which may affect their occupational commitment. This study examines the link between perceived occupational prestige and the three dimensions of occupation commitment, and the results are presented in Chapter 9.

Furthermore, one's lifecycle may be another personal factor influencing occupational commitment. The findings show that hospitality educators between 31 and 40 years old have the lowest level of affective occupational commitment across all age groups of hospitality educators, while their continuance occupational commitment level is high compared with that of other educators. However, educators above 50 years old have the highest levels of affective,

normative and continuance occupational commitment. This may be related to their lifecycle. Hospitality educators between 31 and 40 years old may have a stronger family burden; as they need to support their families, the stability and sustainability of their occupation are very important (Chelangat, 2016). Therefore, their commitment is significantly affected by the cost of leaving the occupation, not their intrinsic engagement in the occupation. This may present a problem for hospitality education development in Hong Kong, as the sustainability of the industry relies strongly on young hospitality educators. However, young hospitality educators have a lower occupational commitment than older hospitality educators. This phenomenon may signal hospitality education institutions to determine how to enhance young hospitality educators' intrinsic engagement in their occupation to sustain the growth of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

Moreover, there is a big gap in perceived occupational prestige and affective occupational commitment between educators with assistant professor or higher positions and those with lecturer or lower positions. The perceived occupational prestige and affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators with lecturer or lower positions are significantly lower than those of hospitality educators with assistant professor or higher positions. This may also present a problem for the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

In fact, hospitality educators with low-level positions play an important role in hospitality education development. Based on the findings, the majority of hospitality educators with lecturer or lower positions are young and junior educators. They are mainly teaching undergraduate or diploma programmes that aim to train up talented graduates for the hospitality industry. Their low affective occupational commitment may affect their teaching quality and their students' development (Chesnut and Burley, 2015; Elliott and Crosswell, 2001). As a result, the development of the hospitality education industry may be affected in the long run. Therefore, it is important for hospitality institutions to enhance these educators' affective occupational commitment.

Furthermore, hospitality educators in different positions perceive their occupations very differently, even though they have the same occupation. Hospitality educators with assistant professor or higher positions perceive their occupation as prestigious, but hospitality educators with lecturer or lower positions do not. This may be related to job nature across different positions. The duties of educators in assistant professor or higher positions are teaching, research publication and collaboration with the hospitality industry. Their work requires high academic qualifications. In Chinese culture, occupations with high academic requirements (e.g., physicians, university teachers, engineers) are always viewed as highly prestigious (Lin and Xie, 1988). This may make educators with those occupations feel that their occupations are prestigious.

Although the main duty of lecturers and instructors is teaching, their work also requires high academic qualifications, so they should also perceive their occupations positively. However, these educators feel that their occupations are less prestigious than those of hospitality educators with higher positions, perhaps due to the big academic qualification gap. In Hong Kong, hospitality educators with assistant professor or higher positions are required to have a doctoral degree and research publications, but those in lecturer or lower positions are not. Most of the hospitality educators in lecturer or lower positions have not yet gained their doctoral degrees or lack research publications. This may negatively influence their perceptions of their work, and they may perceive themselves as teaching staff but not academics. Therefore, their perceived occupational prestige is significantly lower than that of educators with assistant professor or higher positions. Their perceived occupational prestige significantly affects their commitment to their occupation. The current study proves this relationship (shown in Chapter 9). Therefore, hospitality institutions should put more effort into enhancing the perceived occupational prestige of lower-rank hospitality educators. This can be achieved by providing opportunities for their career enhancement. Institutions should also provide more support for these educators' research and create

opportunities for them to contribute to the hospitality industry through collaboration. Through a high level of involvement, these educators may recognise their important role in hospitality education and eventually enhance their perceived occupational prestige.

## **8.9 Summary of Chapter 8**

In this chapter, the demographic differences in each variable are presented. The demographic differences across hospitality educators not only significantly impact their occupational commitment, but also affect their levels of perceived occupational prestige, perceived person-job fit, impact concerns and perceived job characteristics. This chapter concludes by discussing the implications of the results. Demographic backgrounds are closely related to occupational commitment and its antecedents. Demographic differences are set as control variables to understand the link between the key antecedents and occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Chapter 9 presents the results of a hierarchical regression analysis.



## **9. Chapter 9 – Relationships between Key Antecedents and Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

### **9.1 Introduction to Chapter 9**

To test the relationships between the key antecedents and the three dimensions of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong, hierarchical multiple regression analysis is conducted. In the hierarchical regression, the demographic factors are set as controls so that the hypotheses can be tested more accurately. Hierarchical multiple regression is a tool typically used to test the multilevel model (Gelman and Hill, 2006), which consists of at least two levels of factors (e.g., individual and group levels). Chapters 7 and 8 show that demographic differences have significant influences on hospitality educators' occupational commitment and its antecedents. In this case, demographic differences between the focus group participants may affect the data analysis results. They may also induce the hidden errors, such as inaccurate measurement of the influence of the identified antecedents (such as self-actualisation at work and occupational prestige) on educators' occupational commitment levels.

To deal with this problem, this study conducts a hierarchical multiple regression analysis with demographic variables set as control variables. This is done by setting two factor levels. In SPSS, the demographic differences are set at the individual level (level 1) and the identified key antecedents are set at the group level (level 2). The hidden bias caused by demographic differences can be eliminated and the relationships between the identified antecedents and occupational commitment level can be accurately measured. Hierarchical multiple regression can also be used to test the hypotheses and the moderating effect of industry experience in addition to the hospitality education experience of hospitality educators. Other than testing the multilevel model, hierarchical

regression is commonly used to test this moderating effect (Evans, 1985; Jaccard and Turrisi, 2003).

The hierarchical multiple regression results show that the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is strongly associated with self-actualisation at work, perceived occupational prestige, perceived person-job fit, job autonomy, feedback from job, task significance and job skill variety. They also show that impact concerns and task identity are not significantly associated with hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment. Moreover, the findings indicate that the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is significantly associated with self-actualisation at work, impact concerns, job autonomy, task significance and task identity but not to perceived occupational prestige, perceived person-job fit, feedback from job and job skill variety. For normative occupational commitment, the findings show that the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is strongly associated with perceived occupational image, impact concerns, feedback from job, task significance and job skill variety but not self-actualisation at work, person-job fit, job autonomy and task identity. The following sections discuss the results.

## **9.2 Relationships between Self-Actualisation at work and Occupational Commitment**

The analysis results show that **self-actualisation at work** is positively related to affective occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.147$ ,  $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.1). Therefore, **H1a is supported**. Self-actualisation needs in education work can be interpreted as educators' psychological and spiritual needs (Yang, 2012). Educators who experience psychological and spiritual fulfilment have a strong sense of belonging and a strong sense of responsibility for education work (Yang, 2012). This implies that self-actualisation at work may lead educators to develop a strong emotional attachment to their occupations. As affective occupational commitment can be understood as the degree of an employee's emotional

attachment to identification and involvement with a particular career role (Mowday et al., 1979; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993), it can be interpreted that self-actualisation at work should be associated with affective occupational commitment. The focus group interview participants mentioned that they felt happy to be hospitality educators because they could contribute to the hospitality industry through their research and teaching, through which they gained a psychological and spiritual fulfilment that committed them to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. The hierarchical regression analysis results prove that self-actualisation at work is positively related to the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

**Table 9-1: Relationships between self-actualisation at work and occupational commitment**

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H1a	SA → AOC	0.147	3.779	0.000**	Supported
H1b	SA → COC	-0.115	-2.197	0.029*	Supported
H1c	SA → NOC	-0.74	-1.417	0.158	Not Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: SA → Self-actualisation at work  
AOC → Affective occupational commitment  
COC → Continuance occupational commitment  
NOC → Normative occupational commitment

The findings also show that **self-actualisation at work** is negatively related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment ( $\beta = -0.115$ ,  $p = 0.029 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.1). Therefore, **H1b is supported**. The literature has explained the negative relationship. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, self-actualisation is the highest level of psychological need, while extrinsic rewards (such as benefits and compensation) are the lowest level of human need (Chalofsky and Krishna, 2009). Before seeking the fulfilment of self-actualisation, the lower levels of human need should be fulfilled. As such, when educators experience high levels of self-actualisation at work, it implies that their lower levels of need (such as self-esteem) have been fulfilled. Therefore, educators with high

levels of self-actualisation at work should be less committed to seeking fulfilment of the lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (e.g., safety, physiological and self-esteem needs). Continuance occupational commitment refers to the degree of an employee's attachment to his or her occupation due to the perceived costs of leaving and is based on his or her non-transferable investment, such as a pension (Meyer et al., 1993; Hall et al., 2005), which comprise the lower-order needs of Maslow's hierarchy (Chalofsky and Krishna, 2009). Hospitality educators who experience high levels of self-actualisation at work should be less concerned about the extrinsic rewards, and extrinsic rewards should be less likely to induce their commitment. Therefore, hospitality educators' self-actualisation at work is negatively related to their continuance occupational commitment. The findings consistently show that self-actualisation at work is negatively associated with hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.

The findings also show that **self-actualisation at work** is not significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment ( $\beta = -.074$ ,  $p = 0.158 > 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.1). Therefore, **H1c is not supported**. As normative commitment is mainly generated by external pressures from colleagues, friends or family (Hall et al., 2005), educators' normative commitment levels should be induced and influenced by these parties. Hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment increases when the educators commit to fulfilling the demands of various parties including students, institutions, industry partners and even society. As self-actualisation at work is an intrinsic psychological factor, it should not be associated with normative occupational commitment. The result also shows that self-actualisation at work is not significantly related to normative occupational commitment, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies.

### 9.3 Relationships between Perceived Occupational Prestige and Occupational Commitment

The findings show that **perceived occupation prestige** is positively related to hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.219$ ,  $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.2). Therefore, **H2a is supported**. Occupational prestige refers to societal perceptions of job power and authority and thus reflects the social standing of a particular occupation (Korman et al., 1983). Based on this definition, perceived occupational prestige should be closely related to continuance and normative occupational commitment. However, the findings show that perceived occupational prestige is significantly related to the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This shows that hospitality educators perceive hospitality education as a prestigious occupation due to not only its social status but also its meaningfulness. English et al. (2010) pointed out that affective commitment was influenced by employees' perceptions of specific work. Employees evaluate their occupations based on their perceptions of the occupations' meaningfulness and significance (English et al., 2010; James and James, 1989). Hospitality educators may perceive that hospitality education is a prestigious occupation because of its meaningfulness and significance. In the Chinese tradition, educators represent wisdom and knowledge and are regarded as scholars who transmit knowledge and essential skills for living and personal development. They are also viewed as moral figures and role models for students (Fwu and Wang, 2002; Moses et al., 2016; Yang and Lin, 2016). As their role is important for new generations, they are highly respected by society. Based on these arguments, perceived occupational prestige is closely related to hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment. The findings of the current study support this relationship.

Table 9-2: Relationships between perceived occupational prestige and occupational commitment

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H2a	OP → AOC	0.219	4.649	0.000**	Supported
H2b	OP → COC	0.099	1.416	0.158	Not Supported
H2c	OP → NOC	0.180	2.571	0.011*	Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: OP → Perceived occupational prestige  
AOC → Affective occupational commitment  
COC → Continuance occupational commitment  
NOC → Normative occupational commitment

The findings show that **perceived occupation prestige** is not significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.099$ ,  $p = 0.158 > 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.2). Therefore, **H2b is not supported**. This study proposes that perceived occupational prestige is a perceived cost of leaving and closely related to the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The social status of educators in the Chinese community is high and the educators are highly respected by society. Hospitality educators may lose the respect of society if they quit the hospitality education industry. This study proposes that losing the respect of society is a cost of leaving the hospitality education industry. However, based on this finding, perceived occupation prestige is not significantly related to the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This implies that perceived occupational prestige is not a perceived cost of leaving or a material benefit of remaining in an occupation for hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Hospitality educators in Hong Kong are not committed to hospitality education as an occupation because of their unwillingness to lose social status or the respect of society. Rather, they are committed to the hospitality education occupation mainly because of its meaningfulness.

**Perceived occupational prestige** is another factor contributing to normative occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.180$ ,  $p = 0.011 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.2).

Therefore, **H2c is supported**. Chinese culture can explain this point. In the Chinese community, occupations with high academic requirements are highly valued by the Chinese community and are commonly believed to bring fame and reputation to individuals and their families (Hardin et al., 2001; Tang, 2002; Yan and Berliner, 2016). As mentioned earlier, educators, especially university educators, are recognised as moral figures and role models for students (Fwu and Wang, 2002; Moses et al., 2016; Yang and Lin, 2016). This makes educators highly respected in the Chinese community. However, the high respect from external parties including friends, parents and even society may place great pressures on hospitality educators in Hong Kong, which may push the educators to be more committed to their hospitality education occupation. Given the strong influence of collectivism in Hong Kong society, its external pressure is particularly strong. The pressure makes hospitality educators in Hong Kong commit to their occupation to meet the expectations of external parties. Therefore, perceived occupational prestige is positively related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.

#### **9.4 Relationships between Impact Concerns and Occupational Commitment**

Hospitality educators' **impact concerns** are not significantly related to their affective occupational commitment ( $\beta = -0.017$ ,  $p = 0.655 > 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.3). Therefore, **H3a is not supported**. Although studies have investigated the relationship between impact concerns and the three forms of occupational commitment, it can be predicted that impact concerns are strongly linked to normative commitment. As impact concerns are related to educators' concerns about the impact of their teaching on students (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004; Dunn et al., 2013), the educators with strong impact concerns are concerned about how their teaching influences the students' future development and how the students perceive the significance of their teaching (Huber, 2011). This implies that educators' impact concerns are induced by the students' perceptions of the educators' teaching. The commitment induced by impact concerns should also be related to students' perceptions of their educators' teaching, which is not a kind of

intrinsic emotional attachment. Thus, impact concerns are not strongly linked to affective occupational commitment. This also explains why H3a is not supported – there is no significant relationship between impact concerns and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

**Table 9-3: Relationships between impact concerns and occupational commitment**

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H3a	IC → AOC	-.017	-0.447	0.655	Not Supported
H3b	IC → COC	0.137	2.437	0.015*	Supported
H3c	IC → NOC	0.128	2.176	0.030*	Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: IC → Impact concern

AOC → Affective occupational commitment

COC → Continuance occupational commitment

NOC → Normative occupational commitment

In addition, the findings show that **impact concerns** are positively associated with the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $\beta = 0.137$ ,  $p = 0.015 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.3). Therefore, **H3b is supported**. As mentioned previously, impact concerns are related to educators' concerns about the impact of their teaching on students (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004; Dunn et al., 2013). When educators put a lot of effort into ensuring their teaching quality, inspiring students and influencing the students' development, they may have high expectations for their impact on student growth. As students' development is a long-term process that may take months or even years, educators may need to abandon the results when they decide to leave their occupation. Educators with high impact concerns should treasure their contributions to students' development progress. This becomes an anticipated cost of leaving the education industry. Therefore, impact concerns are closely and positively related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.



The findings indicate that **impact concerns** are significantly associated with hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.128$ ,  $p = 0.030 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.3). Therefore, **H3c is supported**. Although studies have investigated the link between impact concerns and normative occupational commitment, the link can be predicted. As mentioned previously, impact concerns refers to educators' concerns about the impact of their teaching on students (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004). Educators with high impact concerns are greatly concerned about how their teaching influences students' future development and how the students perceive the significance of their teaching (Huber, 2011). They may also be greatly concerned about how students and even students' parents evaluate their teaching performance. Therefore, impact concerns are closely and positively related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment. This means that educators with high impact concerns should have a high level of normative occupational commitment, which is consistent with the findings.

## **9.5 Relationships between Perceived Person-job Fit and Occupational Commitment**

The findings show that **perceived person-job fit** is positively related to hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.310$ ,  $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.4). Therefore, **H4a is supported**. Studies have found that perceived person-job fit is closely related to occupational and organisational commitment (e.g., Bogler and Nir, 2014; Maynard and Joseph, 2008; Ru, 2012). In particular, perceived person-job fit is closely related to affective commitment (Abbott et al., 2005).

Table 9-4: Relationships between perceived person-job fit and occupational commitment

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H4a	PJFit → AOC	0.310	5.923	0.000**	Supported
H4b	PJFit → COC	-0.069	-0.829	0.408	Not Supported
H4c	PJFit → NOC	-0.64	-0.765	0.445	Not Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: PJFit → Perceived person-job fit

AOC → Affective occupational commitment

COC → Continuance occupational commitment

NOC → Normative occupational commitment

Perceived person-job fit or the level of congruence or compatibility between an individual and his or her job (Edwards, 1991). Hospitality educators' perceived person-job fit increases when they perceive that their work competency is a good fit for the demands of their job. When hospitality educators have high levels of work competency that can meet the requirements of their job, they find it easier to handle the workload (Edwards, 2008; Maynard and Parfyonova, 2013). Hospitality educators' perceived person-job fit can also be enhanced when their jobs fulfil their work-related needs. A high level of perceived person-job fit may induce hospitality educators in Hong Kong to form emotional attachments to their occupations and enhance their affective occupational commitment. Based on this argument, hospitality educators' perceived person-job fit should be positively related to affective occupational commitment. This is why H4a is supported.

Moreover, the findings show that **perceived person-job fit** is not significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment ( $\beta = -0.069$ ,  $p = 0.408 > 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.4). Therefore, **H4b is not supported**. The result is similar to the findings of Johnson et al. (2002), who found no significant relationship between perceived person-job fit and continuance commitment. This may be because perceived person-job fit is mainly induced by intrinsic rewards such as self-recognition and self-actualisation (Abbott et al., 2005) while continuance occupational commitment is mainly induced by extrinsic rewards and

by the investment cost of leaving the occupation (Chalofsky and Krishna, 2009). As perceived person-job fit is not a kind of investment cost of leaving the occupation, it should be unrelated to one's continuance occupational commitment. Thus, there is no significant link between person-job fit and continuance occupational commitment, and H4b is not supported.

However, the findings show that perceived person-job fit is not significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment ( $\beta = -0.64$ ,  $p = 0.445 > 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.4). Therefore, **H4c is not supported**. Perceived person-job fit is related to the fit between one's personal values and the perceived occupation value, and the fit between one's work ability and the job demands. Therefore, perceived person-job fit is not easily affected by external pressures from other parties such as colleagues, friends and family. Person-job fit is a cognitive belief but not an emotional response (Cable and DeRue, 2002; Mitchell et al., 2001). Based on the definition of perceived person-job fit, it is not closely related to normative occupational commitment, which is induced by those external pressures (Hall et al., 2005). Thus, hospitality educators with a high perceived person-job fit should be intrinsically but not extrinsically committed to their occupations. Therefore, perceived person-job fit is significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment. This is why H4c is not supported.

## 9.6 Relationships between Job Autonomy and Occupational Commitment

Furthermore, the findings indicate that **job autonomy** is positively related to affective occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.325$ ,  $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.5). Therefore, **H5a is supported**. Job autonomy is related to the degree of the employees' ability and granted freedom to determine how to accomplish work tasks (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Spector, 1986). With high job autonomy, hospitality educators can enjoy that freedom and determine the place, way and time to complete their work. Educators are also able to manage their time and work-life balance, so they are more likely to be committed to their occupations.

Studies have also indicated the strong link between job autonomy and affective commitment. Pierce et al. (2009) found that job autonomy could induce intrinsic motivation, as it could positively activate employees' critical psychological states. Galletta et al. (2011) also proved that job autonomy was positively related to intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. The findings of this study not only support the literature but also indicate that job autonomy is a key factor influencing the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

*Table 9-5: Relationships between job autonomy and occupational commitment*

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H5a	JC_AU → AOC	0.325	4.597	0.000**	Supported
H5b	JC_AU → COC	-0.437	-4.151	0.000**	Supported
H5c	JC_AU → NOC	0.074	0.703	0.483	Not Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: JC\_AU → Job autonomy

AOC → Affective occupational commitment

COC → Continuance occupational commitment

NOC → Normative occupational commitment

In addition, **job autonomy** is negatively related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment ( $\beta = -0.437$ ,  $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.5). Therefore, **H5b is supported**. Studies have found that the link between job autonomy and continuance occupational commitment is under-investigated. Galletta et al. (2011) mentioned that job autonomy was an important factor influencing affective commitment but not alternative forms of commitment. O'Driscoll and Randall (1999) pointed out that satisfaction with intrinsic rewards including job autonomy was not significantly related to continuance commitment. This study finds that job autonomy is negatively related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment, perhaps due to the mobile nature of hospitality education jobs. Employees with a high continuance occupational commitment feel that they are 'stuck' in their occupations, as they are concerned about the cost of leaving (Cho and Huang, 2012). However, hospitality education is an industry with a high degree of job autonomy. Educators can make use of their

time to complete their job duties while also enhancing their competency, such as by exploring their networks with other scholars and collaborating with industry professionals and other researchers. Some educators may even be able to find good career opportunities in the hospitality industry. In this case, a high degree of job autonomy may make educators less concerned about the cost of leaving the occupation. As such, their continuance occupational commitment is negatively related to job autonomy.

**Job autonomy** ( $\beta = 0.074$ ,  $p = 0.483 > 0.05$ ) is not significantly related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong (shown in Table 9.5). Therefore, **H5c is not supported**. **Job autonomy** is related to the degree of freedom granted to hospitality educators to determine how to complete their work (Spector, 1997). As mentioned in the literature review, hospitality educators are required to fulfil the expectations of their institutions, students and industry partners. High job autonomy can encourage hospitality educators to manage their time and be more flexible in managing their work to fulfil their work requirements. With high job autonomy, educators are also able to manage their time and work-life balance, so they are more likely to be committed to their occupations (Galletta et al., 2011). However, this kind of commitment is not induced by external pressures from others. On the contrary, job autonomy may allow educators to handle and even reduce those pressures. Based on these arguments, job autonomy is related to affective occupational commitment but not normative occupational commitment. This is why H5c is not supported.

## **9.7 Relationships between Feedback From Job and Occupational Commitment**

The findings prove the relationship between **feedback from job** and affective occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.310$ ,  $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.6). Therefore, **H6a is supported**. Feedback from job refers to the degree of information received from the job regarding the effectiveness of the employee's performance (Na-Nan and Pukkeeree, 2013). Although studies have investigated the link between feedback from job and affective commitment, feedback from job

is widely recognised as a factor influencing one's intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction (e.g., Battistelli et al., 2013; Emmert and Taher, 1992; Hays and Hill, 2001). By gaining feedback from job, educators receive sufficient information about their work performance and know the effectiveness of their work. For instance, self-actualisation at work is an important psychological need for hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It helps educators to evaluate whether their intrinsic needs and self-actualisation at work are fulfilled. It motivates educators to perform well so as to fulfil their psychological needs and commit to their work. Feedback from job allows educators to experience a sense of value in their occupations. Thus, it can be predicted that feedback from job is an important antecedent of affective occupational commitment. The findings also prove the relationship between feedback from job and hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment.

