

The influence of structural and psychological empowerment on work engagement in service organisations

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Phd in Economic Analysis and Business Strategy



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Título de la tesis: The influence of structural and psychological empowerment on work engagement in service organisations

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Abstract

Work engagement is considered a desirable condition for organisations due to its numerous organisational benefits such as increased performance, sales, customer satisfaction and positive employee outcomes (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Although work engagement has become a popular topic among academics, the impact of structural and psychological empowerment on work engagement has received less attention. The present doctoral thesis aims at elucidating the influence of structural and psychological empowerment on work engagement among employees working in service organisations in Spain and the United Kingdom (UK).

More specifically, this research investigated the mediating role of structural empowerment between transformational leadership and work engagement in the Galician hospitality industry. It also examined whether psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement and analysed its relationship with task performance and intention to quit across Spain and the UK. A qualitative study explored the motivational process through which intangible factors affect work engagement in the Galician tourism sector.

Results indicated that structural and psychological empowerment played a fundamental role in explaining work engagement and an engagement-disengagement framework was proposed to help organisations promote work engagement. A number of theoretical contributions, practical implications, limitations and suggestions for future research were addressed.

Keywords: structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, work engagement, service organisations.

Resumo

O compromiso no traballo considérase unha condición desexábel para as organizacións debido aos seus beneficios como maior produtividade, vendas, satisfacción do cliente e os resultados positivos para os empregados (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli e Bakker, 2010). Aínda que o compromiso converteuse nun tema popular entre académicos, o impacto do apoderamento estrutural e psicolóxico no compromiso recibiu pouca atención. Esta investigación ten como obxectivo principal dilucidar a influencia do apoderamento estrutural e psicolóxico no compromiso no traballo no sector servizos en España e no Reino Unido.

Máis concretamente, esta investigación investigou o papel mediador do apoderamento estrutural entre o liderado transformacional e o compromiso no sector turístico galego. Tamén examinou se o apoderamento psicolóxico mediaba a relación entre o apoderamento estrutural e o compromiso e a súa relación co desempeño e a intención de abandonar a empresa en España e no Reino Unido. Un estudo cualitativo explorou os factores inmateriais que afectan ao compromiso no sector turístico galego.

Os resultados indicaron que o apoderamento estrutural e psicolóxico xogaron un papel fundamental no compromiso no traballo e se propuxo un modelo de compromiso-non compromiso para axudar ás organizacións a promover o compromiso. Abordáronse varias contribucións teóricas, implicacións prácticas, limitacións e suxestións para futuras investigacións.

Palabras chave: apoderamento estrutural, apoderamento psicolóxico, compromiso no traballo, sector servizos.

Resumen

Son numerosos los estudios que han analizado el compromiso en el trabajo desde distintas perspectivas, considerándose una condición que las empresas desean debido a sus beneficios organizacionales como mayor productividad, ventas, satisfacción del cliente o resultados positivos para los trabajadores (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). El compromiso es un área de gran interés dentro del campo de organización de empresas y psicología positiva, y ha suscitado una gran atención en los últimos 15 años (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). De hecho, si hacemos una búsqueda por palabras clave en *Web of Science* que contenga *work engagement* (compromiso en el trabajo) en el título, se aprecia un notable aumento en el número de publicaciones académicas a partir de 2010.

El concepto de compromiso en el trabajo no tiene un homónimo en castellano que abarque el mismo significado que tiene en inglés. Existen conceptos similares en inglés que tienen su homónimo en castellano como la implicación en el trabajo (*work involvement*), compromiso organizacional (*organizational commitment*) o adicción al trabajo (*workaholism*) (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2004). Es por esta razón que de aquí en adelante se utilizará el término en inglés *engagement* para evitar confusiones.

Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, y Bakker (2002, p. 74) definen *work engagement* como “un estado mental positivo relacionado con el trabajo y caracterizado por vigor, dedicación y absorción”. Vigor se refiere a altos niveles de energía en el trabajo, resiliencia mental y esfuerzo. Dedicación consiste en un estado de entusiasmo, orgullo, estímulo y alta concentración en el trabajo. La tercera dimensión del *engagement* es la absorción, y se asocia a estar completamente absorto y centrado en el trabajo y, en consecuencia, el tiempo pasa rápidamente. Más que un estado específico y

momentáneo, el *engagement* se refiere a un estado afectivo-cognitivo positivo que no está orientado a un objeto, evento o situación concreta. Se trata de un constructo motivacional que está dirigido a la consecución de objetivos.

La mayoría de los estudios en este campo se han centrado principalmente en el análisis de sus antecedentes y consecuencias (Saks, 2006), el impacto de las demandas y los recursos laborales (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) y el síndrome de estar quemado en el trabajo (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014). El *engagement* en el trabajo cobra cada vez más importancia porque los trabajadores comprometidos son más propensos a ayudar a sus compañeros, son más creativos y productivos (Agarwal, 2014; Gawke, Gorgievski, & Bakker, 2017; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Sin embargo, pocos científicos han tratado de investigar la relación entre el empoderamiento estructural, empoderamiento psicológico y el *work engagement* (Bhatnagar, 2012; Macsinga, Sulea, Sârbescu, Fischmann, & Dumitru, 2015; Wang & Liu, 2015).

Los estudios existentes han demostrado que hay una relación positiva entre el empoderamiento estructural u organizacional y el *work engagement* (Boamah & Laschinger, 2015; Laschinger, Wilk, Cho, & Greco, 2009), siendo un área investigada fundamentalmente en el sector sanitario. El empoderamiento estructural se refiere a la presencia de un conjunto de prácticas sociales en el lugar de trabajo que otorgan poder, control y una mayor autoridad a los trabajadores a través del acceso a información relevante, oportunidades de crecimiento y desarrollo, apoyo y recursos suficientes (Kanter, 1977).

Asimismo, la evidencia empírica confirma que el empoderamiento psicológico tiene una influencia positiva sobre el *work engagement* (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011;

Bhatnagar, 2012; Macsinga et al., 2015; Wang & Liu, 2015). El empoderamiento psicológico se refiere al estado psicológico resultante de la orientación del individuo hacia su trabajo y se refleja en cuatro componentes cognitivos: significado, competencia, autodeterminación e impacto (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995). Es decir, este tipo de empoderamiento se basa en la percepción que el individuo tiene sobre los cuatro componentes cognitivos que forman parte de este constructo. Significado indica el grado en que los empleados perciben que su trabajo tiene sentido, es importante o significativo. Competencia se refiere a la creencia del individuo en la habilidad, destreza y capacidad para realizar su trabajo. La autodeterminación es la percepción que tiene el empleado de tener opciones en el trabajo o autonomía y libertad en la forma a la hora de hacer su trabajo. Impacto se refiere a la influencia de su trabajo en la organización o departamento (Spreitzer, 1995). El líder y la dirección de la empresa desempeñan un papel importante en la provisión de las cuatro dimensiones del empoderamiento psicológico.

En definitiva, esta investigación pretende constatar que los entornos que fomentan líderes transformacionales, empoderamiento estructural y psicológico son mutuamente beneficiosos para los empleados y las organizaciones, impulsando el *work engagement*. De esta forma, este estudio aporta un valor añadido a la literatura existente, arrojando luz y proporcionando evidencia empírica que demuestra la influencia conjunta del empoderamiento estructural y psicológico en el *engagement*.

La estructura de esta investigación se compone de un total de seis capítulos, además de la sección preliminar, las referencias y apéndices que se encuentran después del cuerpo de la tesis. El primer Capítulo comienza con una breve presentación del tema, continúa con la motivación de la investigación y, posteriormente, se pormenorizan los objetivos de dicha investigación. El presente estudio tiene como

objetivo principal examinar el impacto del empoderamiento estructural y psicológico en el *work engagement*. Para ello, este trabajo de investigación delimita un marco teórico que explica las relaciones entre las variables de estudio utilizando distintos enfoques, se seleccionan las fuentes de información más apropiadas para estudiar las hipótesis propuestas y, finalmente, se analizan empíricamente dichas suposiciones a través de modelos de ecuaciones estructurales y entrevistas semiestructuradas.

A nivel metodológico, se han utilizado dos enfoques diferentes: cuantitativo y cualitativo. Se han llevado a cabo dos estudios cuantitativos en los que se han empleado varios modelos de ecuaciones estructurales, una técnica estadística multivariante, a través del software SPSS y Amos (Arbuckle, 2017). El tercer y último estudio empírico es cualitativo y analiza entrevistas semiestructuradas usando la técnica del incidente crítico (Flanagan, 1954).