***Table 9-6: Relationships between feedback from job and occupational commitment***

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H6a	JC_FB → AOC	0.325	7.907	0.000**	Supported
H6b	JC_FB → COC	0.056	0.906	0.366	Not Supported
H6c	JC_FB → NOC	0.318	5.185	0.000**	Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: JC\_FB → Feedback from job

AOC → Affective occupational commitment

COC → Continuance occupational commitment

NOC → Normative occupational commitment

However, **feedback from job** is not significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.056$ ,  $p = 0.366 > 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.6). Therefore, **H6b is not supported**. When educators gain feedback from job and have an idea of how well they have performed, their commitment is enhanced, as they become more committed to improving their work based on the feedback. However, the results show that feedback from job is not correlated with the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

This unexpected result may be due to the nature of educators' occupation. Feedback from job has less of an impact on the job commitment of public-sector employees (Obi-Nwosu et al., 2013). Private-sector employees tend to be eager to know about their work performance because it is directly related to their job security and annual bonus incentive. Unlike private-sector industries, public-sector industries such as education are not commercial industries, and educators are offered fewer extrinsic rewards such as monetary rewards for their work performance. Due to its rapid growth, hospitality education is a relatively stable occupation in Hong Kong, and hospitality educators do not need to worry much about job security. However, educators may not be able to enjoy substantial material benefits such as yearly bonuses like those in the private sector. Furthermore, the salaries offered by the hospitality industry may be the same or even higher than those offered by the hospitality education industry. When educators decide to quit the hospitality education industry, their investment cost of leaving induced by feedback from job is not high. Therefore, feedback from job may not induce educators' concerns about the material benefits gained or the perceived costs of leaving. This explains the weak link between feedback from job and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Although feedback from job is not related to continuance occupational commitment, it is closely related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This finding indicates that **feedback from job** is positively related to normative occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.318$ ,  $p = 0.000 > 0.05$ ). Therefore, **H6c is supported**. Through feedback from job, hospitality educators are able to know how well they have performed and how well they have fulfilled the expectations of various parties. As the focus group findings reveal, transparent career enhancement criteria are an attraction for educators to remain in the hospitality education industry. Criteria such as research publications and student feedback are well known among hospitality educators who pursue academic career development at higher-education institutions (Hunt, 2016; Law

and Chon, 2007). More importantly, they are able to assess their performance by gaining feedback from job based on the career enhancement criteria. By gaining sufficient information about their performance from their jobs, they can understand how to improve their performance to better satisfy the expectations of their organisations and significant parties. They can also estimate and plan their career enhancement paths. Eventually, they may become more committed to perform well in their occupation. Feedback from job is particularly important when hospitality educators are expected to provide high quality work. It provides essential information to the educators to evaluate that quality. Therefore, feedback from job is expected to be positively related to normative occupational commitment, which is consistent with the findings.

#### **9.8 Relationships between Task Significance and Occupational Commitment**

Based on the findings, **task significance** ( $\beta = 0.107$ ,  $p = 0.009 < 0.05$ ) is also positively associated with affective occupational commitment (shown in Table 9.7). Therefore, **H7a is supported**. Task significance refers to an individual having a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organisation or in the external environment (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Although impact concerns and task significance are related to how educators' work influences others, impact concerns focus on how their teaching influences students' future development and how the students perceive the significance of their teaching (Huber, 2011), while task significance refers more broadly to how educators' work influences their colleagues, their organisations and society. Based on the findings, impact concerns have no significant relationship with affective occupational commitment, but task significance does. This proves that educators are intrinsically motivated and affectively committed to their occupations when they can influence others in society through various work activities such as research and consultancy services, rather than merely influencing students.



**Table 9-7: Relationships between task significance and occupational commitment**

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H7a	JC_TS → AOC	0.107	2.639	0.009**	Supported
H7b	JC_TS → COC	0.312	5.342	0.000**	Supported
H7c	JC_TS → NOC	0.128	2.191	0.029*	Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: JC\_TS → Task significance

AOC → Affective occupational commitment

COC → Continuance occupational commitment

NOC → Normative occupational commitment

Similar to impact concerns, **task significance** is positively associated with hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.312$ ,  $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.7). Therefore, **H7b is supported**. The relationship between task significance and continuance occupational commitment depends on employees' perceptions of the task significance of their occupation. If the employees perceive that the task significance of their occupation is greater than that of other occupations, they may see this difference as a cost of leaving the occupation. In contrast, if they think that the task significances of their current occupation can also be found in other occupations, then they have a low continuance occupational commitment (Dunham et al., 1994). Based on these findings, hospitality educators may see that the task significance of hospitality education is unique and that it cannot be found in other occupations. Therefore, task significance is positively associated with hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.

**Task significance** is also positively related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.128$ ,  $p = 0.029 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.7). Therefore, **H7c is supported**. Dunham et al. (1994) found that task significance was an antecedent of affective and continuance occupational commitment but not normative occupational commitment. However, the findings of the current study show that task significance may also be an antecedent of hospitality educators'

normative occupational commitment. The findings of previous studies and the current study differ in terms of culture. Given the strong individualistic characteristics of Western culture, high task significance may induce educators' affective occupational commitment. In contrast, given the strong influence of Chinese culture, Chinese hospitality educators have a strong sense of collectivism (Chao, 1994; Du et al., 2015) and are greatly concerned about how students perceive their teaching quality and how their teaching influences the students' learning. The perceptions of students or related parties place external pressures on educators to be committed to hospitality education. This explains why task significance is positively related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.

## 9.9 Relationships between Task Identity and Occupational Commitment

**Task identity** is the only job characteristic that is not significantly related to affective occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.005$ ,  $p = 0.947 > 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.8). Therefore, **H8a is not supported**. In fact, the relationship between task identity and affective commitment has not been widely recognised by the literature. Task identity refers to the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). Lin and Hsieh (2002) found that the link between task identity and occupational commitment varied depending on demographic factors such as age, tenure and occupation. In the hospitality education industry, hospitality educators' work is sometimes difficult to divide into pieces. For example, hospitality educators are expected to provide quality teaching to their students and to monitor their students' learning progress, which is long term and continuous. As such, it is difficult to identify or divide their work into different pieces. In addition, some work such as consultancy services for hospitality industry partners cannot be done by a single educator. However, regardless of whether they do their work alone or in collaboration with other educators, it does not affect the meaningfulness and significance of the work. As such, task identity may not be able to lead educators to be intrinsically committed

to their occupation. Therefore, in this study, the link between job skill variety and affective occupational commitment is weak.

***Table 9-8: Relationships between task identity and occupational commitment***

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H8a	JC_TI → AOC	0.005	0.067	0.947	Not Supported
H8b	JC_TI → COC	0.364	3.379	0.001**	Supported
H8c	JC_TI → NOC	0.056	0.524	0.601	Not Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: JC\_TI → Task Identity

AOC → Affective occupational commitment

COC → Continuance occupational commitment

NOC → Normative occupational commitment

However, **task identity** is positively related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.364$ ,  $p = 0.001 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Table 9.8). Therefore, **H8b is supported**. This shows that task identity may be a perceived cost of leaving for hospitality educators. As mentioned previously, task identity refers to the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). The strong link between task identity and continuance occupational commitment shows that hospitality educators perceive task identity as a sacrifice for leaving the hospitality education industry. This may be related to the unique characteristics of hospitality education. Focus group interview participants mentioned that collaboration with colleagues and industry partners was a challenge for them. This implies that hospitality educators may prefer to have a high task identity. As hospitality education consists of high job autonomy, hospitality educators can sometimes determine how to complete their work. They can decide to complete their work on their own or in collaboration with others. They may consider this a preferred job characteristic and a kind of benefit for remaining in the hospitality education industry, and consider the characteristic difficult to find in other occupations. This explains why task identity is positively related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment in this study.

**Task identity** is another job characteristic that is not significantly related to hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment ( $\beta = 0.056$ ,  $p = 0.601 > 0.05$ ). Therefore, **H8c is not supported**. Hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment refers to hospitality educators' commitment to fulfilling the demands of various parties including students, institutions, industry partners and even society. When these demands focus on the quality but not quantity of the hospitality educators' work, task identity may not be significantly related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The job pressures placed on hospitality educators may relate mainly to the quality of their work. As mentioned in the literature review, hospitality educators are required to fulfil the demands of their institutions, their students and the hospitality industry (Barron and Ali-Knight, 2017; Lashley, 2018; Li and Li, 2013). The demands from different partners are quality based and difficult to define as a whole or identifiable work. For example, educators are expected to provide good teaching quality, develop a curriculum that accounts for contemporary industry concerns and consolidate students' learning experience (King et al., 2011; Stoeber and Rambow, 2007). Therefore, task identify may not be a significant factor in hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.

#### **9.10 Relationships between Job Skill Variety and Occupational Commitment**

**Job skill variety** ( $\beta = 0.140$ ,  $p = 0.009 < 0.05$ ) is also positively associated with the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Therefore, **H9a is supported**. **Job skill variety** refers to the skills and professional knowledge needed by and involved in one's job (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Job skill variety in the hospitality education industry provides an opportunity for educators to use their professional skills, knowledge and even work experience. To contribute to society through their research, teaching and consultancy service, they must apply their various skills, such as their research and teaching skills, to fulfil the demands of students, institutions, the hospitality industry and even society (Barron and Ali-Knight, 2017; Lashley, 2018; Li and Li, 2013). Although the demands of various parties may present a challenge to

hospitality educators, they allow educators to actualise their ability. With a high degree of job skill variety in their hospitality education occupations, they can contribute to society through their research, consultancy services and teaching. In the focus group interviews, the participants mentioned that they felt satisfied when they could contribute to the hospitality industry through their research and students. Hospitality educators' intrinsic motivation and affective occupational commitment are enhanced through the application of their various professional skills. This explains the strong link between job skill variety and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

***Table 9-9: Relationships between job skill variety and occupational commitment***

Hypothesis	Path	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	p	Result
H9a	JC_SV → AOC	0.140	2.757	0.006**	Supported
H9b	JC_SV → COC	-0.065	-0.859	0.391	Not Supported
H9c	JC_SV → NOC	0.219	3.486	0.001**	Supported

\*\* Indicates significance at 0.01 level; \* Indicates significance at 0.05 level

Notes: JC\_SV → Job skill variety  
AOC → Affective occupational commitment  
COC → Continuance occupational commitment  
NOC → Normative occupational commitment

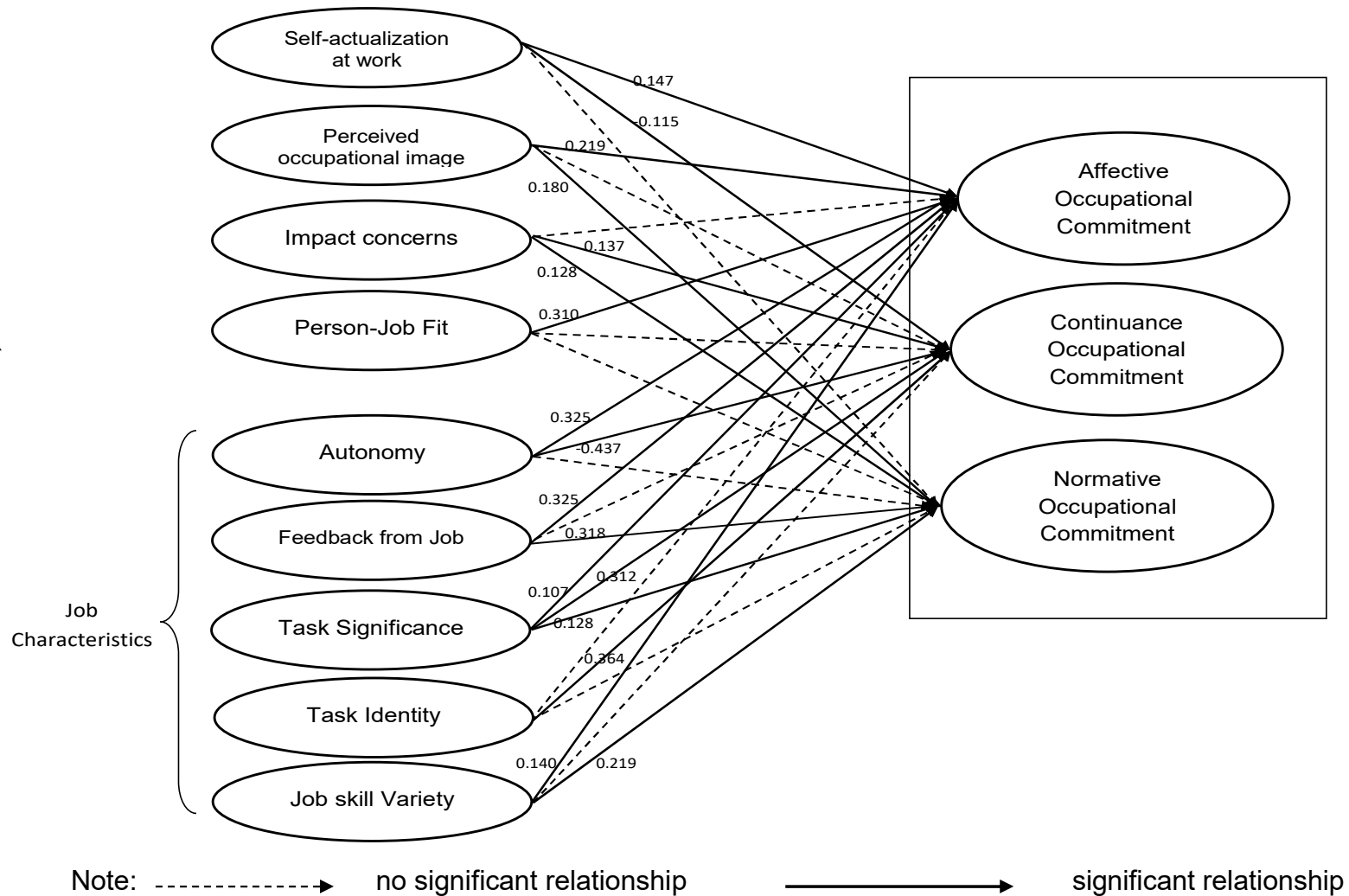
**Job skill variety** is not significantly related to hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment ( $\beta = -0.065$ ,  $p = 0.391 > 0.05$ ). Therefore, **H9b is not supported**. As mentioned previously, some occupations require a variety of skills and professional knowledge (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). The findings of the current study show a weak link between job skill variety and continuance occupational commitment. Dockel et al. (2006) also pointed out that job skill variety was strongly related to affective occupational commitment but not continuance occupational commitment, as an occupation requiring a high job skill variety may help employees to develop a sense of competency. The strong sense of competency enhances their mobility not only within the occupation but also across occupations. Hospitality educators can apply their skills and professional knowledge to other occupations such as hospitality consultant companies or

training units in the hospitality industry. Therefore, job skill variety in the hospitality education occupation is not perceived as an investment cost of leaving the hospitality education industry. On the contrary, job skill variety strengthens hospitality educators' sense of competency and mobility. Therefore, job skill variety does not significantly influence the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Finally, the findings indicate that **job skill variety** is positively related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $\beta = 0.219, p = 0.001 > 0.05$ ). Therefore, **H9c is supported**. Impact concerns and task significance are proved to be key antecedents of hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment. When hospitality educators have great concerns about their impacts on students and the significance of their work, they must be well equipped with professional knowledge, research techniques and rich industrial work experience. Educators can contribute to society and influence students and the industry by fully using their skills, professional knowledge and even work experience in their work. With a high job skill variety in their occupations, hospitality educators can influence others and fulfil the expectations of various parties such as students and institutions. This explains the positive link between job skill variety and hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment.

**Based on the preceding hypotheses tests, Figure 9.1 summarises the results.**

*Figure 9-1: Summary of the relationships between the key antecedents and the three dimensions of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong*



## **9.11 Summary of Chapter 9**

This chapter presents the hypothesis test results by adopting hierarchical multiple regression. The identified key antecedents of occupational commitment from the focus group findings have various levels of impacts on the three dimensions of occupational commitment. However, this is not the end of the study. This study also tests the moderating effect of work experiences of hospitality educators. More specifically, the moderating effect of two types of work experience (the work experience of hospitality educators as hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) on hospitality educators' occupational commitment are tested and Chapter 10 presents the results.



## **10. Chapter 10 – Moderating Effects of Work Experience**

### **10.1 Introduction to Chapter 10**

This study proposes that hospitality educators' occupational commitment is influenced by their work experience and their experience as hospitality professionals. These propositions are based on social cognitive career theory, in which prior work experience is closely related to career choice and occupational commitment (Sharf, 2016). In this chapter, the moderating effects of two types of work experience (that of hospitality educators as hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) on hospitality educators' occupational commitment are tested. Hospitality educators who had work experience in the hospitality industry before joining the hospitality education field can use their previous work experience to fulfil industry-specific needs. Based on this argument, both types of work experience (that of hospitality educators and hospitality professionals) have moderating effects on hospitality educators' occupational commitment. The following sections present the results of an analysis of the moderating effects of work experience as hospitality educators.

### **10.2 Moderating Effects of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Affective Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

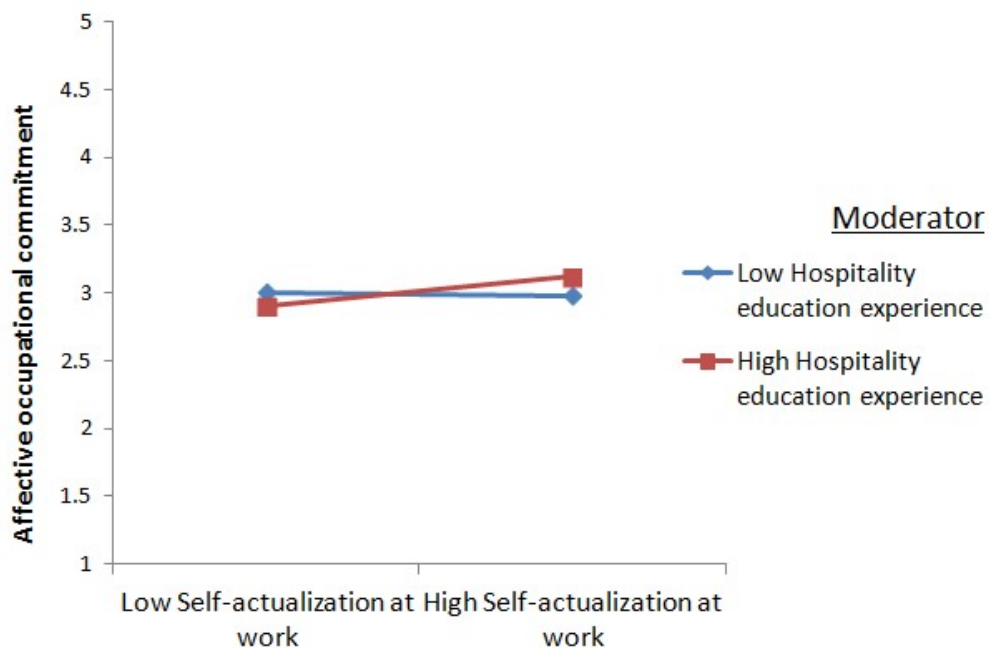
Hierarchical multiple regression reveals that self-actualisation at work, perceived person-job fit, perceived occupational prestige, feedback from job, job skill variety, task significance and job autonomy are the key antecedents of the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It is believed that the work experience of hospitality educators in the hospitality education industry may moderate the relationship between the key antecedents and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. In this section, the moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators is tested. The results show that work experience in hospitality education has various moderating effects on the links between the aforementioned antecedents and the affective

occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong, except for job significance.

#### **10.2.1 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Self-actualisation at Work and Affective Occupational Commitment**

By combining the results of the focus group interviews and hierarchical regression analysis, it can be concluded that educators' psychological and spiritual fulfilment through their teaching and research make them intrinsically committed to the hospitality education industry. Therefore, there is a strong positive link between self-actualisation at work and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Figure 10.1 shows that work experience as hospitality educators strengthens the positive relationship between self-actualisation at work and affective occupational commitment ( $p \text{ value} = 0.021 < 0.05$ ). This implies that work experience as hospitality educators can help educators to pursue their psychological and spiritual fulfilment. With work experience as hospitality educators, educators are more capable of handling their job demands. By gaining work experience as hospitality educators, educators with high levels of self-actualisation at work are more capable of handling their work and pursuing self-actualisation at work. This makes them commit to the hospitality education industry. Therefore work experience as hospitality educators can enhance the positive effect of self-actualisation at work on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

*Figure 10-1: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between self-actualisation at work and affective occupational commitment*

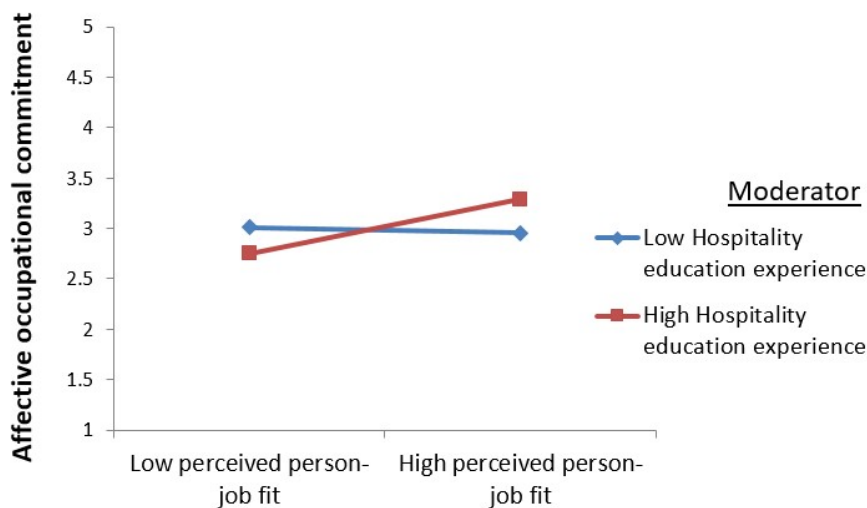


### 10.2.2 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Perceived Person-job Fit and Affective Occupational Commitment

Previous chapters prove the link between person-job fit and hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment. Figure 10.2 shows that work experience as hospitality educators strengthens the positive relationship between perceived person-job fit and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.033 < 0.05$ ). This finding is consistent with the results for self-actualisation (Section 10.2.1). Perceived person-job fit is related to the fit between work competency and job demands and the fit between educators' expectations and the attributes of the occupation. Work experience can help hospitality educators to use their competency in their occupation. With rich work experience as hospitality educators, educators are more capable of handling their job demands. Therefore, work experience as hospitality educators can enhance

the effect of perceived person-job fit on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Figure 10-2: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between perceived person-job fit and affective occupational commitment

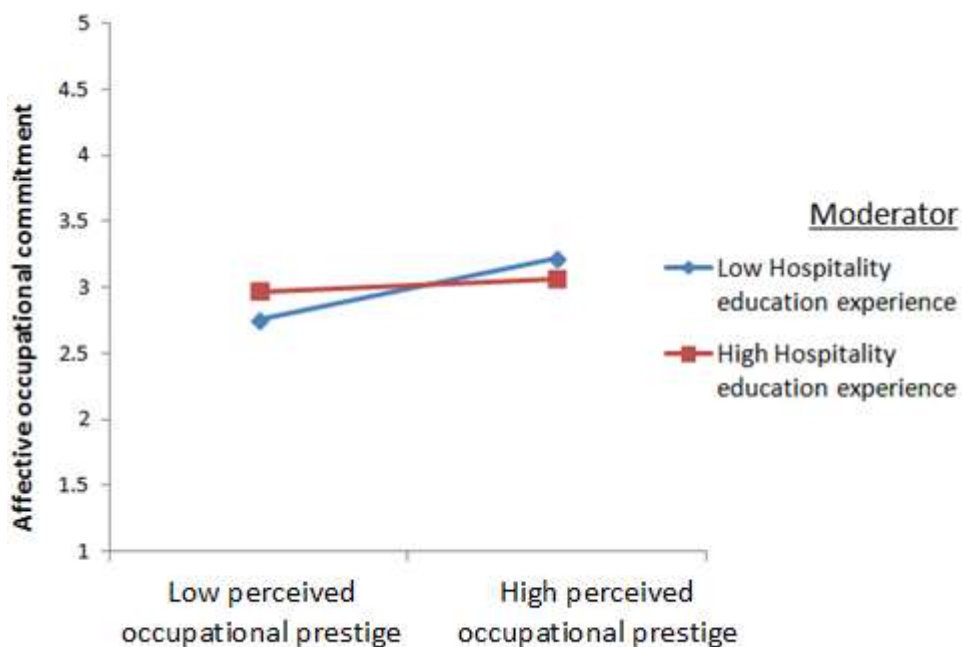


### 10.2.3 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Perceived Occupational Prestige and Affective Occupational Commitment

Figure 10.3 shows that work experience as hospitality educators dampens the positive relationship between perceived occupational prestige and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.001 < 0.05$ ). This implies that work experience as hospitality educators worsens the positive effect of perceived occupational prestige on affective occupational commitment. It also shows that hospitality educators in Hong Kong have faced a great challenge in their contradictory role. When they newly join the hospitality education industry, they may perceive themselves as educators in the higher education field, a prestigious occupation. This may induce their commitment to hospitality education as a lifelong career. However, when they stay in the hospitality education industry for a period, they may realise the challenges of their

contradictory role. Although they are respected as educators by society, their field is poorly valued by Hong Kong society. This contradictory role induces challenges for hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It explains why work experience as hospitality educators worsens the positive effect of perceived occupational prestige on those educators' affective occupational commitment.

Figure 10-3: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between perceived occupational prestige and affective occupational commitment

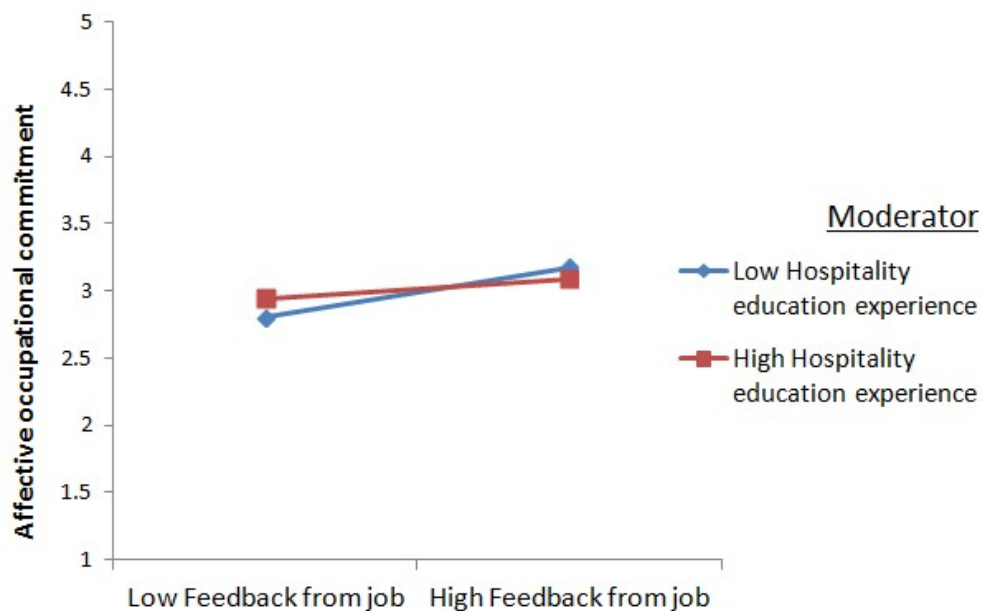


#### 10.2.4 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Feedback from Job and Affective Occupational Commitment

Figure 10.4 shows that work experience as hospitality educators dampens the positive relationship between feedback from job and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.016 < 0.05$ ). This implies that work experience as hospitality educators worsens the positive effect of feedback from job on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality

educators in Hong Kong, perhaps because the feedback from job is no longer the concern of the experienced hospitality educator. Through the career development process, these educators' contribution to the hospitality and hospitality education industries are recognised. Experienced hospitality educators are less concerned about how they perform on their work tasks and shift their concerns to task meaningfulness. Therefore, experienced hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment is less likely to be induced by feedback from job. This explains why work experience as hospitality educators worsens the link between feedback from job and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

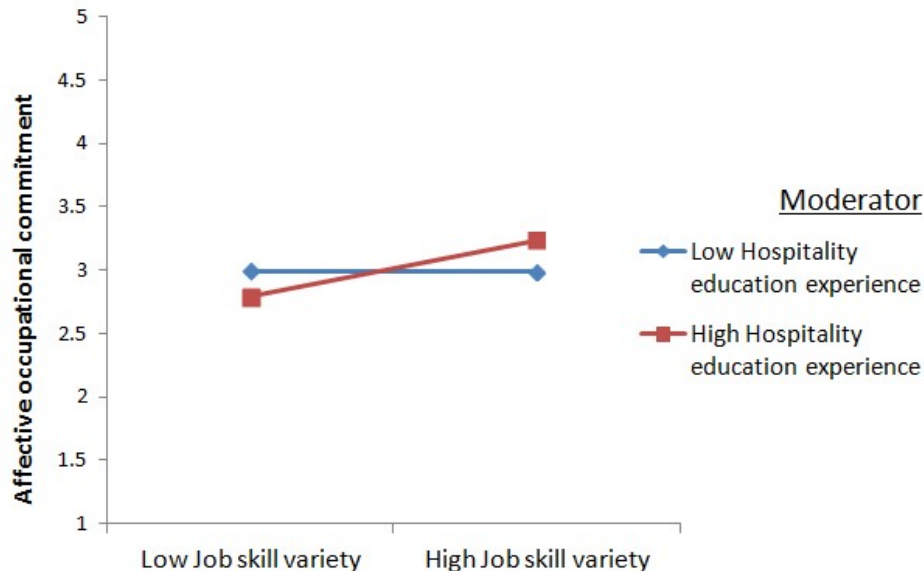
Figure 10-4: Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Feedback from Job and Affective Occupational Commitment



### 10.2.5 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Job Skill Variety and Affective Occupational Commitment

Figure 10.5 shows that work experience as hospitality educators strengthens the positive relationship between job skill variety and affective occupational commitment ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). This implies that work experience as hospitality educators can enhance the positive effect of job skill variety on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Figure 10-5: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between job skill variety and affective occupational commitment



By gaining work experience, hospitality educators learn how to apply their skills on the job. As mentioned in Chapter 8, hospitality educators must fulfil the demands of various parties including students, institutions and the hospitality industry through their research, consultancy services and teaching. With rich experience in the hospitality education industry, hospitality educators know how to use their various skills to pursue fulfilling those demands and pursue self-fulfilment in their

occupations. This may enhance their affective occupational commitment. It explains why work experience as hospitality educators can enhance the positive effect of job skill variety on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

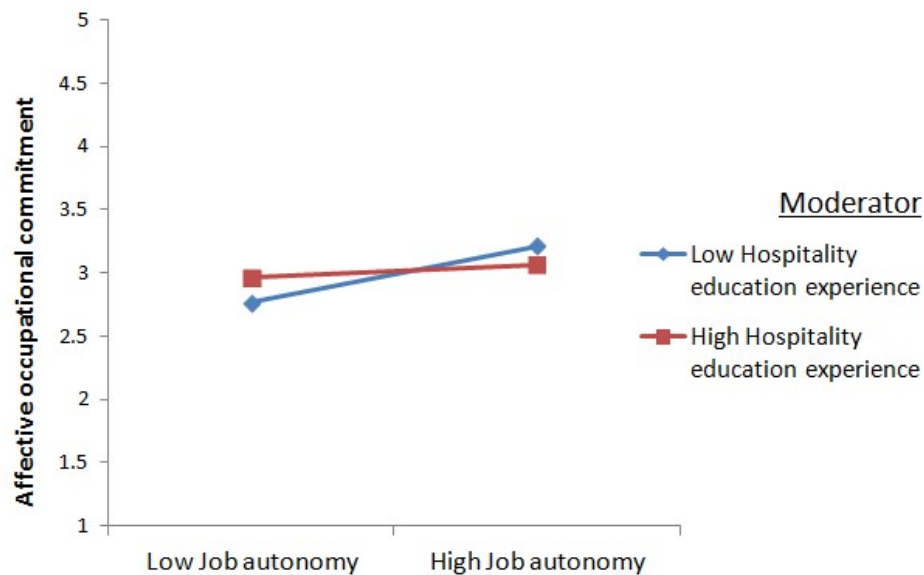
#### **10.2.6 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Job Autonomy and Affective Occupational Commitment**

Figure 10.6 shows that work experience as hospitality educators dampens the positive relationship between job autonomy and affective occupational commitment ( $p$  value =  $0.013 < 0.05$ ). This implies that work experience as hospitality educators worsens the positive effect of job autonomy on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Due to the career development process in the hospitality education industry, the affective occupational commitment of experienced hospitality educators is less likely to be influenced by job autonomy. Unlike other commercial industries, university faculties have outcome-oriented occupations and a high degree of job autonomy (Liu et al., 2008). When hospitality educators newly join the industry, they may appreciate the high degree of job autonomy, which may encourage them to remain in the industry. The focus group interview participants mentioned that they liked hospitality education as their career because they could manage their teaching, research work and personal matters at the same time. In particular, the main duty of junior hospitality educators is teaching. These educators experience no pressure from research and administrative work. Their job autonomy allows them to enjoy freedom, which induces their occupational commitment. However, when hospitality educators have stayed in hospitality education for a long period, they may have more work-related duties, including research, teaching and administrative work. Although they can enjoy a high degree of job autonomy, they are not always able to finish their work during normal working hours. The focus group interview participants also mentioned that they may not be able to fulfil promotion requirements if they limited themselves to normal working hours. This



means they still need to spend plenty of time on their work even though they have a high degree of job autonomy. Therefore, job autonomy has less influence on hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment throughout the career development process.

***Figure 10-6: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between job autonomy and affective occupational commitment***



### **10.2.7 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Task Significance and Affective Occupational Commitment**

The analysis results show that work experience as hospitality educators has no moderating effect on the relationship between task significance and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.451 > 0.05$ ). This shows that task significance consistently influences the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Work experience as hospitality educators neither strengthens nor worsens the relationship between task significance and hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment. When they perceive their work as making a significant contribution to others including their colleagues, organisations and society, they are intrinsically

committed to hospitality education, regardless of their work experience in the hospitality education industry.

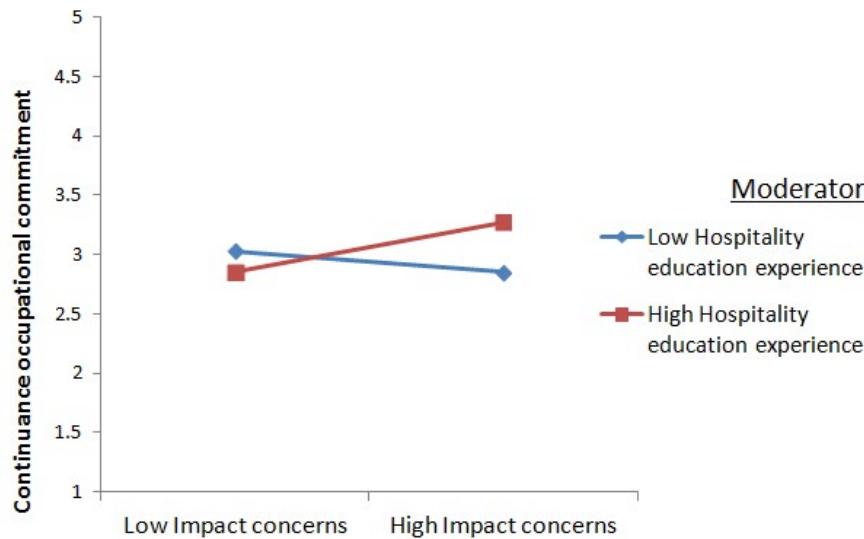
### **10.3 Moderating Effect of Work experience as Hospitality Educators on the Continuance Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

In a hierarchical multiple regression, the results show that self-actualisation at work and job autonomy have negative impacts on the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong, while impact concerns, task significance and task identity have positive impacts. In this section, we test the moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the link between the five antecedents and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The findings are shown in the following sections.

#### **10.3.1 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Impact Concerns and Continuance Occupational Commitment**

The analysis results show that work experience as hospitality educators strengthens the positive relationship between impact concerns and continuance occupational commitment (shown in Figure 10.7) ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ). This implies that impact concerns can strengthen the positive effect of impact concerns on the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. In Figure 10.7, the less experienced hospitality educators with high impact concerns have lower levels of continuance occupational commitment. This means that the impact concerns of hospitality educators with less work experience have a negative impact on their continuance occupations. In contrast, the impact concerns of more experienced hospitality educators have positive effects on their continuance occupational commitment.

Figure 10-7: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between impact concerns and continuance occupational commitment



The moderating effect of impact concerns may be due to the change in hospitality educators' perceived investment cost of leaving. According to Fuller's teacher concerns theory, educators undergo three concerns in their education career development. In the early stages of their education careers, educators have a high level of self-concern. They are greatly concerned about their self-image as educators and on their survival in the education industry (Kim et al., 2011). Based on teacher concerns theory, hospitality educators with less hospitality education experience may focus more on their self-image as hospitality educators. They may not perceive their impact concerns as the investment cost of leaving. As mentioned in the literature review, continuance occupational commitment is induced by the perceived costs of leaving the occupation (Meyer et al., 1993; Hall et al., 2005). Thus, hospitality educators' impact concerns are not positively related to the continuance occupational commitment of less experienced hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

On the contrary, the teaching concerns of experienced hospitality educators have shifted from self and task concerns to impact concerns. Furthermore, students'

learning development is a long-term process into which hospitality educators are required to invest plenty of time and effort. With great concern for their impact on students' learning, their teaching efforts become their perceived investment costs of leaving the hospitality education occupation. Therefore, experienced hospitality educators with high impact concerns have higher levels of continuance occupational commitment. This explains why impact concerns can strengthen their positive effect on the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

### **10.3.2 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Self-actualisation at Work and Continuance Occupational Commitment**

The analysis results show that work experience as hospitality educators does not moderate the negative relationship between self-actualisation at work and continuance occupational commitment ( $p$  value = 0.324 > 0.05). The result is reasonable. Self-actualisation at work is about the psychological and spiritual needs of educators (Yang, 2012), which are a kind of human need. Hospitality educators with high levels of self-actualisation at work should fulfil their lesser needs first; therefore, they would be less concerned about extrinsic rewards. As continuance occupational commitment is induced by the perceived costs of leaving the occupation (Meyer et al., 1993; Hall et al., 2005), hospitality educators with high levels of self-actualisation at work should have a lower level of continuance occupational commitment. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between self-actualisation at work and continuance occupational commitment. However, self-actualisation at work is about the psychological and spiritual needs of the hospitality educator and is not related to the perceived costs of leaving the occupation. Therefore, work experience as hospitality educators has no moderating effect on the link between self-actualisation at work and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

### **10.3.3 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Job Autonomy and Continuance Occupational Commitment**

The analysis results show that work experience as hospitality educators does not moderate the negative relationship between job autonomy and continuance occupational commitment ( $p$  value = 0.296 > 0.05). Chapter 8 discusses the negative relationship between job autonomy and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The hospitality education occupation has high mobility characteristics. With high job autonomy, hospitality educators are able to enhance their competency and explore their networks with other scholars and collaborate with industry professionals and other researchers. This makes them more marketable and thus decreases their continuance occupational commitment. As work experience as hospitality educators should enhance hospitality educators' work competency so that their mobility increases, this kind of work experience should strengthen the negative relationship between job autonomy and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

However, the finding shows that work experience as hospitality educators has no moderating effect on the negative link between job autonomy and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This implies that work experience as hospitality educators does not strengthen the negative impact of job autonomy on continuance occupational commitment, perhaps due to the workload of experienced hospitality educators. The majority of experienced hospitality educators have high positions in hospitality education (assistant professor or higher positions) and their work duties cover teaching, research publication and collaboration with the hospitality industry. The various duties induce great workloads on experienced hospitality educators, who are required to make extra efforts to accomplish those duties. Hospitality educators may perceive their efforts as the investment cost of leaving. Although work experience as hospitality educators and job autonomy may increase hospitality educators' work

competency and mobility, which may reduce their level of continuance occupational commitment, the reduction of continuance occupational commitment may be offset by the efforts hospitality educators make to meet their job demands. Therefore, work experience as hospitality educators does not strengthen the negative link between job autonomy and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

#### **10.3.4 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Task Significance and Continuance Occupational Commitment**

Chapter 8 indicates that hospitality educators may perceive the task significance of hospitality education as unique and that it cannot be found in other occupations. They perceive it as the investment cost of leaving hospitality education. Thus, hospitality educators with high task significance have a high level of continuance occupational commitment.

The results of the moderating effect analysis show that work experience as hospitality educators does not moderate the positive relationship between task significance and continuance occupational commitment ( $p$  value = 0.064 > 0.05). This implies that task significance is consistently associated with the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong regardless of the influence of work experience as hospitality educators. Task significance refers to hospitality educators' perception of their job characteristics. Hospitality educators perceive that task significance in the hospitality education industry is unique and an investment cost of leaving the occupation that induces their continuance occupational commitment. Although perceived task significance may vary based on hospitality educators' work experience, the impact of task significance on their continuance occupational commitment should be the same regardless of their work experience. The result is reasonable that work experience as hospitality educators does not strengthen the positive link between task significance and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

### **10.3.5 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Task Identity and Continuance Occupational Commitment**

The moderating effect analysis results show that work experience as hospitality educators does not moderate the positive relationship between task identity and continuance occupational commitment ( $p$  value = 0.264 > 0.05). Given the high task identity of the hospitality education occupation, educators can decide to complete their work on their own or by collaborating with others. Hospitality educators may consider this their preferred job characteristic and a kind of benefit for remaining in hospitality education that is difficult to find in other occupations. It may be perceived as an investment cost of leaving the hospitality education occupation and thus may increase educators' continuance occupational commitment. Similar to task significance, hospitality educators may perceive task identity differently regarding their work experience as hospitality educators; however, the work experience should not affect the impact of task identity on continuance occupational commitment. Therefore, work experience as hospitality educators has a weak moderating effect on the positive link between task identity and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

### **10.4 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on Normative Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

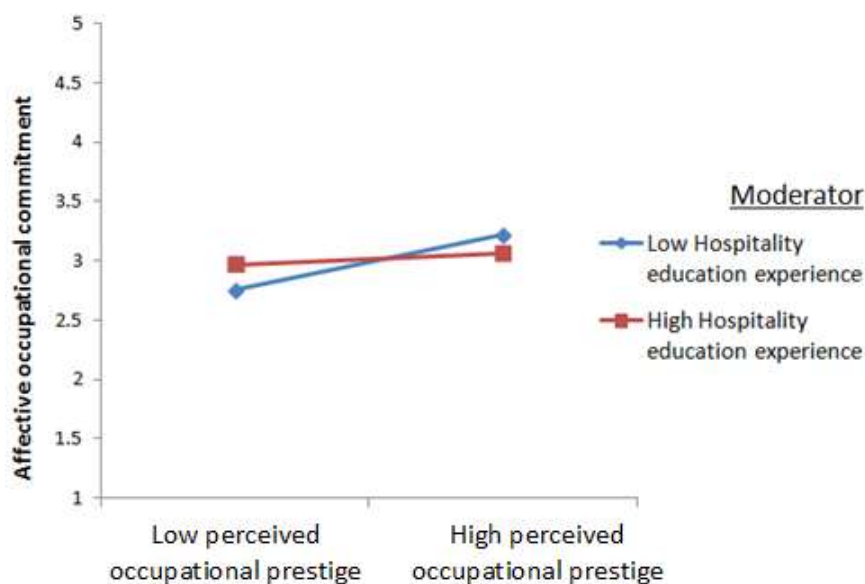
Hierarchical multiple regression results show that normative occupational commitment is positively associated with perceived occupational prestige, impact concerns, feedback from job and task significance. However, self-actualisation at work, perceived person job fit, task identity and job autonomy have no significant impacts on the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This section tests the moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the link between the five antecedents and the normative

occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The findings are shown in the following sections.

#### 10.4.1 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Perceived Occupational Prestige and Normative Occupational Commitment

The hierarchical multiple regression results show that perceived occupational prestige is positively related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. However, this positive relationship is dampened by work experience as hospitality educators ( $p$  value =  $0.004 < 0.05$ ) (shown in Figure 10.8). This implies that the influence of perceived occupational image on normative commitment decreases throughout the career development of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It also indicates that the influence of Chinese culture may be diluted by work experience as hospitality educators.