El primer paso en los estudios cuantitativos es depurar las bases de datos y calcular los estadísticos descriptivos de cada muestra para hacer una primera aproximación a los datos a través del cálculo de frecuencias, medias, desviación estándar, matriz de correlaciones, normalidad de las variables y el alfa de Cronbach. En segundo lugar, se calcula el coeficiente de fiabilidad compuesta y la varianza media extraída para examinar la validez convergente y discriminante de las medidas (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). A continuación, se presentan distintos modelos de ecuaciones estructurales que son evaluados a través de múltiples indicadores que estiman la bondad de ajuste del modelo (Hu & Bentler, 1995). Para ello, se utilizan el estadístico chi-cuadrado, el índice de ajuste comparativo (CFI), el índice de bondad de ajuste (GFI), y el error cuadrático medio de aproximación (RMSEA), entre otros.

En cuanto a la investigación cualitativa, se ha utilizado la técnica del incidente crítico para ayudar a identificar patrones específicos de comportamiento, situaciones y decisiones que conducen a los trabajadores a sentirse comprometidos en el trabajo. Para llevar a cabo el análisis de datos, se utiliza el análisis temático de Braun y Clarke (2006) utilizando el software NVivo.

La primera sección del Capítulo 2 presenta las principales variables de estudio (i.e., *engagement*, empoderamiento estructural y psicológico), sus definiciones, medidas y también se definen otros conceptos similares al *engagement* para aclarar las diferencias entre estos constructos. El segundo apartado de este Capítulo se centra en los fundamentos teóricos de esta investigación. En concreto, se describen tres marcos teóricos: el modelo de demandas y recursos laborales (Demerouti et al., 2001), la teoría del intercambio social (Blau, 1964) y la teoría de la autodeterminación (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

El primer enfoque teórico que se utiliza a lo largo de esta investigación es el modelo de demandas y recursos laborales (Demerouti et al., 2001). Este modelo postula que los entornos de trabajo o características laborales pueden dividirse en dos categorías principales: demandas y recursos laborales. Por un lado, las demandas laborales se refieren a "aquellos aspectos físicos, sociales u organizativos del trabajo que requieren un esfuerzo físico o mental sostenido y, por lo tanto, conllevan ciertos costes fisiológicos y psicológicos" (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Algunos ejemplos son la carga de trabajo, la presión o la inestabilidad laboral. Los recursos del trabajo, por otro lado, se refieren a los aspectos del trabajo que pueden: "(a) ser decisivos en la consecución de objetivos del trabajo; (b) reducir las demandas laborales y los costes fisiológicos y psicológicos asociados, (c) estimular el crecimiento personal, el

aprendizaje y el desarrollo" (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Algunos ejemplos son el apoyo social, la retroalimentación o la formación.

Según Bakker y Demerouti (2008), los recursos laborales son los principales impulsores del *engagement* a través de un proceso motivacional, mientras que las demandas laborales desencadenan un proceso de deterioro de la salud o estrés que puede provocar agotamiento (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). La disponibilidad de recursos laborales promueve el *work engagement*, estimulando la motivación intrínseca y extrínseca (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Los recursos laborales pueden aumentar la motivación intrínseca al fomentar el crecimiento, aprendizaje y desarrollo personal de los trabajadores, pero también pueden desempeñar un papel motivador extrínseco al facilitar la consecución de objetivos. Por ejemplo, la retroalimentación adecuada promueve el aprendizaje y el apoyo de los compañeros de trabajo aumenta la probabilidad de alcanzar los objetivos de trabajo (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002). En consecuencia, los recursos laborales pueden conducir a un mayor *work engagement* porque satisfacen necesidades básicas como autonomía, competencia y autoeficacia (Bakker, 2011; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

El segundo marco teórico que se utiliza en esta investigación es la teoría del intercambio social (Blau, 1964). Esta teoría sostiene que las relaciones sociales consisten en procesos de intercambio en los que las personas comparan los costes y beneficios de la relación en función del resultado. Es decir, cuando se establece una relación entre dos partes (por ejemplo, entre jefe y trabajador), se generan ciertas obligaciones recíprocas y las personas pueden actuar en consecuencia. Esto se basa en la norma de reciprocidad que postula que las personas deben ayudar a quienes les ayudaron (Gouldner, 1960). El intercambio social sugiere que los individuos pueden

sopesar los beneficios y costes del proceso de intercambio social y, cuando se hace balance, la interacción social dependerá de si el resultado es favorable o no. Los costes se refieren a aspectos negativos del proceso de intercambio, como el dinero, tiempo o esfuerzo, mientras que los beneficios incluyen los aspectos positivos del proceso de intercambio como la diversión o el apoyo social. Por consiguiente, las expectativas de los individuos juegan un papel relevante en las interacciones sociales.