Figure 10-8: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between perceived occupational prestige and normative occupational commitment





Based on Figure 10.8, work experience as hospitality educators changes the nature of the relationship between perceived occupational prestige and normative occupational commitment from positive to negative. The normative occupational commitment of less experienced hospitality educators is positively associated with perceived occupational prestige. In contrast, the normative occupational commitment of more experienced hospitality educators becomes negatively associated with perceived occupational prestige.

This finding can be explained by teacher concerns theory and Chinese culture. According to teacher concerns theory, educators in their early career stages have a great degree of self-concern and of their self-image as educators. They are also concerned about how other people perceive them as educators. Given the strong influence of collectivism in Hong Kong society, the social status of the occupation becomes very important because it brings bring fame and reputation to individuals and their families (Hardin et al., 2001; Tang, 2002). In particular, educator is a very prestigious occupation in Hong Kong society. Less experienced hospitality educators can gain self-image from their friends and society. This makes them engage in and commit to their occupation to strengthen their self-image as qualified hospitality educators. Normative occupational commitment is a kind of commitment induced by external pressures from others including colleagues, friends, family and society (Hall et al., 2005). Perceived occupational prestige should be positively associated with normative occupational commitment.

However, when hospitality educators remain in the hospitality education industry for a period, the status of their career development changes from self-concern to task and impact concerns. Experienced hospitality educators may be less concerned than others, as perceived occupation prestige is no longer their key concern. On the contrary, the contradictory role of hospitality educators presents great challenges for hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The focus group interview participants pointed out that the low occupational prestige of hospitality jobs presented a challenge for them because society perceived hospitality education

as unnecessary. This makes it difficult for hospitality education sectors to attract quality students to choose hospitality management as their major subject for their higher education. Experienced hospitality educators may feel too tired to deal with others' perception of the hospitality education industry. This induces the negative impact on their normative occupational commitment. Therefore, the relationship between perceived occupational prestige and normative occupational commitment changes from positive to negative.

#### **10.4.2 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Impact Concerns and Normative Occupational Commitment**

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis proves that impact concerns have a positive effect on the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. However, the findings of the moderating effect test show that work experience as hospitality educators has no moderating effect on the positive relationship between impact concerns and normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p \text{ value} = 0.527 > 0.05$ ). This implies that the concerns of their effect on student learning are consistently influenced by the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

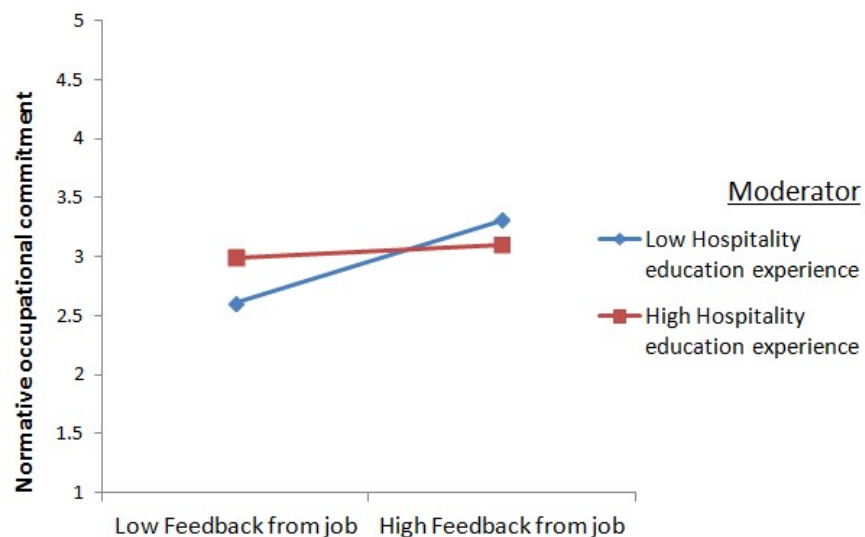
The result is reasonable. Impact concerns are related to the impact of educators' teaching on students (Cakmak, 2008). Hospitality educators with high impact concerns are greatly concerned about how their teaching influences students' future development and how students perceive the significance of their teaching (Huber, 2011). This induces the normative occupational commitment of the hospitality educators. Impact concerns should have a constant positive relationship with normative occupational commitment. Work experience as hospitality educators may influence hospitality educators' level of impact concerns. In this study, an analysis of variance test proves the variance in impact concerns across hospitality educators with varying work experience. However, the influence of impact concerns on normative occupational commitment is constant. Therefore,

work experience as hospitality educators has no moderating effect on the link between impact concerns and the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

#### 10.4.3 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Feedback from Job and Normative Occupational Commitment

The results show that work experience as hospitality educators dampens the positive relationship between feedback from job and normative occupational commitment ( $p$  value =  $0.002 < 0.05$ ). Through feedback from job, hospitality educators are able to know how well they have performed and how well they have fulfilled the expectations of various parties. Based on the findings, less experienced hospitality educators are more easily motivated to commit to their occupation through the perceptions of people such as their colleagues, students and institutions of their work performance. Therefore, their normative occupational commitment is significantly influenced by feedback from job.

Figure 10-9: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between feedback from job and normative occupational commitment



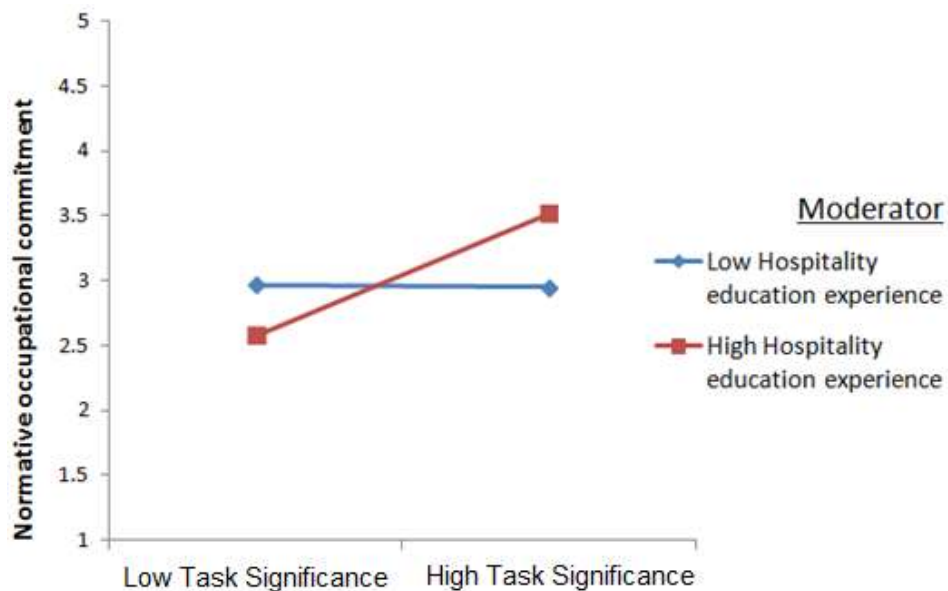
The analysis of variance test results that experienced hospitality educators have higher levels of feedback from job. Their duties involve teaching, research, student supervision and other services for both institutions and the industry. This provides more channels for them to gain information about their work performance. However, analysis shows that feedback from job is less likely to induce commitment in experienced hospitality educators, perhaps due to the shift in their concerns about the feedback on their work performance to the task significance of their work. Although experienced hospitality educators can gain sufficient information about their work performance, they are more concerned about the impact of their work on others instead of others' perceptions of their work performance. Referring to Section 10.4.4, educators' normative occupational commitment is more likely to be strengthened by task significance. The substantial impact of their work has a great effect on their normative occupational commitment. This shows that hospitality educators shift their concerns about how people perceive their work performance to the substantial impact of their work on others throughout their career development process.

#### **10.4.4 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Task Significance and Normative Occupational Commitment**

The analysis results show that work experience as hospitality educators strengthens the positive relationship between task significance and normative occupational commitment. This implies that work experience as hospitality educators can enhance the impact of task significance on normative occupational commitment. The analysis of variance test shows that more experienced hospitality educators strongly feel that their work has a significant impact on the lives or work of other people through their occupation. As hospitality educators with less experience are junior educators, teaching is their only main duty. They may perceive their work as less likely to induce a significant impact on society. Consequently, they are less concerned about the effects of their task significance

on society, and task significance is less likely to induce their normative occupational commitment.

Figure 10-10: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality educators on the relationship between task significance and normative occupational commitment



In contrast, experienced hospitality educators have developed careers in the industry. They become involved in more duties such as research, research student supervision and other services for both institutions and the industry. Their work significantly influences other parties including their undergraduate students, research students, the institution, the hospitality education field and the hospitality industry. Their role becomes very important. Consequently, they may be more committed to their occupation when they are more concerned about the substantial impact of their work on society. This explains why work experience as hospitality educators enhances the positive relationship between task significance and the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

#### **10.4.5 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Educators on the Relationship between Job Skill Variety and Normative Occupational Commitment**

In hierarchical regression analysis, job skill variety has a positive relationship with the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. However, the moderating effect analysis findings indicate that work experience as hospitality educators has no moderating effect on the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.182 > 0.05$ ). This implies that the job skill variety needed for hospitality educators consistently influences their normative occupational commitment. With the high job skill variety in their occupation, hospitality educators perceive that they can influence others and fulfil the expectations of various parties such as students and institutions. This perception may reflect the culture of the hospitality education field. The job skill variety of hospitality educators with varying hospitality education work experience consistently influences their level of normative occupational commitment.

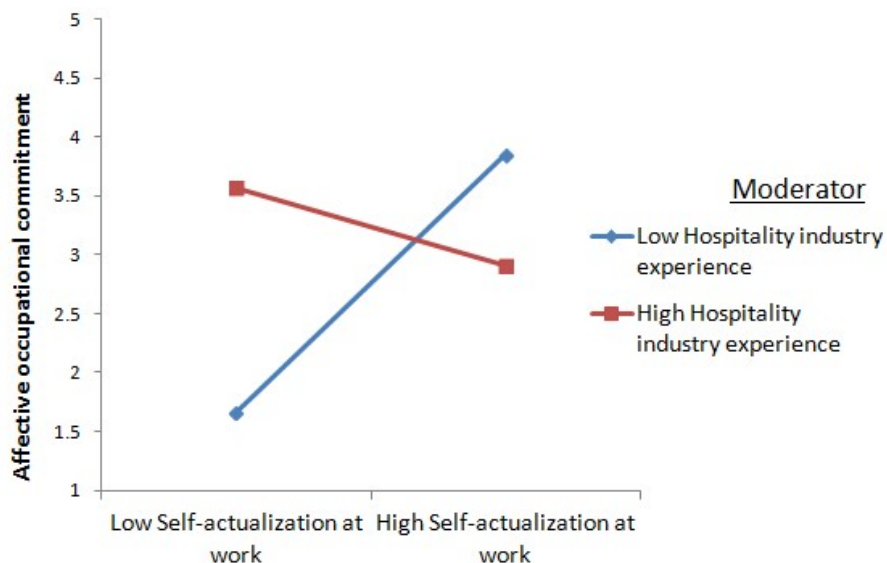
#### **10.5 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Affective Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

This study identifies the key antecedents of hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment: self-actualisation at work, perceived person-job fit, perceived occupational prestige, feedback from job, job skill variety, task significance and job autonomy. Apart from work experience as hospitality educators, work experience as hospitality professionals has a moderating effect on the relationship between the identified antecedents and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The following sections present the results of a moderating effect analysis of work experience as hospitality professionals.

### 10.5.1 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Self-actualisation at Work and Affective Occupational Commitment

The analysis results show that work experience as hospitality professionals dampens the positive relationship between self-actualisation at work and affective occupational commitment (shown in Figure 10.11). In other words, work experience as hospitality professionals worsens the impact of self-actualisation at work on affective occupational commitment ( $p$  value =  $0.008 < 0.05$ ). In fact, scholars have considered the impact of educators' other work experience on their commitment (Rowley, 1996).

Figure 10-11: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the relationship between self-actualisation at work and affective occupational commitment



This study finds that the self-actualisation at work of hospitality educators with less hospitality industry experience has a positive impact on their affective occupational commitment. This result is reasonable because self-actualisation at work is a psychological and spiritual need for self-fulfilment in work (Yang, 2012) and affective occupational commitment refers to educators' emotional attachment to

their occupation (Meyer et al., 1993). Self-actualisation at work and affective occupational commitment should be positively correlated.

However, affective occupational commitment in hospitality educators with rich hospitality industry experience has a negative relationship with self-actualisation at work. This implies that the self-actualisation at work of hospitality educators with rich hospitality industry experience is thwarted by hidden factors that reduce their level of affective occupational commitment (Bruhn, 1989). The hidden factors may be related to their perception of the social status of the hospitality industry and the contradictory role of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The focus group interviews revealed that hospitality educators' self-actualisation needs at work were fulfilled when the educators could inspire people through their work, such as research and teaching. With a high level of self-actualisation at work, they have a strong desire to inspire people through their research, teaching and collaboration with the hospitality industry and may desire to change society's perception of hospitality occupations.

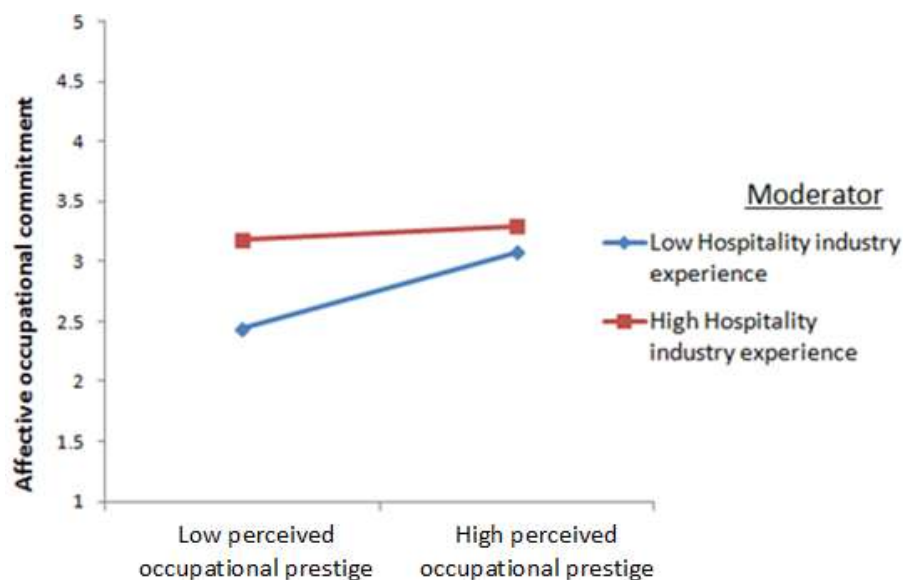
However, as mentioned in the literature review, hospitality occupations are considered less prestigious occupations in the Chinese community. When hospitality professionals stay in the hospitality industry for a long period, they may learn a lot about the social status of hospitality occupations. With rich experience in the hospitality industry, they may feel that it is very difficult to change society's perception of the industry. They may also have stronger feelings about the secondary position of hospitality education in Hong Kong society. This may create a high barrier for them to pursue the fulfilment of self-actualisation needs. This barrier discourages hospitality educators from pursuing self-actualisation at work, lowering their affective occupational commitment. Therefore, work experience as hospitality professionals significantly dampens the relationship between self-actualisation at work and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.



### 10.5.2 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Perceived Occupational Prestige and Affective Occupational Commitment

The moderating effect analysis results show that work experience as hospitality professionals dampens the positive relationship between perceived occupational prestige and affective occupational commitment ( $p$  value =  $0.001 < 0.05$ ). This implies that work experience as hospitality professionals weakens the impact of perceived occupational prestige on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong (shown in Figure 10.12). The finding is consistent with the results for self-actualisation at work.

Figure 10-12: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the relationship between perceived occupational prestige and affective occupational commitment



When hospitality professionals have stayed in the hospitality industry for a period, they realise the truth about the low prestigious status of hospitality occupations. Although they change their occupations as hospitality educators, they may recognise the secondary position of hospitality education in Hong Kong society. They may also feel that it is difficult to change society's perceptions of hospitality occupations. This induces a barrier for them to be intrinsically committed to

hospitality education. When hospitality educators in Hong Kong realise the truth about hospitality and the hospitality education industry, their affective occupational commitment is less likely to be influenced by perceived occupational image.

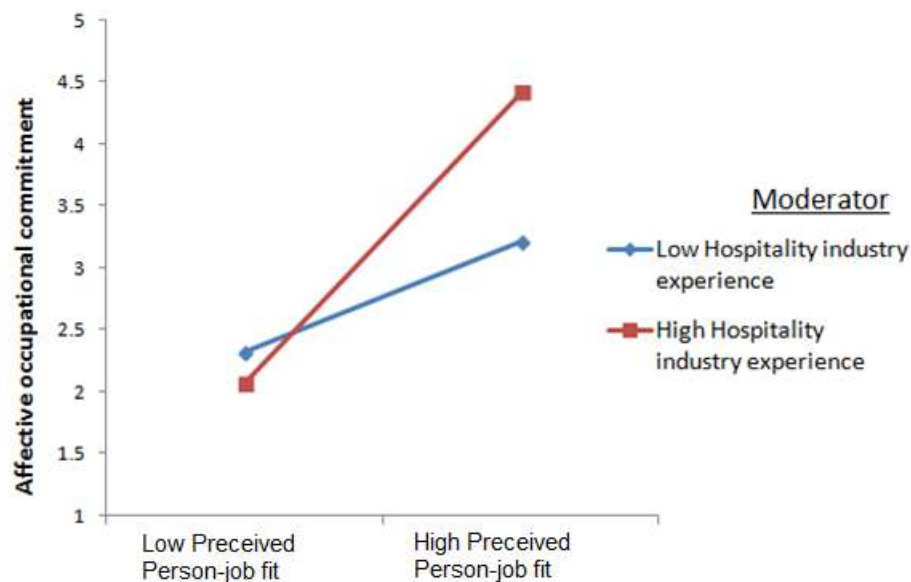
However, Figure 10.12 shows that the average level of affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators with rich work experience as hospitality professionals is higher than that of those with less work experience as hospitality educators. Hospitality educators with rich hospitality industry experience have strong feelings about the importance of hospitality education to the growth of the hospitality industry in Hong Kong. Therefore, their affective occupational commitment is generally higher. The findings show that work experience as hospitality professionals can generally enhance the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

### **10.5.3 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Perceived Person-job Fit and Affective Occupational Commitment**

The moderating effect analysis results show that work experience as hospitality professionals strengthens the positive relationship between perceived person-job fit and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The results are consistent with previous studies. Hospitality educators are always expected to work closely with the hospitality industry and to train talented graduates with related technical and human skills to meet industry needs (Chan, 2011). Hospitality educators with work experience in the hospitality industry before joining the hospitality education field can use their previous work experience to fulfil the industry-related aspect of hospitality education. With rich work experience in the hospitality industry, their work competency in hospitality education is enhanced, so they have a greater person-job fit in the industry. Work experience as hospitality professionals induces a multiplier effect with perceived person-job fit. With rich experience in the hospitality industry and a high level of perceived person-job fit, hospitality educators are highly capable of pursuing self-fulfilment in

work and highly committing to the hospitality education industry. Therefore, their affective occupational commitment is high. This explains why work experience as hospitality professionals enhances the impacts of perceived person-job fit on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

**Figure 10-13: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the relationship between perceived person-job fit and affective occupational commitment**



#### **10.5.4 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Job Autonomy and Affective Occupational Commitment**

The analysis results show that work experience as hospitality professionals has no moderating effect on the relationship between job autonomy and affective occupational commitment ( $p$  value = 0.08 > 0.05). This does not mean that job autonomy is not a key antecedent of the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Nevertheless, it means that job autonomy has a constant impact on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This implies that hospitality educators with various work

experience as hospitality professionals have similar perceptions of the importance of job autonomy. The focus group interview participants mentioned the importance of job autonomy. They felt happy to be hospitality educators because they could determine the way, time and place to complete their duties. Hospitality educators appreciate the job autonomy of the hospitality education occupation regardless of their work experience in previous occupations. Therefore, work experience as hospitality professionals has no impact on the link between job autonomy and affective occupational commitment.

#### **10.5.5 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Feedback from Job and Affective Occupational Commitment**

Similar to job autonomy, work experience as hospitality professionals has no moderating effect on the relationship between feedback from job and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.242 > 0.05$ ). As feedback from job is a characteristic of one's current occupation, the link between the current occupation's characteristics and one's affective occupational commitment should not be affected by his or her work experience in previous occupations. Appreciation for the clear promotional criteria and information gained about their performance from their work should be similar across hospitality educators with varying experience in the hospitality industry. Work experience as hospitality professionals has a weak moderating effect on the relationship between feedback from job and affective occupational commitment.

#### **10.5.6 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Task Significance and Affective Occupational Commitment**

The findings show that work experience as hospitality professionals strengthens the positive relationship between task significance and affective occupational commitment. Of the four job characteristics related to the antecedents of affective

occupational commitment, only task significance has a multiplier effect with work experience as hospitality professionals on hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment. This implies that hospitality educators with varying hospitality industry experience perceive the importance of task significance differently.