La teoría de la autodeterminación (Deci & Ryan, 1985) describe dos tipos de motivación -intrínseca y extrínseca- e influyen en las conductas de las personas. La motivación intrínseca ocurre cuando los individuos hacen algo que les resulta agradable o estimulante de manera innata y las recompensas son las propias experiencias que acompañan ese comportamiento. Por el contrario, la motivación extrínseca está determinada por recompensas externas (e.g., dinero, premios o elogios) y se basa en elementos externos como el cumplimiento, la regulación externa y los castigos. El enfoque de esta investigación se centra únicamente en los determinantes de motivación intrínseca. El principio básico de esta teoría es que hay tres necesidades innatas-competencia, autonomía y relación-, que son fundamentales para el crecimiento psicológico, el desarrollo social y el bienestar (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

El Capítulo 3 presenta el primer artículo empírico, publicado en *European Management Journal*. Este estudio comprende 240 trabajadores del sector turístico gallego y examina el papel mediador del empoderamiento estructural entre el liderazgo transformacional y el *work engagement*. Los líderes transformacionales proporcionan una visión clara, promueven la estimulación intelectual de sus trabajadores, inspiran a sus seguidores y les comunican altas expectativas y apoyan de forma personalizada a cada empleado (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Los hallazgos de la investigación indican que la relación entre el liderazgo transformacional y el *work*

engagement está parcialmente mediado por el empoderamiento estructural. Es decir, los líderes transformacionales fomentan el *engagement* de forma directa e indirecta al conceder acceso a información, oportunidades de crecimiento, apoyo y recursos. Este artículo hace una importante contribución a la literatura existente al profundizar y demostrar empíricamente el papel mediador del empoderamiento estructural entre el liderazgo transformacional y el *work engagement*.

En el Capítulo 4 se expone el segundo estudio cuantitativo que tiene como objetivo investigar si el empoderamiento psicológico media la relación entre el empoderamiento estructural y el *work engagement* y, a su vez, analizar cómo influye en el desempeño y la intención de abandonar la empresa. Consiste en un análisis comparativo entre España y Reino Unido, utilizando una muestra compuesta por un total de 1033 trabajadores. Los resultados de los modelos de ecuaciones estructurales multigrupo muestran que el empoderamiento psicológico media parcialmente la relación entre el empoderamiento estructural y el *work engagement*, y este último se asocia positivamente con el desempeño negativamente con la intención de abandonar la empresa. Dicho de otro modo, los entornos de trabajo que facilitan acceso a información, oportunidades, apoyo y recursos tienden a estimular el estado psicológico de los trabajadores, y estos, a su vez, corresponden con altos niveles de *engagement*. Además, los análisis de invarianza métrica y estructural sugieren que la relación entre el empoderamiento psicológico y el *engagement* es más fuerte para los empleados que trabajan en el Reino Unido. Esto puede deberse a las diferencias en las características del trabajo y a que Reino Unido es una sociedad mucho más individualista que España (Hofstede, 2001). Este estudio contribuye a la creciente literatura sobre el empoderamiento y *engagement*, arrojando luz sobre el mecanismo a través del cual el empoderamiento estructural hace que aumenten los niveles de *work engagement*.

La investigación cualitativa se presenta en el Capítulo 5, cuyo objetivo es explorar el proceso motivacional a través del cual los factores intangibles pueden impulsar el *engagement* en el trabajo y estudiar cómo los individuos perciben el *engagement*, sus antecedentes y consecuencias. Para ello, ha sido necesario indagar en los entornos de trabajo y las estructuras organizacionales de las empresas en un ambiente cambiante, por medio de 25 entrevistas semiestructuradas realizadas a trabajadores (tanto empleados como directivos o jefes) en el sector turístico gallego. Tradicionalmente, se ha suscrito la creencia de que la motivación extrínseca es más importante que la intrínseca. Sin embargo, en los últimos años se ha experimentado un cambio de tendencia hacia la motivación intrínseca, sobre todo en los factores intangibles (Bénabou & Tirole, 2003; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Este estudio demuestra que los trabajadores comprometidos establecen un fuerte vínculo emocional y positivo con su trabajo porque les apasiona, lo encuentran lleno de significado y ayuda a comprender el comportamiento de los individuos en las organizaciones. Los resultados revelan que hay tres tipos de factores intangibles que promueven el empoderamiento de los trabajadores y el *engagement*: las características individuales inherentes al individuo (personalidad, aptitudes, expectativas), características o diseño de los puestos de trabajo (variedad en las tareas, autonomía, significado, retos) y características organizacionales (tipo de liderazgo, conciliación familiar, reconocimiento, apoyo, oportunidades de desarrollo). Esta investigación propone a las empresas que incentiven la participación de los trabajadores, deleguen más para que los trabajadores asuman nuevas responsabilidades y tareas, descentralicen la toma de decisiones, desarrollen y formen equipos de trabajo para así lograr que los trabajadores estén más comprometidos.