Figure 10-14: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the relationship between task significance and affective occupational commitment

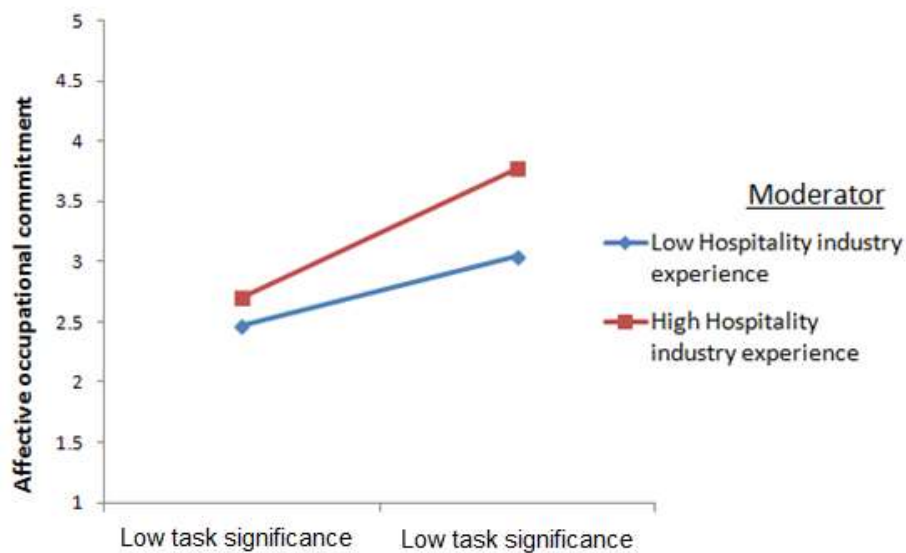


Figure 10.14 shows that task significance has a greater impact on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators with more hospitality industry experience. Hospitality educators with rich work experience as hospitality professionals have encountered a lot of difficulties, such as society's incorrect perception of hospitality occupations, while working in the hospitality industry. As hospitality professionals, it is difficult for them to change society's perceptions. As such, they feel strongly about the significant roles of hospitality educators. The focus group interview participants mentioned the significance of their role in changing society's incorrect perceptions of the hospitality and hospitality education industries. As both are perceived as non-professional industries, these educators

join and commit to the hospitality education industry to change society's perceptions. With rich experience in the hospitality industry, they understand the difficulties hospitality professionals face. They can better recognise the important roles of hospitality educators and their substantial impacts on others including students, the industry and even society. It makes them more committed to the hospitality education industry. Therefore, work experience as hospitality professionals strengthens the impact of task significance on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

#### **10.5.7 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Job Skill Variety and Affective Occupational Commitment**

The findings show that work experience as hospitality professionals has no moderating effect on the relationship between job skill variety and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.715 > 0.05$ ). This implies that hospitality educators with varying work experience as hospitality professionals perceive the importance of job skill variety equally. Similar to feedback from job and job autonomy, job skill variety is a characteristic of one's current occupation. The importance of job skill variety should not be affected by one's work experience in previous occupations, only one's current occupation – in this case, hospitality educator. Therefore, the results show that work experience as hospitality educators has a positive moderating effect on the link between job skill variety and affective occupational commitment, while work experience as hospitality professionals does not. In particular, the hospitality and hospitality education industries require very different skills. Work experience as hospitality professionals has a weak moderating effect on the relationship between job skill variety and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

## 10.6 Moderating Effect of Work experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Continuance Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong

Chapter 8 presents the hierarchical multiple regression results and finds that self-actualisation at work, perceived occupational prestige, impact concerns and task identity are the key antecedents of the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This study also tests the moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The results show that work experience as hospitality professionals has no moderating effect on the relationship between the identified antecedents and continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Table 10.1 shows the p values of the moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the link between the key antecedents and continuance occupational commitment. The finding implies that work experience as hospitality professionals cannot enhance or weaken the relationship between the key antecedents and the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

*Table 10-1: P values of the moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the link between the key antecedents and continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong*

The key antecedents	P value
Self-actualisation at work	0.370 (> 0.05)
Impact concern	0.860 (> 0.05)
Job autonomy	0.703 (> 0.05)
Task significance	0.060 (> 0.05)
Task identity	0.058 (> 0.05)

The result is due to the nature of continuance occupational commitment, which is induced by the perceived investment cost of leaving the occupation. When hospitality professionals decide to change their occupation as hospitality educators,

they sacrifice their investment costs in the hospitality industry (e.g., pension and tenure) and make a new start in the hospitality education industry. The investment costs in the hospitality industry are forfeited once the hospitality professionals change their occupation. Hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment should not be influenced by their work experience as hospitality professionals but should be closely related to their work experience in the hospitality education industry. Therefore, work experience as hospitality professionals does not moderate the relationship between the key antecedents and hospitality educators' continuance occupational commitment.

## **10.7 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on Normative Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

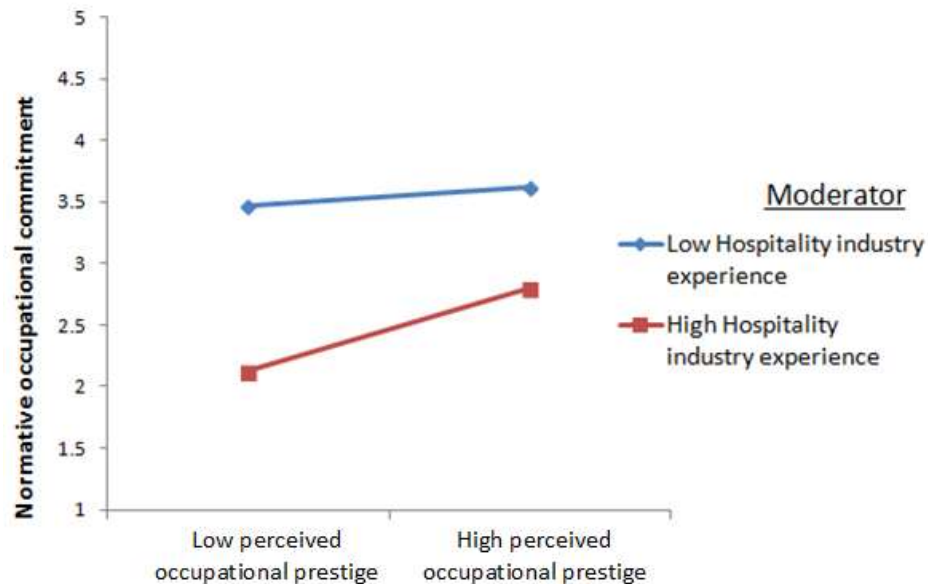
Chapter 8 identifies the antecedents of the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong: perceived occupational prestige, impact concerns, feedback from job, task significance and job skill variety. In this section, the moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is presented.

### **10.7.1 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Perceived Occupational Prestige and Normative Occupational Commitment**

The findings show that work experience as hospitality professionals has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between the perceived occupational prestige and normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value =  $0.029 < 0.05$ ). This implies that work experience as hospitality professionals strengthens the positive relationship between perceived occupational prestige and normative occupational commitment (shown in Figure 10.15).



*Figure 10-15: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the relationship between perceived occupational prestige and normative occupational commitment*



Hospitality educators with rich hospitality industry experience are significantly influenced by society's perception of their occupations. Hospitality occupations are recognised as less prestigious occupations that seldom gain the respect of society. In their career life in the hospitality industry, educators experience the low social status of hospitality occupations. The focus group interview participants pointed out that experienced hospitality workers were recognised as experienced but unwanted employees while experienced professors were always recognised as professional experts. Some also mentioned a change in their friends' attitudes towards them when they became hospitality educators in higher education institutions. The big contrast in respect from society between two occupations may induce the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators with rich hospitality industry experience in Hong Kong. Normative occupational commitment is induced by external pressures from other parties such as colleagues, friends and family (Hall et al., 2005). When hospitality educators change their occupation from one that is less prestigious (hospitality job) to one that is highly prestigious

(education job), the respect they gain from others makes them commit to their occupation as educators in higher education institutions.

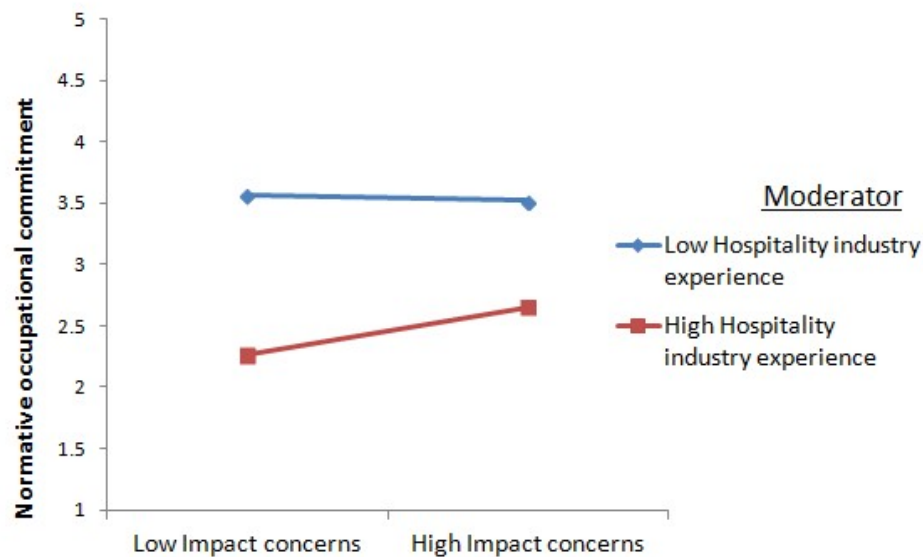
In addition, given the strong collectivism in Chinese culture, hospitality educators gain respect and recognition from society after joining the hospitality education industry. The social status of their occupations as hospitality educators also improves the reputations of their families and companions (Hardin et al., 2001; Tang, 2002). Hospitality educators with rich hospitality industry experience are committed to their occupations due to the concerns of their families and significant parties. Therefore, their normative occupational commitment is easily influenced by perceived occupational prestige, especially when they experience a big contrast between two occupations (hospitality jobs and hospitality education jobs). This explains why work experience as hospitality professionals enhances the impact of perceived occupational prestige on the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

#### **10.7.2 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Impact Concerns and Normative Occupational Commitment**

Figure 10.16 shows that work experience as hospitality professionals strengthens the positive relationship between impact concerns and normative occupational commitment ( $p$  value =  $0.038 < 0.05$ ). The result is reasonable. Unlike those hospitality educators with less or no hospitality industry experience, most hospitality educators with rich hospitality industry experience have not taken any formal teaching training before joining the hospitality education industry. They receive job offers from the industry because of their rich hospitality industry experience instead of their teaching skills. This may induce a great feeling of self-concern. According to teacher concerns theory, new educators go through a self-concern stage. As new hospitality educators do not receive any formal teaching-related training before joining the education industry, their self-concern may be greater than that of other newly joined hospitality educators who have less

hospitality industry experience but have received formal teaching-related training. They may be more concerned about how other people, especially students, perceive them as educators. Also, as they have rich hospitality industry experience, external parties may have high expectations of their contributions to students' learning. They are expected to transfer their experience and professional knowledge to their students. This may induce their normative occupational commitment.

Figure 10-16: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the relationship between impact concerns and normative occupational commitment



As they have been in the industry for a period of time, they may recognise the current problems and challenges faced by the hospitality industry. Some of the focus group interview participants mentioned that they wanted to transfer their experience and knowledge to their students to contribute to the hospitality industry. When they were in the hospitality industry, they found it difficult to train up new employees' service attitudes and behaviour given the job-duty-oriented training provided by the hospitality sectors. With limited resources, the hospitality sectors have a difficult time providing long-term attitude and behaviour training for their

employees. Therefore, these educators came forward and joined the hospitality education industry. They understood the current challenges of the hospitality industry and could provide corresponding education to prospective hospitality professionals – hospitality students. If more hospitality educators had stronger feelings about this, their normative occupational commitment may be strengthened, as they would be more concerned about the hospitality industry and how their institutions perceive their teaching quality. This explains why work experience as hospitality professionals enhances the effect of impact concerns on the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

### **10.7.3 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Feedback From Job and Normative Occupational Commitment**

The findings show that work experience as hospitality professionals has no moderating effect on the relationship between feedback from job and the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators ( $p$  value =  $0.847 > 0.05$ ). This means that work experience as hospitality professionals neither strengthens nor weakens the link between feedback from job and the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The finding is reasonable. Feedback from job is related to the information gained from one's job about the effectiveness of his or her work performance (Na-Nan and Pukkeeree, 2013). Hospitality educators' perception of the importance of feedback from job is significantly related to their normative occupational commitment. The perception should be closely related to the work experience of hospitality educators in their current occupation but not in their previous occupation. Work experience as hospitality educators can help educators interpret the information gained from their job about the effectiveness of their work.

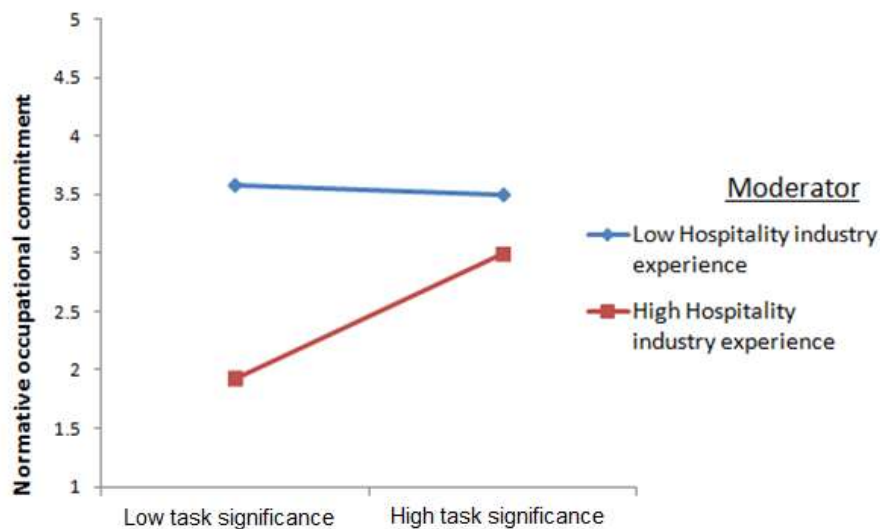
However, as hospitality professional jobs differ significantly from hospitality education jobs, work experience as hospitality professionals may not affect hospitality educators' perception of the importance of feedback from job in their

current occupation. Therefore, work experience as hospitality professionals has no impact on the relationship between feedback from job and the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

#### **10.7.4 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Task Significance and Normative Occupational Commitment**

Section 10.5.6 proves that work experience as hospitality professionals strengthens the impact of task significance on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Figure 10.17 shows that work experience as hospitality professionals also strengthens the impact of task significance on normative occupational commitment ( $p$  value =  $0.000 < 0.05$ ).

Figure 10-17: Moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on the relationship between Task significance and normative occupational commitment



Hospitality educators with rich hospitality industry experience have experienced the low social status of hospitality industry jobs. When they change their occupation from hospitality professional to hospitality educator, they experience

the change in social status at the same time, from a less prestigious job to a highly prestigious job. They may be relatively sensitive to this change in social status and be greatly concerned about their self-image and how people perceive their performance as hospitality educators.

In the Chinese tradition, educators represent wisdom and knowledge and are regarded as scholars who transmit knowledge and essential skills for living and personal development. They are also viewed as moral figures and role models for students (Fwu and Wang, 2002). Having been hospitality professionals for a period, they decide to change their occupation as hospitality educators. They may feel a great pressure to be moral figures and role models for students and society. In particular, when they are greatly concerned about their impacts on students, institutions and the hospitality industry, that pressure increases and they may try hard to perform as role models. The pressure may induce hospitality educators' normative occupational commitment. Therefore, work experience as hospitality professionals positively strengthens the impact of task significance on the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

#### **10.7.5 Moderating Effect of Work Experience as Hospitality Professionals on the Relationship between Job Skill Variety and Normative Occupational Commitment**

The results show that work experience as hospitality professionals does not moderate the relationship between job skill variety and the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong ( $p$  value = 0.443 > 0.05). The result is reasonable. Job skill variety is related to the skills needed to meet one's work demands. Hospitality educators must meet the demands of their students, their institutions and the hospitality industry. With various skills and professional knowledge, they can fulfil the expectations of various parties and commit to hospitality education as their occupation.

This finding is consistent with Section 10.5.6. Hospitality educators' required skills differ significantly from those of hospitality professionals. As mentioned in Section 10.5.6, hospitality educators' perception of the importance of job skill variety is closely related to their work experience in their current occupation – hospitality educator – but not their previous occupations. Although their hospitality industry experience may help them to teach when they want to share their experience with students, this is only a small part of hospitality educators' work. For instance, work experience as hospitality professionals cannot help to enhance hospitality educators' research skills. Therefore, work experience as hospitality professionals has a weak moderating effect on the relationship between job skill variety and the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

## **10.8 Summary of Chapter 10**

This chapter presents the moderating effects of both types of work experience (as hospitality educators and hospitality professionals) on the key antecedents of the three dimensions of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The results show that work experience moderates the relationships between the antecedents and occupational commitment at various levels. Chapter 11 presents some insights and implications for the hospitality education industry and for scholars.

# **11. Chapter 11 – Conclusion and Implications of the Study**

## **11.1 Introduction to Chapter 11**

This study aims to explore hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. To achieve this aim, the study sets eight objectives:

1. To identify the reasons for choosing hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong;
2. To identify the current and perceived future challenges faced by hospitality educators in Hong Kong in the context of Chinese culture;
3. To develop the occupational commitment model in the context of hospitality education by identifying the key antecedents of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong;
4. To validate an instrument for measuring occupational commitment in the context of hospitality education;
5. To compile the profiles of hospitality educators in Hong Kong in terms of age, gender, marital status, job position and work experience;
6. To measure the level of occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators;
7. To test the interrelationships between the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators and its antecedents; and
8. To test the moderating effect of two types of work experience (that of hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

This study uses a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods to achieve the research objectives. In this study, seven focus group interviews were conducted and a survey related to occupational commitment was distributed to hospitality educators in Hong Kong. For the main survey, 314 questionnaires were used for data analysis. Chapters 5-10 present the key findings of the focus group interviews, demographic differences analysis, hypotheses tests and moderating effects of work experience. The following sections conclude the key finding



summaries and discuss the implications based on the analysis results. This chapter also reviews the study's contributions. It ends by revealing the study's limitations and directions for the future research.

## 11.2 Attractions of Hospitality Education as an Occupation (Objective 1)

The focus group interviews identified the key attractions of hospitality education as an occupation and the challenges faced by hospitality educators. The findings show that hospitality educators in Hong Kong remain in the hospitality education industry because they want to pursue the **fulfilment of self-actualisation** through their education work. The participants highlighted their **important roles as hospitality educators** in the development of the hospitality and hospitality education industries. These important roles motivate educators to commit to hospitality education as their occupation.

As Hong Kong society is significantly influenced by Chinese culture, hospitality educators feel that they are highly respected by society as educators in the higher education sector. The **prestigious social status of hospitality educators** attracts them to join and remain in the hospitality education industry. Furthermore, with its combination British and Chinese background, Hong Kong is a popular travel destination. The hospitality industry is a major pillar of the Hong Kong economy (The Information Services Department HKSAR, 2012). It supports the growth of hospitality education and **the sustainability of the hospitality education industry** in Hong Kong. Educators foresee that many job opportunities will attract them to join the hospitality education industry.

The flexible work hours and high job autonomy of hospitality education jobs also attract educators to join the industry. They also appreciate the **transparent career enhancement criteria in the hospitality education industry and the sufficient information about their work performance gained from their jobs**.

### 11.3 The Current and Perceived Future Challenges Faced by Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong (Objective 2)

The focus group interviews also revealed current and future challenges. In terms of current challenges, the participants indicated that workload was the key challenge for hospitality educators. One's **workload** is dictated by the expectation of his or her organisation and the norm of the industry. Educators must do research, teaching and administrative work at the same time to meet promotion or contract renewal requirements. They are also concerned about **the implementation of interactive teaching methods** in a large class. Large class size prohibits hospitality educators from adopting various interactive teaching methods in class and makes it difficult for them to take care of students' development process individually.

The participants revealed that the **low social status of hospitality jobs** in Hong Kong society also induced challenges. As hospitality jobs are perceived as less prestigious, society perceives hospitality education as unnecessary. It is difficult to attract quality students to choose hospitality education as their major subject for their higher education. It is a challenge for hospitality educators to change Hong Kong society's perceptions of the hospitality industry and to attract quality students to choose hospitality education for their higher education study.

In addition, **changes in student values** present a great challenge for hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Students focus too much on short-term outcomes such as grades and the starting salaries of their first jobs while overlooking the long-term prospects of their self-development. It is a challenge for educators to train students up for the industry. In addition to the change in student values, to meet the expectations of their organisations, students and hospitality industry partners, hospitality educators must continually enhance and update their knowledge. **The need for continuous knowledge enhancement** presents another challenge for hospitality educators.

Furthermore, hospitality educators in Hong Kong must establish communication between students and industry employers so that the employers have ideas about what students expect to gain in their career development. They are also expected to **collaborate with the hospitality industry** and help it to overcome difficulties through their research. Research output not only contributes to the hospitality industry but also serves as a standard guideline for promotion in the hospitality education industry. **Research publication** is an important criterion for career enhancement in the hospitality education industry. Therefore, it presents a challenge for hospitality educators.

The focus group interview participants mentioned their concerns about future challenges. Thanks to technology, students can access and gain knowledge through various on-line channels easily. Students' thoughts on and expectations of school learning change continually. Hospitality educators perceive that **their role in students' development in the future** should be not only that of knowledge contributor but also to do something extra to meet students' expectations and help them become talented graduates.

The Hong Kong hospitality and tourism industry strongly relies on the Chinese market, and the development of the Hong Kong hospitality industry is closely related to China's policy and economy. **The uncertainty of China's policy and economy** may become a big challenge for educators. If any travel policy change or economic downturn were to occur in China, the hotel and tourism industry would be seriously affected. Consequently, hospitality education in Hong Kong would be affected. However, educators have a passive role in overcoming this challenge.

#### 11.4 The Key Antecedents of the Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong and the Occupational Commitment Model in the Context of Hospitality Education (Objective 3)

The focus group interviews revealed that hospitality educators are committed to the hospitality education industry because they can gain self-fulfilment through their research, teaching and collaboration with the hospitality industry. They feel satisfied when they gain appreciation from students for their teaching. They feel happy when their students and the industry are inspired by their research and collaboration projects. The perceived meaningfulness of their job induces an intrinsic motivation for hospitality educators, and they gain self-fulfilment through their work. Studies have interpreted this as self-actualisation at work. Therefore, **self-actualisation at work** is recognised as the first key antecedent of hospitality educators' occupational commitment.

The second key antecedent of occupational of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is **perceived occupational prestige**. Hospitality educators' social status is unique in Hong Kong society. On the one hand, hospitality educators are highly respected by society because of traditional Chinese culture. On the other hand, Hong Kong society considers hospitality education as non-mainstream education because service jobs are usually perceived as non-professional and low-skilled occupations. The focus group interview participants pointed out that they committed to their hospitality education occupations because their social status as hospitality educators was much higher than that of hospitality professionals. As occupational prestige is particularly important for Chinese people, perceived occupational prestige is a key antecedent of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Hospitality educators have also voiced their concerns about their role in students' learning. As the students' values and expectations of their learning are changing continuously, hospitality educators are concerned about how to enhance the students' learning effectively, such as by implementing interactive teaching

methods. They also desire to pursue knowledge enhancement continuously and collaborate with hospitality industry partners to provide quality teaching to their students. These kinds of concerns can be interpreted as impact concerns. Impact concerns are related to educators' concerns about the impact of their teaching on students, such as motivating students to learn and handle student diversity (Cakmak, 2008; Christou et al., 2004; Teachout and McKoy, 2010, Dunn et al., 2013). Based on this, **impact concerns** are recognised as the third key antecedent of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

The fourth identified key antecedent of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is **perceived person-job fit**. Some of the focus group interview participants indicated that the demands from various parties including students, institutions and the hospitality industry are challenges for them while some hospitality educators feel satisfied and committed to the hospitality education industry when they can fulfil the demands of various parties. This implies that the demands of various parties can be a challenge and an attraction for hospitality educators simultaneously. Studies have interpreted this as person-job fit. Perceived person-job fit is about one's perceived congruence or compatibility with the job (Edwards, 1991). Hospitality educators may perceive job demands as challenges when they are a poor fit for their occupations (Taylor et al., 2015).

The final key antecedent of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is **job characteristics**. The focus group interview participants mentioned a lot about hospitality education job characteristics. The job demands of various parties induce a great workload for educators. To meet the demands and fulfil their job requirements, they must have good research skills, rich knowledge of their taught subjects, good teaching techniques and excellent communication skills. This fits the concept of 'job skill variety' in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model. The participants also mentioned well-known career enhancement criteria, including research publications and student feedback on teaching. Educators can gain information about their work

performance according to these clear career enhancement criteria. This fits the concept of 'feedback from job' in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) models. Furthermore, the participants mentioned that they could manage their work and personal matters at the same time. They also could determine the way, place and time to complete their work. This fits the concept of job autonomy in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) model. Moreover, the participants felt that when their role significantly influenced others including their students, colleagues, organisations and hospitality industry partners, they were committed to the hospitality education industry. This fits the concept of 'task significance' in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) model. Therefore, the final key identified antecedent is job characteristics. The five core characteristics in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model are included to develop the research model.

Based on the findings of the focus group interviews and literature search, five key antecedents of occupational commitment are identified: self-actualisation at work, job characteristics, perceived occupational image, perceived person-job fit and impact concerns. Hospitality education is closely related to the hospitality industry. To measure occupational commitment accurately, Meyer et al. (1993) proposed a three-dimensional occupational commitment model. This research model includes the moderating effects of work experience as hospitality educators and as hospitality professionals. For hospitality educators with previous experience in the hospitality industry before joining the hospitality education field, their experience helps them to fulfil the industry-related aspect of hospitality education. Therefore, this study proposes that hospitality educators' occupational commitment may be influenced by not only their work experience as hospitality educators but also their experience as hospitality professionals. Based on these arguments, the research model is presented as shown in Figure 6.1.

### **11.5 To Validate an Instrument for Measuring Occupational Commitment in the Context of Hospitality Education (Objective 4)**

In this study, one objective is to validate the occupational commitment measurement posed by Meyer et al. (1993). The measurement has 18 items, and each dimension of the occupational commitment consists of a six-item scale. The measurement is first validated by exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and a reliability test through SPSS in the pilot test. The EFA and reliability test results show that the 18 items fit their corresponding factors perfectly. As such, all of the items are kept for confirmatory factor analysis in the main survey.

The purpose of confirmatory factor analysis is to assess the reliability and validity of the factors and items in the selected model (Doll et al., 1994). Confirmatory factor analysis is conducted through AMOS. The model fit test finds that items COC06 (Changing professions now would require considerable personal sacrifice) and AOC02 (I regret having entered the hospitality education profession) have a significant impact on the model fit results. Therefore, the two items may not be fit to measure occupational commitment in the context of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. As such, the two items should be deleted. Therefore, the two items are eliminated when measuring the three dimensions of occupational commitments of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

### **11.6 The Profile of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong (Objective 5)**

Hospitality educators in Hong Kong have diverse and international profiles. They come from many countries including Korea, Canada, the Philippines, Thailand, mainland China, Austria and New Zealand. It is good for hospitality education and hospitality industry development because hospitality educators from different countries can help others to acquire knowledge and experience (Altbach and Knight, 2007; Xu et al., 2018). As hospitality educators in Hong Kong are used to working in a multicultural environment, they are culturally sensitive and competent. Cultural conflict is a common problem in the hospitality sector. The different cultural

backgrounds of hospitality educators can help the industry to overcome this conflict through research integration and teaching.

Although the geographic backgrounds of hospitality educators cover many countries around the world, the majority (over 70%) are Chinese. Around 14% come from other Asian countries such as Korea and Thailand, and around 16% come from non-Asian countries. This implies that Chinese culture may have a great influence on the thoughts of hospitality educators. As mentioned in Chapter 1, hospitality educators play a contradictory role due to the discrepancy between the perceived occupational prestige of the hospitality and higher education industries in Chinese culture. This may influence the occupational commitment of hospitality educators. Therefore, this study considers how hospitality educators' perceived occupational prestige influences their levels of occupational commitment.

Hospitality educators in Hong Kong are also well educated. All of them are either Master's or doctoral degree holders. Overall, 55% of them have doctoral degrees and 45% have Master's degrees. This implies that they are knowledgeable enough to overcome the challenges of hospitality education. They also have rich experience in the hospitality education industry. Around 44% of them have five to ten years of hospitality education work experience and around 33% of them have 11-20 years of hospitality education work experience. As hospitality education and the hospitality industry are closely related, hospitality educators' work experience in both industries may influence their work competency. Around 69% of hospitality educators in Hong Kong have more than three years of work experience in the hospitality industry, and around 10% have more than ten years of experience. This shows that hospitality educators in Hong Kong are knowledgeable and experienced. Together with their diverse cultural backgrounds, their work competency is strong.

The distribution of job positions of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is also healthy. The majority of hospitality educators are in lecturer, instructor and



teaching assistant positions (57%) and can fulfil the teaching duties of higher education institutions. Around 30% are in assistant professor and senior lecturer positions and can fulfil their research duties and support the postgraduate education sectors. Overall, 13% are in associate professor or higher positions and have good research and teaching skills to support the growth of the hospitality education industry.

The majority of hospitality educators are aged between 31 and 40 years old (49%); 39% are between 41 and 50 years old. In addition, the gender distribution between female and male hospitality educators is quite even (56% and 44%). The healthy age and gender distributions of hospitality educators supports hospitality education development in Hong Kong and that hospitality higher education in Hong Kong has achieved a gender balance. Gender equality has become a contemporary issue in academia in recent years. It is believed that a gender-equal academia reflects societal change and societal support for female academics to participate in academic activities (Winchester and Browning, 2015). Moreover, based on the position distribution, the hospitality education structure is healthy and developed. The majority of educators (87%) are assistant professors, lecturers and instructors, while 13% have associate professor or higher positions.

However, the gender distribution of senior positions shows gender inequality in the Hong Kong hospitality education industry. Around 25% of hospitality educators in senior positions are female, while 75% are male. Similar to other countries, Hong Kong encounters a problem of a gender imbalance in higher education (The University of Hong Kong (HKU), 2017). Gender inequality is a common issue across disciplines including science, technology, engineering, humanities and social sciences in Hong Kong. This problem is particularly serious for senior positions. Less than 20% of full professors are female in Hong Kong universities and less than 10% of deans are female (HKU, 2017). The findings of this study show that hospitality education in Hong Kong, like other disciplines, faces the issue of gender inequality.

## **11.7 The Level of Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong (Objective 6)**

In general, the findings show that the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators ( $\mu = 4.26$ ) is the highest across all types of occupational commitment. The levels of continuance ( $\mu = 3.62$ ) and normative ( $\mu = 3.59$ ) occupational commitment are similar. This implies that the hospitality educators in Hong Kong are emotionally attached and committed to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. However, it also implies that the external pressures and perceived investment costs of leaving hospitality education affect their occupational commitment. To achieve a deep understanding of the level of occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong, this study conducts a demographic difference test.

### **11.7.1 Differences in Affective Occupational Commitment across Various Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

Affective occupational commitment is related to hospitality educators' emotional attachment to their occupation (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993; Mowday et al., 1979). The analysis results show no significant difference in the level of affective occupational commitment across hospitality educators in Hong Kong in terms of gender and marital status.

However, there is a significant difference in the level of affective occupational commitment across hospitality educators with different education backgrounds. This implies that hospitality educators with doctoral degrees are more intrinsically committed to the hospitality education industry, perhaps because the educators decided to join and commit to the hospitality education industry when they pursued their doctoral study. Most doctoral degree programmes are designed for those who want to develop their careers in the higher education industry and research-related industries. Therefore, hospitality educators with doctoral degrees are more intrinsically committed to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

Moreover, non-Asian hospitality educators have a higher level of affective occupational commitment than do Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This implies that Chinese hospitality educators are less likely to intrinsically engage in hospitality education as their occupation. This may present a problem for hospitality education. As the majority of hospitality educators in Hong Kong are Chinese, their low level of affective occupational commitment may influence their performance and consequently the quality of hospitality education.

In addition, there are significant differences in affective occupational commitment across groups with varying ages, positions and hospitality education work experience. Hospitality educators above 51 years old have the highest level of affective occupational commitment, while those between 31 and 40 years old have the lowest. Moreover, the findings indicate the trend that higher-ranking hospitality educators have higher levels of affective occupational commitment. This also shows that hospitality educators with more hospitality education work experience have higher levels of affective occupational commitment. The differences across ages, positions and hospitality education work experience are interrelated. As older hospitality educators have gained certain hospitality education work experience, they should be promoted to higher positions in the hospitality industry. Hospitality educators in high positions have built up their self-competency through research, teaching and collaboration experiences with colleagues and hospitality industry partners. In addition, the duties of higher positions in hospitality education are well-rounded, including teaching, supervision and research, while the duties of lecturers and instructors are teaching-oriented. The focus group interview participants also mentioned that they felt satisfied when they could help the hospitality industry through their research. Together with their work competency and job nature, the hospitality educators are emotionally attached to hospitality education when they can inspire people and contribute to society through their research, teaching and collaboration with hospitality partners.

Contrary to the study's prediction, there is no significant difference in normative and continuance occupational commitment between male and female hospitality educators in Hong Kong. In the Chinese tradition, the career development of females is less important. Females are mainly responsible for taking care of family members at home. In contrast, males are much more important in that their occupations are strictly related to their social status (Yu-Ning, 2015). With fewer expectations from society, this study predicts that female hospitality educators' occupational commitment is less likely to be influenced by external pressures from family and friends. However, the findings show that female hospitality educators in Hong Kong have similar levels of normative and continuance occupational commitment. This implies that the influence of Chinese tradition on gender difference may be deteriorating. The female hospitality educators in Hong Kong are committed to not only their family but also their career development. This result provides insight into the change of impact of Chinese tradition culture.

#### **11.7.2 Differences in Continuance Occupational Commitment across Various Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

Continuance occupational commitment is a kind of commitment induced by the perceived investment costs of leaving the occupation (Hall et al., 2005; Meyer et al., 1993). Chinese and Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong have higher levels of continuance occupational commitment than do non-Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This implies that Asian and Chinese hospitality educators are committed to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong because of the high perceived investment cost of leaving hospitality education. The nature of Chinese and Asian culture explains this point. Both Chinese and Asian cultures have a strong sense of collectivism (Chao, 1994). As the social status of an occupation can bring fame and reputation to one's family, Chinese and Asian hospitality educators must sacrifice the reputation brought to their families when they leave the hospitality education occupation.

In addition, the continuance occupational commitment of married hospitality educators is significantly higher than that of single and divorced hospitality educators, perhaps because they have strong family liability. As they must support their families, the stability and sustainability of their occupation is very important. These extrinsic rewards are investment costs of leaving that induce the continuance occupational commitment of married hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

In addition, there are significant differences in continuance occupational commitment across groups with varying ages, positions and hospitality education work experience. The findings show that the older, higher positioned and more experienced hospitality educators have greater continuance occupational commitment. This finding is reasonable. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, age, position and work experience are interrelated. Older hospitality educators gain certain hospitality education work experience and should be promoted to higher positions in the hospitality industry. It makes sense that the perceived investment costs of leaving their occupation are high when educators have spent plenty of effort on career development for years. The investment costs of leaving, such as tenure, are high for experienced hospitality educators. Therefore, experienced hospitality educators have greater continuance occupational commitment.

### **11.7.3 Differences in Normative Occupational Commitment across Various Demographic Groups of Hospitality Educators in Hong Kong**

Similar to the results for continuance occupational commitment, Chinese and Asian hospitality educators have higher levels of normative occupational commitment than do non-Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong. As mentioned previously, both Chinese and Asian cultures have a strong sense of collectivism (Chao, 1994). As one's occupation is closely related to the reputation of his or her family, parental influence on career choice is strong in Chinese and Asian cultures. Educators' occupational commitment is significantly influenced by external

pressures such as their family. Therefore, their normative occupational commitment is significantly higher than that of non-Asian hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

The normative occupational commitment of divorced and married hospitality educators is significantly higher than that of single hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This shows that divorced and married hospitality educators are more concerned about how people view them as hospitality educators. This result is related to Chinese culture. When hospitality educators get married and form their families, they take on a greater responsibility for their families. This puts extra pressure on the married hospitality educators. For divorced hospitality educators, as in Chinese culture, divorced and separated people, especially women, are recognised as leftover people and are discriminated against by society (Fincher, 2016; Hwang, 2007). To gain recognition from society, they always pretend to be strong and seldom share their unhappiness and weakness with others (Hwang, 2007). Therefore, they are very concerned about the views of others, which places extra pressure on them. As they use their occupation as a tool to improve their reputations and those of their families, they are committed to that occupation – hospitality education. Therefore, married and divorced hospitality educators have a higher normative occupational commitment than single hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Similar to the results for affective and continuance occupational commitment, there are significant differences in normative occupational commitment across groups with varying ages, positions and hospitality education work experience, perhaps because most experienced hospitality educators have been promoted to higher positions in the hospitality education industry and are highly respected by society. As mentioned previously, higher education educators in the Chinese community are highly respected by society. If the educators are in a high position, they are considered even more prestigious. However, society places very high expectations

on them. This may induce them to be more committed to hospitality education, and therefore their normative occupational commitment is higher.

### **11.8 Interrelationships between the Occupational Commitment of Hong Kong Hospitality Educators and its Antecedents (Objective 7)**

To test the relationships between the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators and its antecedents, hierarchical multiple regression is conducted.

The findings show that **self-actualisation at work** is positively associated with hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment but negatively related to their continuance occupational commitment. However, self-actualisation at work is not significantly related to the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This finding is consistent with the focus group interview findings. In the interviews, the hospitality educators mentioned that they felt happy to be hospitality educators, as they could contribute to the hospitality industry through their research and students. They gained psychological and spiritual fulfilment through their teaching and research. This fulfilment led them to commit to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

These results also imply that hospitality educators with high levels of self-actualisation at work are less concerned about extrinsic rewards, and thus their commitment is less likely to be induced by such rewards. As self-actualisation at work is positively associated with affective occupational commitment but negatively associated with continuance occupational commitment, this means that self-actualisation at work can motivate hospitality educators to intrinsically commit to hospitality education without great concern for the extrinsic rewards. This provides hospitality education institutions the insight to enhance the affective occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators by providing opportunities and supports for educators to fulfil their self-actualisation at work.

The findings show that **perceived occupation prestige** is positively related to the affective and normative occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators but is not significantly related to their continuance occupational commitment. In the Chinese tradition, educators represent wisdom and knowledge and are regarded as scholars who transmit knowledge and essential skills for living and personal development. They are also viewed as moral figures and role models for students (Fwu and Wang, 2002; Moses et al., 2016; Yang and Lin, 2016). This may influence Hong Kong hospitality educators' perception of the meaningfulness and significance of their occupation. Therefore, it is positively related to the affective occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators.

Moreover, as educators are viewed as moral figures and role models for students, they are highly respected by society. The high respect from external parties including friends, parents and even society may place great pressures on the hospitality educators in Hong Kong, which may push the educators to be more committed to their hospitality education occupation. Given the strong influence of collectivism in Hong Kong society, the external pressure from society is particularly strong. It induces a high level of normative occupational commitment in Hong Kong hospitality educators.

The social status of educators in the Chinese community is high and the educators are highly respected by society. The educators may lose the respect of society if they quit the hospitality education industry. Therefore, this study predicts that perceived occupational prestige is also positively related to continuance occupational commitment. However, unexpectedly, there is no significant relationship between perceived occupational prestige and the continuance occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators. This implies that hospitality educators in Hong Kong are committed to hospitality education not because of an unwillingness to lose social status or respect from society, but because of the meaningfulness of their occupation and the external pressures from others.



Based on these findings, to enhance the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong, hospitality institutions and related parties such as the government should put an effort into building up the prestigious image of hospitality educators. As mentioned in the literature review, hospitality education is in a secondary position that makes hospitality educators perceive that they are less prestigious than educators in other faculties.

Hospitality educators' **impact concerns** are positively associated with their continuance and normative occupational commitment but not with their affective occupational commitment. When educators place a lot of efforts into ensuring their teaching quality, inspiring students and influencing the students' development, they may have high expectations of their impacts on student growth. As student development is a long-term process that may take months or even years, educators may need to give them up when they decide to leave the occupation. Therefore, educators' impact concerns induce their continuance occupational commitment.

Moreover, educators with a high level of impact concerns are more concerned about how their teaching influences students' future development and how students perceive the significance of their teaching (Huber, 2011). They may also have great concerns about how students and even the students' parents evaluate their teaching performance. This makes hospitality educators commit to hospitality education.

The results imply that impact concerns cannot motivate hospitality educators to be committed to hospitality education intrinsically but may push them to be committed due to the external pressures from others and the investment costs of leaving. This is consistent with the focus group findings. Among the challenges identified in the interviews were the changes in students' expectations and values and their role in the students' learning. Although impact concerns can induce the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators, the commitment is also induced

by external pressures from others and the investment costs of leaving. This may cause stress and burnout for hospitality educators. Therefore, counselling support should be provided to hospitality educators to release the pressures induced by impact concerns.

The findings also show that **perceived person-job fit** is positively related to affective occupational commitment but not significantly related to the continuance or normative occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators. Perceived person-job fit refers to the level of congruence or compatibility between an individual and his or her job (Edwards, 1991). Perceived person-job fit increases when hospitality educators perceive that their work competency is a good fit for the demands of their job and that their job can fulfil their work-related needs. When their job expectations are satisfied and their work competency fits the job demands, it may induce hospitality educators' emotional attachment to their occupation and enhance their affective occupational commitment.

Perceived person-job fit is hospitality educators' perception of their fitness for their occupation. It is not a kind of investment cost of leaving the occupation, so it is unrelated to the continuance occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators. Furthermore, perceived person-job fit is related to the fit between one's personal value and perceived occupation value, and the fit between one's work ability and job demand. Perceived person-job fit is not easily affected by external pressure from other parties such as colleagues, friends and family. Therefore, it is also unrelated to the normative occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators.

Based on the findings, perceived person-job fit can induce the affective occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators, which is a kind of intrinsic engagement in the occupation. It is essential to enhance perceived person-job fit to induce the affective occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators. Thus, support for enhancing educators' work competency is

important to enhancing their occupational commitment. As mentioned in the focus group interviews, hospitality educators are required to pursue continuous knowledge enhancement. This knowledge enhancement is difficult without support from the institution. Institutions and related parties should fulfil the work-related needs of hospitality educators by stepping forward to explore the needs of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

The findings indicate that **job autonomy** is positively related to affective occupational commitment but negatively related to continuance occupational commitment. It also has no significant relationship with normative occupational commitment. With high job autonomy, hospitality educators can manage their time and achieve a work-life balance. It also provides freedom for hospitality educators to pursue their needs and wants in their careers and overcome job challenges. The focus group interview participants mentioned that continuance knowledge enhancement was a challenge for hospitality educators in Hong Kong. As the expertise of each hospitality educator is different, hospitality educators need the freedom to strengthen their knowledge and skills. Moreover, with high job autonomy, educators can use their time to complete their job duties but also enhance their competency, such as by exploring their networks with other scholars and collaborating with industry professionals and other researchers. Some educators may even be able to find good career opportunities in the hospitality industry. Therefore, job autonomy enhances the affective occupational commitment but reduces the continuance occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators.

This highlights the importance of job autonomy. It can induce educators' intrinsic engagement in the occupation but also enhance the mobility of hospitality educators. Consequently, hospitality education can enjoy the benefits of high mobility in that occupational knowledge and job expertise can circulate throughout the industry (Hackett et al., 2001; Meyer et al., 1993). This provides the hospitality education industry insight into the importance of job autonomy. With high job

autonomy and support for knowledge enhancement, mobility and affective occupational commitment can be enhanced.

**Feedback from job** is positively related to affective and normative occupational commitment but not significantly related to continuance occupational commitment. Through feedback from job, educators receive sufficient information about their work performance and know the effectiveness of their work. In addition, the focus group interview participants indicated that they had a mission to contribute to society through their research, teaching and collaboration with hospitality practitioners. Feedback from job provides essential information for hospitality educators to evaluate whether their intrinsic needs and missions are fulfilled. Thus, it is positively associated with affective occupational commitment. However, feedback from job also provides information for educators about others' thoughts on their work performance (e.g., students' feedback). Others' thoughts put pressure on educators and induce their normative occupational commitment. Therefore, it is also positively associated with the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Hospitality institutions should put effort into modifying the channels hospitality educators use to obtain information about their work performance.

The results show that **task significance** is positively associated with the affective, continuance and normative occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators. It is also the **only antecedent** correlated with three dimensions of occupational commitment. This proves the educators are intrinsically motivated and affectively committed to their occupations when they can influence others in society through various work activities such as research and consultancy services and not just specifically through influencing students. Hospitality educators also perceive their contribution as the investment of costs. They may see that the task significance of hospitality education is unique and cannot be found in other occupations. Therefore, task significance can induce the affective and continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Moreover, given the strong influence of Chinese culture, Chinese hospitality educators have a strong sense of collectivism (Chao, 1994) and are greatly concerned about how students perceive their teaching quality and how institutions and the hospitality industry perceive their work contributions. The perceptions of students or related parties place external pressures on them to be committed to hospitality education. This causes the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

As task significance is positively associated with the three dimensions of the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators, how hospitality educators perceive their task significance seriously affects their occupational commitment. Therefore, the task significance of hospitality educators must be managed carefully. Based on the focus group interviews, task significance can be an attraction but also a challenge for hospitality educators. Recognising their contributions and impacts on society can enhance the commitment of hospitality educators and help them to perceive task significance as an attraction of their occupation. The details are discussed in the implications section.

The results show that task identity is positively related to continuance occupational commitment but not to affective or normative occupational commitment. **Task identity** is the only job characteristic that is not significantly related to affective occupational commitment. It also has no significant relationship with the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators. Task identity refers to the degree which a job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). It is reasonable that task identity has a weak impact on the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators. Hospitality educators with high levels of job autonomy can sometimes determine how to complete their work. They can decide to complete their work on their own or by collaborating with others. In other words, they can determine how to complete a whole and identifiable piece of work. Therefore, task identity has a weak impact on affective occupational commitment. However, hospitality educators may perceive

that this flexibility is unique in hospitality education and an investment cost of leaving. Therefore, it is correlated with the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators. However, as it cannot induce the emotional attachment of hospitality educators, institutions should focus on job autonomy instead of task identity for their educators.

Finally, **job skill variety** is positively associated with the affective and normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong but is not significantly related to continuance occupational commitment. The job skill variety needed in the hospitality education industry provides an opportunity for educators to use their professional skills, knowledge and even work experience. By applying their job skills, they can contribute to society through their research, consultancy services and teaching. This is consistent with the focus group interview findings, as participants felt satisfied when they could contribute to society through their research and teaching.

However, their contribution to society may place pressures on hospitality educators. The pressures come from the expectations of various parties such as students and institutions. The work competency and job skill variety of hospitality educators may induce high expectations of their work performance from various parties. It may place pressures on the educators so that their normative occupational commitment is enhanced. Therefore, opportunities for hospitality educators to contribute to society by using their knowledge, skills and experiences are recommended.

### **11.9 Moderating Effect of Two Types of Work Experience (that of Hospitality Professionals and that of Hospitality Educators) on the Occupational Commitment of Hospitality Educators (Objective 8)**

Given the close relationship between the hospitality and hospitality education industries, this study examines the moderating effects of two types of work experience (that of hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) on hospitality educators' occupational commitment.

Moderating effect analysis shows that work experience as hospitality educators strengthens the positive relationship between self-actualisation at work and affective occupational commitment, while work experience as hospitality professionals weakens the relationship. This implies that **work experience as hospitality professionals weakens the motivation of hospitality educators to pursue self-actualisation at work** and makes them less likely to commit to hospitality education in Hong Kong.

This presents a problem for the hospitality education industry. Work experience as hospitality professionals should help hospitality educators to handle the challenges of their work and pursue self-actualisation at work. However, the results show that work experience as hospitality professionals demotivates hospitality educators in committing to their occupation and pursuing self-actualisation at work. This may be related to the low social status of hospitality jobs in the Chinese community. When hospitality professionals stay in the hospitality industry for a long period, they may learn a lot about the social status of hospitality occupations. With their rich experience in the hospitality industry, they may feel that it is very difficult to change society's perceptions of that industry. They may also have strong feelings about the secondary position of hospitality education in Hong Kong society. It may create a high barrier for them to fulfil their self-actualisation needs. This barrier discourages hospitality educators from pursuing self-actualisation at work and decreases their affective occupational commitment.

Furthermore, both types of work experience (that of hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) dampen the positive relationship between perceived occupational prestige and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This shows that **work experience in both industries cannot induce educators' occupational commitment and even worsens the impact of perceived occupational prestige on their occupational commitment.**

This may be related to the social status of hospitality and the hospitality education industry in Chinese society. When hospitality professionals have stayed in the hospitality industry for a period, they realise the truth about the less prestigious status of hospitality occupations. Although they have changed their occupation as hospitality educators, they may realise the secondary position of hospitality education in Hong Kong society and find that the occupation is not as prestigious as they thought. They may also realise that it is very difficult to change society's perception of hospitality occupations. This creates a barrier for educators to be intrinsically committed to hospitality education. By realising the reality of the social status of hospitality and the hospitality education industry, the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is less likely to be influenced by perceived occupational image. This presents a problem for both hospitality and the hospitality education industry. To train up professional and talented hospitality students, educators must believe that hospitality is a profession. If their beliefs deteriorate, it affects not only their occupational commitment but also their work performance, such as their teaching quality.

Moreover, **both types of work experience (that of hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) strengthen the relationship between perceived person-job fit and the affective occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators.** This shows that with rich experience in the hospitality and hospitality education industries, hospitality educators are highly capable of pursuing self-fulfilment in work and committing to the hospitality education industry. Work experience as hospitality professionals is particularly important. As hospitality educators are always expected to work closely with the hospitality industry and to train talented graduates with related technical and human skills to meet industry needs (Chan, 2011), their work experience as hospitality professionals can help them handle their job demands as hospitality educators.



As both types of work experience can strengthen the impact of perceived person-job fit on the affective occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators, institutions should provide opportunities for them to use their job experiences and provide support for knowledge enhancement so that they can strengthen their perceived person-job fit.

Furthermore, **work experience as hospitality educators dampens the impacts of job autonomy and feedback from job on the affective occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators.** The focus group interview and regression analysis findings prove that job autonomy and feedback from job are hospitality educators' favourite job characteristics. However, when educators stay in the industry for a period, their commitment is less likely to be affected by these characteristics, perhaps due to the job nature of higher education. Unlike other commercial industries, university faculties comprise outcome-oriented occupations and have a high degree of job autonomy (Liu et al., 2008). When educators newly join the hospitality education industry, they feel satisfied with the high job autonomy. However, after they have stayed in hospitality education for a period, they may become involved in more collaborations and research work and are always not able to finish their work and fulfil promotion-related requirements during normal working hours. Therefore, the impact of job autonomy on hospitality educators' affective occupational commitment is dampened throughout their career development process.

Other than job autonomy, work experience as hospitality educators worsens the positive effect of feedback from job on the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong, perhaps because feedback from job is no longer a concern of experienced hospitality educators. Experienced hospitality educators are less concerned about how they perform their work tasks, but they shift their concerns to the meaningfulness of the task to society. Therefore, their affective occupational commitment is less likely to be induced by feedback from job. This provides hospitality institutions with the insight that they should put effort

into providing sufficient information to junior hospitality educators about their work performance. They should also maintain the high job autonomy of hospitality education. However, after hospitality educators have gained a certain amount of experience in the hospitality education industry, institutions should provide more support for educators to enhance their person-job fit and should recognise their substantial contribution to the hospitality and hospitality education industries. Person-job fit and task significance have a great impact on the affective occupational commitment of experienced hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Furthermore, both **types of work experience (that of hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) strengthen the impact of task significance on the normative occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong**. This implies that more experienced hospitality educators feel more strongly that their work has a significant impact on the lives or work of other people through their occupations. This may be because experienced hospitality educators have developed their careers in the industry. They become involved in more duties such as research, research student supervision and other services for both institutions and the industry. Their work significantly influences other parties, including their undergraduate students, research students, institutions, hospitality education and the hospitality industry. They may have great concerns about related parties' perceptions of their work contributions. Because of this, they are committed to their occupations in hospitality education. This supports the importance of recognising their substantial contribution to the hospitality and hospitality education industries.

In addition, the results show that **work experience as hospitality professionals strengthens the positive relationship between task significance and affective occupational commitment**. This is consistent with the focus group interviews, where participants mentioned their significant role in changing society's incorrect impressions of the hospitality and hospitality education industries. Educators join and commit to the hospitality education industry to change society's perception that both industries are non-professional. Those with hospitality industry

experience may have strong feelings about the low social status of hospitality jobs. Therefore, they are more committed to the hospitality education industry.

The results also show that work experience as hospitality professionals has no moderating effect on the relationship between job skill variety and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. However, **work experience as hospitality educators moderates the relationship between job skill variety and affective occupational commitment**. This implies that hospitality education work experience can help hospitality educators to use their skills in their occupations. With rich experience in the hospitality education industry, hospitality educators know how to make use of their various skills to meet demand and pursue self-fulfilment in their occupations. Therefore, their affective occupational commitment is enhanced. Based on these results, hospitality institutions and even the hospitality education industry should encourage hospitality educators to engage in various types of work so that they can gain more experience in their occupations. Through this engagement process, hospitality educators are able to build up various skills, and their affective occupational commitment can be enhanced.

## **11.10 Implications of this Study**

### **11.10.1 Recognition System**

For hospitality educators in Hong Kong to enhance their affective occupational commitment, they must fulfil their self-actualisation at work. The findings of this study indicate that doing so can lead educators to intrinsically commit to hospitality education work. In fact, self-actualisation is essential for educators' career development because it involves a process of professional identity development (Shahzad et al., 2015). Educators can develop their envisioned future profiles by fulfilling their self-actualisation at work (Rhodes and Fletcher, 2013). Therefore, it is necessary to support educators in that capacity.

To support educators, appreciation and recognition of their research and teaching are recommended. The system of recognising educators' effort is important for reducing the educators' stress (Kyriacou, 1987; Muokwue and Ofojebe, 2009). The recognition system should consist of regular salary increases and recognition from schools, students and the hospitality industry. In fact, there are many forms of educator recognition, such as the selection of mentors for junior educators and certification of their professionalism (Darling-Hammond, 2010). For instance, certified educators are motivated to enhance their teaching quality and willing to adopt various teaching methods in their classes (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Appreciation from students is also an effective way to recognise educators' work.

A well-planned recognition system is very important. To develop the system, clear performance assessment criteria should first be defined (Darling-Hammond, 2010). No universal criteria list can be applied in all institutions because the organisational culture and nature of hospitality institutions can vary widely. However, institutions are recommended to link students' learning gains and thoughts to assessment criteria (Darling-Hammond, 2010). It is believed that students' learning gains and appreciation serve as good recognition of educators' effort. To implement an effective recognition system, hospitality institutions must ensure that hospitality educators are evaluated fairly to build up the trust between the educators and institutions. Encouragement-based evaluation is recommended to motivate educators to commit to their work. If all hospitality institutions were able to do so, it would create a norm and eventually create trust between hospitality educators and the hospitality education industry.

#### **11.10.2 Knowledge Enhancement Opportunities**

Other than a recognition system, hospitality educators' fulfilment of self-actualisation at work can be achieved by providing knowledge enhancement opportunities (Shahzad et al., 2015). The findings of this study indicate that hospitality educators have great concerns about the needs of knowledge enhancement. Through a continuous knowledge enhancement process, they can

gain self-fulfilment and meaningfulness through self-enhancement and eventually achieve a high level of self-actualisation (Zholdasbekov et al., 2014).

Knowledge enhancement opportunities are able to not only assist hospitality educators in pursuing self-actualisation but also strengthen their perceived person-job fit. Hospitality educators in higher education institutions are required to meet the demands of various parties including their institutions, their students and the hospitality industry. They must provide quality teaching to their students, meet the research publication requirements of their institutions and contribute to the hospitality industry through collaboration with hospitality partners. The demands of their jobs place high demands on their professional knowledge. Their professional knowledge is well-rounded and includes research skills, professional knowledge in their teaching area, teaching techniques and good industry communication skills. With knowledge enhancement opportunities, hospitality educators are well equipped to meet the demands and overcome the challenges of their jobs. Their work competency can also be improved. With a high level of work competency, hospitality educators perceive that they are a good fit for hospitality education and eventually their perceived person-job fit can be enhanced. Through the fulfilment of self-actualisation at work and the enhancement of perceived person-job fit, their affective occupational commitment can be strengthened.

Knowledge enhancement opportunities should not be limited to research-related knowledge but also include continuous teaching techniques and communication skills enhancement. Based on the focus group interviews, hospitality educators in Hong Kong consider interactive teaching in a large class and their future role in students' learning as their key challenges. As students are now growing in a technology environment in which they can gain knowledge through various channels not limited to classroom learning, educators are more concerned about their role in students' learning. Support for knowledge enhancement becomes important for hospitality educators to overcome the challenges in their occupations.

### **11.10.3 Self-image Enhancement**

The findings show that perceived occupational prestige is significantly associated with the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This implies that hospitality educators in Hong Kong perceive occupational prestige as an intrinsic motivator for them to commit to the hospitality education industry. Given the strong influence of Chinese culture, their behaviour and work attitudes are shaped as moral figures and role models for students and society. As education is perceived as an important part of personal development, education is a meaningful and important occupation. Being recognised as role models for the new generation, they are intrinsically motivated and committed to hospitality education as their occupation. However, society's high expectations of hospitality educators also place a great pressure on them. Given the strong sense of collectivism in Chinese culture, Chinese hospitality educators have great concerns about various parties' perceptions of their work performance. Therefore, educators' perceived occupational prestige has a significant impact on their affective and normative occupational commitment.

Demographic difference analysis shows that Chinese hospitality educators have a lower level of perceived occupational prestige than other hospitality educators. With an occupation perceived as less prestigious, they are less likely to commit to the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. This presents a problem for hospitality education development because the majority of hospitality educators in Hong Kong are Chinese. Given the strong influence of Chinese culture, hospitality jobs are classified as less prestigious occupations. Chinese people commonly perceive hospitality management study as unnecessary, especially at the higher education level. Consequently, hospitality education is viewed as a non-professional stream of education and relegated by society to a secondary position. Therefore, Chinese hospitality educators have a low perceived occupational prestige. To improve the perception of hospitality educators and their commitment to their occupation, it is necessary to enhance their self-image.

Self-image of hospitality educators is affected by their perception of the ideal role of hospitality education occupation (Nyborg et al., 2006). Their self-image can be enhanced when their work is consistent with their perceived ideal role of the hospitality educator. Therefore, it is necessary to recognise their important role in the hospitality education sector and hospitality industry. Based on the study's findings, hospitality educators believe they play an important role in changing Chinese society's incorrect perceptions of the hospitality and hospitality education industries in Hong Kong. Hospitality occupations are always perceived as less prestigious and non-professional occupations in Chinese society. Educators believe that this perception can be changed by the employment packages and reputation of the industry. Therefore, they aspire to be an intermediary between the young generation and hospitality employers to build up communication channels between students and hospitality industry partners. On the one hand, hospitality educators want to let the young generation understand the nature and attractiveness of the business. On the other hand, hospitality educators want to let hospitality employers know the career expectations of the young generation and guide the industry to make changes.

In this study, hospitality educators believe that the perception of hospitality jobs can be changed when hospitality employers improve their employment packages to meet potential employees' expectations. For instance, Maxwell et al. (2010) found that hospitality graduates evaluated an employment package based on several criteria including clear promotion and career development paths, professional knowledge and skills development opportunities, career support, salary, job security and work-life balance. Hospitality students understand the nature of shift work in the hospitality industry but are concerned about balancing their work and social lives (Maxwell et al., 2010). The role of hospitality educators is to help hospitality employers understand hospitality students' expectations and concerns related to the employment package.

The role of hospitality educators as a communication intermediary between the new generation and hospitality industry is unique and important. To enhance the self-image and perceived occupational prestige of hospitality educators, it is necessary to recognise their unique and important role in both hospitality education and the hospitality industry. This can be done by encouraging collaboration with hospitality industry professionals and providing more communication opportunities for students and hospitality professionals.

The findings also show that hospitality educators with lower positions have lower perceived occupational prestige than hospitality educators with higher positions. This shows a clear gap between lecturers/instructors and those in assistant professor or higher positions, in that the former perceive that they are less prestigious than the latter. This may present a problem for the growth of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. The majority of hospitality educators in lecturer or lower positions are young and junior educators and their occupational commitment affects the growth of the industry in the long run. It is important for the hospitality education industry to enhance the perceived occupational prestige of hospitality educators so as to support the sustainable growth of the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong.

As mentioned previously, perceived occupational prestige can be improved through one's recognition of self-image in work. The self-image of hospitality educators in low positions can be improved through a change in work nature. Chapter 7 discusses the difference in job nature across various positions. The job duty of hospitality educators in lecturer or lower positions is mainly teaching, which may make them feel that they make less of a contribution to society than do hospitality educators in higher positions. To enhance educators' perceived occupational prestige, they should be offered various work opportunities, research activities and collaborations with the hospitality industry. With higher involvement in various work-related activities, their self-recognition can be enhanced to improve



their perceived occupational prestige. Eventually, their affective and normative occupational commitment can be strengthened.

#### **11.10.4 System for Evaluating Hospitality Educators' Performance**

The analysis results reveal that job autonomy ( $\beta = 0.325$ ) and feedback from job ( $\beta = 0.325$ ) have the strongest influence on affective occupational commitment of all of the antecedents. Both job characteristics are related to job design. Job autonomy refers to educators' degree of freedom to determine a way to accomplish work tasks. With a higher degree of task autonomy, hospitality educators are allowed to determine when, where and how to complete their teaching, research and consultancy work. Feedback from job refers to the degree of information received about the effectiveness of the employee's job performance. Feedback from job is different from agent feedback. Work is the main source of feedback from job, while supervisors, bosses and colleagues are the main sources of agent feedback (Battistelli et al., 2013; Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

The findings show that hospitality educators commonly perceive a high level of job autonomy in hospitality education. However, perceived feedback from job varies across hospitality educators. Transparent career enhancement criteria are the factors attracting hospitality educators to stay in the industry. The criteria cover research, teaching and service aspects. For research, hospitality educators can easily evaluate their teaching performance based on their number of publications, their journal rankings and the amount of research funding they have gained (Law and Chon, 2007). For service, hospitality educators can also easily evaluate their performance based on their services provided to the hospitality industry. However, teaching quality is difficult to quantify and measure.

Student evaluations of teaching is a common system for evaluating teaching quality at higher education institutions (Dunrong and Fan, 2009). Nowadays, most higher education institutions adopt student evaluations as teaching quality measures for annual appraisals and promotions (Chen and Hoshower, 2003).

However, the effectiveness and fairness of the student evaluation system are arguable, and the system places great pressure on hospitality educators. This study finds that hospitality educators are concerned about student evaluations. As student evaluations are used as criteria of their appraisal, the evaluations are a source of stress for educators, who are demotivated by the frequent evaluations and appraisals of their teaching quality.

The fundamental aim of student evaluations is to provide a channel for students to express their thoughts and wants to their educators and institutions. They provide useful information that teachers can use to improve their teaching quality and that institutions can use to modify their curricula. However, student evaluations of teaching are affected by class size and programme level (Carrell and West, 2010; Fernandez et al., 1998; Mateo and Fernandez, 1996). The quality of research student supervision is even more difficult to measure (Armstrong, 2004; Baldry, 2004).

Research output is relatively easier to measure than teaching quality. Therefore, promotion in the higher education industry is perceived as relating more to research output than to teaching quality (MacAlpine, 2001). The main duty of hospitality educators in low positions (e.g., lecturers, instructors and teaching assistants) is teaching. Without a research output, they can only gain feedback on their performance through student evaluations and students' growth and development, which is sometimes difficult to quantify. Without a comprehensive measurement of teaching quality, educators feel that they cannot gain sufficient information about their work performance, which affects their commitment. Hospitality education institutions should design an effective performance evaluation tool to evaluate the teaching quality of hospitality educators.

One possible way is to adopt observation data to assess teaching quality (Colvin et al., 2009). Other than student feedback on teaching quality, institutions can set measures for observation assessment, such as student behaviour data. These

data can be the number of students on a task or the test scores reflecting the students' learning performance. Other than observation assessment, some researchers (e.g., Chen et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2012; Xiang and Changming, 1999) have recommended that institutions evaluate teaching quality using a fuzzy comprehensive evaluation method. To evaluate teaching quality effectively, institutions should first set a clear teaching quality assessment index. The index should cover various aspects including teaching content, teaching method, teaching effectiveness and students' perceived teaching quality (Sun et al., 2012). In fact, there is no single way to evaluate teaching quality. However, hospitality institutions should provide a set of clear assessment criteria so that the hospitality educators can evaluate their performance accordingly.

#### **11.10.5 Work Engagement Culture**

This study finds that hospitality industry work experience dampens the impact of self-actualisation at work on affective occupational commitment. This implies that hospitality educators with rich work experience as hospitality professionals are less committed to pursuing self-actualisation at work. The result also shows that job skill variety can help hospitality educators to meet the demands of and pursue self-fulfilment in their occupations. Based on the result, it is believed that a work engagement culture can help hospitality educators to pursue self-actualisation so as to enhance their affective occupational commitment.

Hospitality educators are expected to perform various duties including research, teaching and collaboration with the hospitality industry. A work engagement culture can help them to handle their job demands. It can also motivate them to pursue the fulfilment of self-actualisation at work.

Studies have investigated the work engagement culture in the education sector and highlighted some of its key components, which include the aforementioned recommendations such as an effective evaluation system and knowledge enhancement opportunities. On top of the aforementioned recommendations,

studies have suggested a reward for creating an effective engagement culture. Hospitality education institutions should set up a system to reward those hospitality educators who create an effective engagement culture (Siddiqi, 2013). For instance, education involves knowledge-sharing behaviour, which is a volunteer-based extra-role behaviour (Camelo-Ordaz et al., 2011). Institutions should recognise and reward those hospitality educators who are willing to share their experience and knowledge with students, industry partners, their colleagues and even hospitality educators from other institutions. Due to the recognition and reward from the hospitality education industry and their institutions, they are more willing to participate in work-related activities, including mandatory and voluntary activities.

#### **11.11 Theoretical Contributions**

This study supports social cognitive career theory, which highlights the influences of cultural factors on the career development process. It suggests that the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong is strongly affected by perceived occupational prestige. It explores current Hong Kong hospitality educators' thoughts on their occupational prestige. It finds that perceived occupational prestige is positively associated with the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. However, both types of work experience (that of hospitality professionals and that of hospitality educators) dampen the positive relationship between perceived occupational prestige and the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. This proves the contradictory position of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

In addition, social cognitive career theory suggests that inputs such as previous work experience have a moderating effect throughout the career development process. This study applies the theory and proposes that both work experience as hospitality professionals and as hospitality educators have moderating effects on occupational commitment. The two types of work experience have various moderating effects on the relationships between occupational commitment and its

antecedents, which supports social cognitive theory. In addition, the work experiences of hospitality educators (those of hospitality educators and hospitality professionals) do not always have positive moderating effects on the link between hospitality educators' occupational commitment and its antecedents. For instance, while experience positively moderates the link between perceived person-job fit and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators, it also negatively moderates the relationship between perceived occupational image and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators. The findings extend the knowledge of social cognitive theory on the moderating effects of current and previous work experience. Many individuals may work in more than one industry during their career development process. This study provides scholars the insight that work experience does not always positively moderate employees' commitment; sometimes, experience may have negative moderating effects on that commitment.

Second, this study supports the application of person-job fit theory to the hospitality education context. Given the high mobility characteristics of the hospitality education occupation, the congruence between the occupation and educators is expected to change continuously. As such, this study proposes that person-job fit theory can be applied in the context of hospitality education. The study finds that person-job fit is closely related to the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong.

Third, this study applies Maslow's (1973) self-actualisation theory to the context of hospitality education and proposes a link between self-actualisation at work and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The findings show that self-actualisation at work is positively associated with the affective occupational commitment but negatively associated with the continuance occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. The findings prove the link between self-actualisation at work and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators. This implies that hospitality educators with high levels of

self-actualisation at work are more intrinsically engaged in the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong and are less concerned about the perceived cost of leaving the hospitality education industry.

Fourth, this study is the first attempt to link Fuller's (1969) teaching concerns theory to occupational commitment in the context of hospitality education in Hong Kong. Its findings support this link. Impact concerns are closely related to continuance and the normative occupational commitment of the hospitality educators in Hong Kong but not to their affective occupational commitment. This implies that the impact concerns of hospitality educators may induce external pressures on the educators, making them committed to hospitality education. However, the impact concerns do not induce an intrinsic motivation of hospitality educators to commit to hospitality education.

Fifth, this study supports the occupational commitment model of Meyer and Espinoza (2016), which highlights the simultaneous impact of the three dimensions of antecedents (personal, organisational, and occupational) on the three dimensions of occupational commitment. This study proposes that the three dimensions of antecedents have distinct effects on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators. The findings show that personal antecedents significantly impact affective occupational commitment and occupational antecedents greatly influence normative occupational commitment. This implies that personal antecedents play a dominant role in the affective occupational commitment of hospitality educators. In addition, occupational antecedents (such as perceived occupational prestige) do not intrinsically motivate hospitality educators to engage in hospitality education but merely induce commitment caused by external pressures on hospitality educators. The findings prove that the three dimensions of antecedents simultaneously exert various significant impacts on the three dimensions of occupational commitment.

Finally, this study tests the well-developed instruments in the context of hospitality education including the short index of self-actualisation developed by Jones and Crandall (1986), the job diagnostic survey developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980), the teacher concern questionnaire developed by Meek (1996), the person-job fit scale developed by Cable and DeRue (2002), the occupational prestige instrument developed by Lim et al. (2000) and the six-factor solution instrument developed by Meyer et al. (1993). These instruments do not perfectly fit the context of hospitality education. In this study, the instruments are validated and modified to fit the hospitality education context.

### **11.12 Directions for Future Study**

Hospitality educators are facing high demands from their work including teaching, research and service. To fulfil the work demands, they are required to be teachers, researchers and hospitality consultant professionals. When hospitality educators play more than one role in their occupations, they may perceive their work role identities within those occupations differently. An educator's work role identity is how the educator interprets the meaning of his or her work and roles as an educator (Kim et al., 2017). Hospitality educators may have varying levels of commitment in different roles. Some educators may be more committed to research-related work, while some may be more committed to teaching-related work. Currently, hospitality educators' commitment to role identity has yet to be investigated. Future studies may focus on hospitality educators' commitment to different role identities.

The study indicates that hospitality educators are concerned about their roles in and contributions to students' learning development. Due to technology enhancements, it may not be necessary for students to gain knowledge through traditional classroom learning. They can gain knowledge through various on-line channels easily. Future studies may explore the future role of hospitality educators in students' learning development process.

This study investigates perceived occupational prestige. However, it does not specifically investigate the perceived occupational prestige of foreign hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Foreigners are always respected in Chinese society. A foreign hospitality educator in Hong Kong may feel that he or she is even more prestigious in Hong Kong. The findings of the study show that the perceived occupational prestige of foreign hospitality educators is higher than that of Chinese hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Few studies have considered the perceived social status of foreigners in the Chinese community. This may provide a direction for future studies.

Similar to other higher education faculties, high job autonomy is a typical job characteristic. As high job autonomy allows hospitality educators to manage their work and family lives at the same time, it should be a favourable job characteristic. High job autonomy is a unique characteristic of higher education. This study expects that Hong Kong hospitality educators perceive job autonomy as an investment cost of leaving hospitality education and that job autonomy should be positively associated with continuance occupational commitment. However, the findings show that job autonomy is negatively associated with continuance occupational commitment. This means that hospitality educators do not perceive job autonomy as an investment cost of leaving. Hospitality educators' perceptions of job autonomy remain in question. Therefore, future studies may focus on the role of job autonomy in hospitality educators' career development.

### **11.13 Limitations of the Study**

Beyond the limitations of the research methods (shown in Section 4.7), this study has some limitations. The key antecedents of the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators are identified based on the focus group findings. However, some debatable antecedents of occupational commitment are not included in the quantitative part of the study. For example, while some of the participants mentioned that work-family conflict made it challenging for them to commit to their occupation, others disagreed with this. Therefore, work-family



conflict is not identified as a key antecedent of the occupational commitment of Hong Kong hospitality educators. The differing opinions across hospitality educators may induce bias in the identification of key antecedents, and some key antecedents may not be investigated in the study.

Moreover, the uneven populations across demographic groups prohibit a conclusion. For instance, the main survey respondents are unevenly distributed in terms of marital status. The number of divorced hospitality educators is so small that it is statistically weak to make any conclusion about demographic differences in occupational commitment.

This study investigates the moderating effect of work experience as hospitality professionals on hospitality educators' occupational commitment. It assumes that this work experience should be related to hospitality educators' current work. However, it overlooks the issue that the current job duties of some hospitality educators may not be related to their previous work experience as hospitality professionals. For example, hospitality educators with rich convention and event industry experience may not teach convention- and event-related subjects or conduct any research in this area. Due to limited resources, it is impossible for hospitality institutions to recruit one or more hospitality educators with related experience in each subject. This may induce a hidden bias in the moderating effect analysis results.

#### **11.14 Final Conclusion**

This study explores hospitality education as an occupation in Hong Kong. With the rapid growth of hospitality education in Hong Kong, the demand for qualified and committed hospitality educators is high. However, given the strong influence of Chinese culture, hospitality educators in Hong Kong face the challenge of being considered as holding a secondary position in society. It is necessary to understand what attracts hospitality educators to join the hospitality education industry in Hong Kong. The hospitality education occupation is a demanding

occupation. Educators are required to conduct research, teach and provide services to the hospitality industry. It is also necessary to understand the challenges faced by hospitality educators in Hong Kong to support them in their career development.

This study contributes to the knowledge in several ways. First, it explores the occupational commitment of hospitality educators with different demographic backgrounds in Hong Kong. The findings show that demographic backgrounds are closely related to hospitality educators' occupational commitment. Second, it explores the moderating effects of previous work experience in the context of hospitality education. This study is a first attempt to test the moderating effects of work experience as hospitality educators and hospitality professionals. It proves that previous work experience in other industries has a moderating effect on one's commitment to his or her current occupation. Third, this study links perceived occupational prestige to the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in the context of Chinese culture. It provides evidence of the influence of perceived occupational prestige on the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. Finally, it explores the key antecedents of the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong. It is hoped that the results of this study raise the concerns of researchers considering hospitality education as an occupation and the occupational commitment of hospitality educators.

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**Appendix 1: Sample of Focus Group Consent Form**

**Focus Group Consent Form**

**Research project title:** Understanding the Hospitality and Tourism Education as an Occupation in Hong Kong

**Research investigator:** Clare Fung

**The purpose of the study:** The purpose of the study is to understand more about hospitality educator's career choice in Hong Kong.

- I agree to participate in the focus group carried out by Clare Fung of the University of Bournemouth, to aid with the research of Understanding the Hospitality and Tourism Education as an Occupation in Hong Kong.
- I have read the information sheet related to the Understanding the Hospitality and Tourism Education as an Occupation in Hong Kong and understand the aims of the project.
- I am aware of the topics to be discussed in the focus group.
- I am fully aware that I will remain anonymous throughout data reported and that I have the right to leave the focus group at any point.
- I am fully aware that I am not obliged to answer any question, but that I do so at my own free will.
- I agree to have the focus group audio recorded, so it can be transcribed after the focus group is held. I am aware that I have the right to edit the transcript of the Focus Group once it has been completed.
- I am aware that I can make any reasonable changes to this consent form.

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Participants Signature

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Date

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Researcher Signature

---

Date

## **Appendix 2: Sample of main survey questionnaire**

### **Understanding the Hospitality and Tourism Education as an Occupation in Hong Kong**

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Clare Fung and I am an instructor at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management of Hong Kong Polytechnic University. I am currently conducting a study about the occupational commitment of hospitality educators in Hong Kong for my PhD study at Bournemouth University. The purpose of the study is to understand hospitality educator's career choice in Hong Kong and the level of occupational commitment of hospitality educators. It is a voluntary survey. All data collected will be used **for academic research** and will be kept with **strict confidentiality for collective analysis only. No individual data will be disclosed.**

Thank you for your support to this study.

In Question 1 to 12, please circle the number which best represent your level of agreement to each of the following statements: 問題 1 到 15 中，請在以下的語句圈出你最同意的級別數字：

1 = Strongly Disagree 十分不同意; 2 = Disagree 不同意; 3 = Neutral 中立; 4 = Agree 同意; 5 = Strongly Agree 十分同意

<div> <div>SECTION 1 : YOUR FEELING ABOUT YOUR JOB</div> <div>第一部份：你對你的工作感覺</div> </div>		<div> <div>Strongly Disagree</div> <div>十分不同意</div> <div>Strongly Agree</div> <div>十分同意</div> </div>				
STATEMENTS						
1. I do not feel ashamed of any of my emotions at work. 我不會為我工作上的任何情緒而感到慚愧。		1	2	3	4	5
2. In my work, I feel I must do what others expect me to do. ® 在工作上，我覺得我必須做別人期望我做的事。		1	2	3	4	5
3. I believe that people are essentially good and can be trusted. 我相信人本質上是良好的並可以信任的。		1	2	3	4	5
4. In my work, It is always necessary that others approve of what I do. ® 在工作上，我所做的事是必需要受到其他人所認同的。		1	2	3	4	5
5. I accept my own weaknesses at work. 我接受自己在工作上的弱點。		1	2	3	4	5
6. I can like people without having to approve of them. 我可以喜歡別人而不需認同他們。		1	2	3	4	5
7. I fear failure at work. ®		1	2	3	4	5

在工作中，我害怕失敗。					
<b>8. I attempts to analyze and simplify complex domains at work.</b> 在工作上，我試圖分析和簡化一些複雜的工作領域。	1	2	3	4	5
<b>9. It is better to be myself than to be popular.</b> 我認為做回自己比受別人歡迎更好。	1	2	3	4	5
<b>10. I have mission at work to which I feel especially dedicated.</b> 在工作中，並沒有令我覺得值得奉獻的使命。	1	2	3	4	5
<b>11. I can express my feelings even when they may result in undesirable consequences at work.</b> 在工作上，即使這可能會導致工作上的不良後果，我仍可以表達我自己的感受。	1	2	3	4	5
<b>12. I am bothered by fears of being inadequate at work. ®</b> 我為擔憂自己工作表現上的不足而感到困擾。	1	2	3	4	5

In Question 13 to 17, please circle the number which best represent your level of agreement to each of the following statements: 問題 13 到 17 中，請在以下的語句圈出你最同意的級別數字：

1 = Very Little 很少; 2 = Little 少; 3 = Moderate 中等; 4 = Much 多; 5 = Very Much 很多

		Very little 很少 ↓	→			Very much 很多 ↓
<b>SECTION 2 : JOB CHARACTERISTICS 第二部份：工作特點</b>						
<b>STATEMENTS</b>						
13. To what extent does my job permit me to decide on my own how to go about doing the work? 在什麼程度上，你的工作允許你自行決定如何完成工作的方法？	1	2	3	4	5	
14. To what extent does my job involve doing a “whole” and identifiable piece of work? 在什麼程度上，你的工作涉及“整體”性並可細分為成數項作業？	1	2	3	4	5	
15. To what extent are the results of my work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people? 在什麼程度上，你的工作成果顯著地影響別人的生活和幸福？	1	2	3	4	5	
16. To what extent does the job require me to do many different things, using a variety of my skills and talents? 在什麼程度上，你的工作需要你利用不同的技能和才華去做很多不同的事情？	1	2	3	4	5	
17. To what extent does doing the job itself provide me with information about my work performance? 在什麼程度上，你所做的工作本身為您提供有關你的工作表現的資料？	1	2	3	4	5	

Question 18 to 67, please circle the number which best represent your level of agreement to each of the following statements: 問題 18 到 67 中，請在以下的語句圈出你最同意的級別數字：

1 = Strongly Disagree 十分不同意; 2 = Disagree 不同意; 3 = Neutral 中立; 4 = Agree 同意; 5 = Strongly Agree 十分同意

Strongly Disagree                      Strongly Agree  
十分不同意                      十分同意  
↓    ↓

18. My job allows me to use my personal initiative or judgments in carrying out the work. 我的工作容許任何機會運用我個人的主動性和判斷去處理工作。	1	2	3	4	5
19. My job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work. 我的工作給予我相當大的工作獨立和工作自由的機會。	1	2	3	4	5
20. My job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end. ® 我的工作本身已被安排好，使我沒有機會從頭到尾去完成一個完整的工作。	1	2	3	4	5
21. My job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin. 我的工作為我提供機會去徹底完成我已經開始了的工作。	1	2	3	4	5
22. My job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done. 我的工作：很多人會受到我的工作表現所影響。	1	2	3	4	5
23. My job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things. ® 在一般的情況，我的工作本身就不是很意義或重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
24. My job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills. 在工作上，我需要使用一些複雜的或高層次的技能。	1	2	3	4	5
25. My job is quite simple and repetitive. ® 我的工作簡單而重複。	1	2	3	4	5

26. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing. 我只要做好工作本身所需的事情，已提供了很多機會給我了解我做得有多好。	1	2	3	4	5
27. My job itself provides clues about whether or not I am performing well. 我的工作本身提供了關於我的表現是否良好的線索。	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION 3 : IMPACT CONCERN 第三部份：影響力的關注**

Strongly Disagree      Strongly Agree

十分不同意      十分同意

↓      ↓

STATEMENTS					
28. I am concerned about meeting the needs of different kinds of students. 我關注關於滿足不同類型學生的需要。	1	2	3	4	5
29. I am concerned about diagnosing students learning problems. 我關注關於判斷學生學習的問題。	1	2	3	4	5
30. I am concerned about guiding students towards intellectual and emotional growth. 我關注關於指導學生的智力和情感發展。	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION 4 : OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE 第四部份：職業的威望**

Strongly Disagree      Strongly Agree

十分不同意      十分同意

↓      ↓

STATEMENTS					
	1	2	3	4	5



31. Hospitality and tourism education work is an occupation highly respected in Hong Kong community. 在香港社會上，款待及旅遊教育工作是一項備受推崇的職業。					
32. A career in hospitality and tourism education is definitely worth considering in Hong Kong. 在香港，款待及旅遊教育這個職業是絕對值得考慮。	1	2	3	4	5
33. Hong Kong hospitality and tourism education work provides good opportunity for advancement. 香港的款待及旅遊教育工作提供了很好的晉升機會。	1	2	3	4	5
34. The Hong Kong public generally looks down on hospitality and tourism educators. ® 香港市民普遍看不起款待及旅遊教育工作者。	1	2	3	4	5
35. The hospitality and tourism education profession is high in status and prestige in Hong Kong. 在香港，款待及旅遊教育這個行業的地位和威望很高。	1	2	3	4	5
36. Hong Kong hospitality and tourism education work is generally more prestigious than other education professions such as science education. 香港款待及旅遊教育工作一般比其他教育(如科學教育)的威望較高。	1	2	3	4	5
37. Most parents would want their children to choose hospitality and tourism education as a profession. 在香港，大多數家長都希望自己的孩子選擇款待及旅遊教育作為職業。	1	2	3	4	5
38. Hospitality education is a satisfying job in Hong Kong. 在香港，款待及旅遊教育是一個使人滿足的工作。	1	2	3	4	5
39. Basically, hospitality and tourism educators in Hong Kong are just glorified vocational trainers. ® 基本上，香港的款待及旅遊教育工作者只是美化的職業技術教練。	1	2	3	4	5
40. A job in Hong Kong hospitality and tourism education is generally better than most other job opportunities nowadays.	1	2	3	4	5

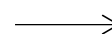
香港的款待及旅遊教育工作一般比時下大多數行業較有更好的工作機會。					
41. Hospitality and tourism education is “dirty work”. <sup>®</sup> 款待及旅遊教育是一種嫌惡性行業。	1	2	3	4	5
42. Hospitality and tourism educators are an esteemed corps of educators. 款待及旅遊教育工作者是一個受人尊敬的教育工作者團隊。	1	2	3	4	5
43. Hospitality and tourism educators are generally very well paid in Hong Kong. 在香港，款待及旅遊教育工作者一般有很優厚的薪金。	1	2	3	4	5
44. Generally, the Hong Kong public is suspicious of the profession of hospitality educators. <sup>®</sup> 香港市民一般都懷疑款待及旅遊教育的專業。	1	2	3	4	5

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

十分不同意

十分同意



SECTION 5 : PERSON-JOB FIT 人 第四部份:個人- 職業匹配度					
STATEMENTS					
45. There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job. 我的工作提供給我的和我在工作上要找尋的很脛合。	1	2	3	4	5
46. The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job. 我現在的工作很好地滿足了我在工作上所找尋的特質。	1	2	3	4	5
47. The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills. 工作上對我的需求與我個人技能十分匹配。	1	2	3	4	5

48. My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job. 我的能力和所接受的訓練與工作上對我的要求很脛合。	1	2	3	4	5
49. My personal abilities and education provides a good match with the demands that my job places on me. 我的個人能力和教育與工作上所重視的需求十分匹配。	1	2	3	4	5

Strongly Disagree      Strongly Agree

十分不同意      十分同意

↓      ↓

SECTION 6 : OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT 第五部份 :職業的承諾感					
STATEMENTS					
50. Hospitality and tourism education is important to my self-image. 款待及旅遊教育行業對我的自我形象非常重要。	1	2	3	4	5
51. I regret having entered hospitality and tourism education profession. ® 我後悔加入了款待及旅遊教育教育行業。	1	2	3	4	5
52. I am proud to be in hospitality and tourism education profession. 我為作為一個款待及旅遊教育工作者而感到自豪。	1	2	3	4	5
53. I like being a hospitality and tourism educator. 我喜歡作為一個款待及旅遊教育工作者。	1	2	3	4	5
	1	2	3	4	5

54. I identify with hospitality and tourism education profession. 我認同款待及旅遊教育為一個專業。					
55. I am enthusiastic about hospitality and tourism education. 我熱衷於款待及旅遊教育。	1	2	3	4	5
56. I have put too much into hospitality and tourism education profession to consider changing now. 若現在考慮改變我的職業，我已經為款待及旅遊教育行業投放太多。	1	2	3	4	5
57. Changing professions now would be difficult for me to do. 現在考慮改變我的職業對我來說是很困難的。	1	2	3	4	5
58. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my profession. 如果我要改變我的職業，我的生活會被打亂得太多。	1	2	3	4	5
59. It would be costly for me to change my profession now. 我現在改變我的職業，對我來說代價將是很高昂的。	1	2	3	4	5
60. There are no pressures to keep me from changing professions. ® 不斷改變我的職業，我也沒有任何壓力。	1	2	3	4	5
61. Changing profession now would require considerable personal sacrifice. 現在改變我的職業，我自身將需要承受很大的犧牲。	1	2	3	4	5
62. I believe people who have been trained in a profession have a responsibility to stay in that profession for a reasonable period of time. 我認為那些接受了專業的職業培訓的人是有責任在該行業逗留一段合理的時間。	1	2	3	4	5
	1	2	3	4	5

63. I do not feel any obligation to remain in hospitality and tourism education profession. ® 我不覺得我有任何義務留在款待及旅遊教育行業。					
64. I feel a responsibility to hospitality and tourism education profession to continue in it. 我覺得我有責任繼續款待及旅遊教育這個職業。	1	2	3	4	5
65. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave hospitality and tourism education now. 即使是對我有利，我也不認為現在離開款待及旅遊教育是正確的。	1	2	3	4	5
66. I would feel guilty if I left hospitality and tourism education. 如果我離開了款待及旅遊教育，我會感到內疚。	1	2	3	4	5
67. I am in hospitality and tourism education because of a sense of loyalty to it. 我留在款待及旅遊教育這個行業是因為我熱衷於忠實於這個行業。	1	2	3	4	5

#### SECTION 7: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA 個人基本情況/個人資料

##### 79. Gender 性別：

☐ Male 男

☐ Female 女

##### 80. Nationality 國籍：

☐ Chinese Hong Kong 中國香港

☐ Chinese Mainland 中國內地

☐ Chinese Macau 中國澳門

<div style="display: flex; flex-wrap: wrap;"> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> Australian 澳洲</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> Taiwanese 台灣</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> Japanese 日本</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> American 美國</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> German 德國</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> Korean 韓國</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> Thai 泰國</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> British 英國</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> New Zealand 紐西蘭</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> Canadian 加拿大</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> Singaporean 新加坡</div> <div style="width: 50%;"><input type="checkbox"/> Others 其他; Please specify 請說明_____</div> </div>
<p><b>81. Age Group 年齡組別:</b></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> ≤ 30 ;    <input type="checkbox"/> 31 – 40 ;    <input type="checkbox"/> 41 – 50 ;    <input type="checkbox"/> 51 – 60 ;    <input type="checkbox"/> ≥ 61</p>
<p><b>82. Highest Education Level 最高教育程度:</b></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate 學士                      <input type="checkbox"/> Master 碩士                      <input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral 博士</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Others 其他. Please specify 請說明 _____</p>
<p><b>83. Marital Status 婚姻狀況:</b></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Single 單身                      <input type="checkbox"/> Married 已婚                      <input type="checkbox"/> Divorced 離婚</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Others 其他. Please specify 請說明 _____</p>
<p><b>84. Number of Children under 18 十八歲以下的子女數目:</b></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 0                      <input type="checkbox"/> 1                      <input type="checkbox"/> 2                      <input type="checkbox"/> 3                      <input type="checkbox"/> ≥ 4</p>
<p><b>85. Position 職位:</b></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Professor or above 教授或以上                      <input type="checkbox"/> Associate Professor 副教授                      <input type="checkbox"/> Assistant Professor 助理教授</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Lecturer 講師                      <input type="checkbox"/> Instructor 導師                      <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching Assistant 教學助理</p>

☐ Others 其他. Please specify 請說明 \_\_\_\_\_

**86. Number of years working experience in hospitality and tourism industry 款待及旅遊業年資**

☐ < 3      ☐ 3 – <5      ☐ 5 – <10      ☐ ≥ 10

**87. Number of years working experience in hospitality and tourism education industry  
款待及旅遊教育業年資**

☐ < 5      ☐ 5 – <10      ☐ >10 – <20      ☐ 20 – < 30      ☐ ≥ 30

**88. Number of years working experience in hospitality and tourism education industry in Hong Kong  
香港款待及旅遊教育業年資**

☐ < 5      ☐ 5 – <10      ☐ >10 – <20      ☐ 20 – < 30      ☐ ≥ 30

**Thank you very much for your participation and invaluable opinions to this research!**

**多謝閣下參與及給予寶貴意見!**