En el Capítulo 6 se resumen los principales resultados, se exponen las contribuciones teóricas, implicaciones prácticas, se presentan las limitaciones de esta investigación y se proponen varias sugerencias para futuras líneas de investigación. Entre las potenciales limitaciones es preciso señalar el uso de datos de corte transversal (Capítulos 4 y 5), que impide el desarrollo de inferencias causales. Por lo tanto, futuras investigaciones podrían usar estudios longitudinales que aporten una mayor robustez a los modelos propuestos. Otra limitación hace referencia al posible sesgo de la muestra debido al uso de cuestionarios y al origen de los datos, que proceden de una única fuente (trabajadores). No obstante, varios marcos teóricos y estudios previos respaldan las hipótesis propuestas y los resultados del análisis factorial confirmatorio atestiguan la validez de los constructos. Este sesgo potencial podría reducirse si los datos se obtienen de distintas fuentes (e.g., jefe o colegas) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Otra limitación se refiere a la restricción en la generalización de los resultados ya que esta investigación se centra en el sector servicios (i.e., sector servicios en general en España y Reino Unido- Capítulo 5) y, en particular, el sector turístico gallego (Capítulos 4 y 6). Por consiguiente, sería interesante que se explorase la relación entre el empoderamiento estructural, psicológico y el *engagement* en diferentes entornos (e.g., empresas grandes u organizaciones más jerárquicas) y en otros sectores.

En referencia a las limitaciones del estudio cualitativo, cabe destacar el pequeño tamaño de la muestra (25 entrevistas semiestructuradas) y la irrefutable percepción subjetiva a la hora de analizar las entrevistas. No obstante, han participado tanto empleados como mandos intermedios y directivos, que ocupan distintos puestos de trabajo y aportan una visión más global y desde distintos puntos de vista, contribuyendo también a la comprensión de las relaciones sociales entre líderes y empleados, y cómo influyen en el empoderamiento estructural, psicológico y el *work engagement*.

En suma, esta tesis doctoral avanza en el conocimiento del *engagement* al ahondar en el papel que juegan los elementos intangibles que forman parte del empoderamiento estructural y psicológico para fomentar el *work engagement*, y puede servir como punto de partida para futuras investigaciones en este campo de estudio. Para ello, es necesario que las organizaciones pongan en valor el clima organizacional y el capital humano, promoviendo una cultura participativa donde se reconozca el talento y el desarrollo de personas para facilitar la generación de *engagement* entre los trabajadores. Aunque las teorías sobre la motivación identifican distintos determinantes que conducen al *engagement*, no existe una fórmula mágica que logre atender por igual las necesidades de todas las personas, ya que el estudio del comportamiento y de las actitudes de las personas es muy complejo.

Palabras clave: empoderamiento estructural, empoderamiento psicológico, compromiso en el trabajo, sector servicios.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1. Motivation
2. Research objectives
3. Structure
4. Methods

Chapter 1: Introduction

Work engagement has become a very popular term and has attracted a great deal of attention in the field of human resource management and positive psychology over the past 15 years (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In the academic sphere, work engagement research began in the early 1990s, but its growing interest did not start until early 2000s (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011). In fact, if we do a keyword search on work engagement in Web of Science, we appreciate a remarkable increase in the number of publications retrieved containing work engagement in the title, obtaining 170 results from 1990 to 2009 and 1,463 results from 2010 to 2019.

Literature on work engagement has largely focused on its antecedents and consequences and the impact of job demands, resources and burnout on engagement (for a meta-analysis, see Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Halbesleben, 2010). However, there is a dearth of research on the interplay among structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and work engagement (Bhatnagar, 2012; Macsinga, Sulea, Sârbescu, Fischmann, & Dumitru, 2015; Wang & Liu, 2015). Most of studies on structural and psychological empowerment have been conducted in healthcare settings and studied their influence on job satisfaction.

1.1 Motivation

Empowerment and work engagement are vital for employees' well-being and organisational success, since employees play a major role in organisations as a source of competitive advantage. One of the most significant findings from different studies is that there is a positive link between job resources, work engagement as well as job performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Therefore, scholars suggest that work engagement is a desirable condition related to numerous organisational benefits (Macey

& Schneider, 2008). Prior research has shown that work engagement is associated with employee work attitudes and discretionary behaviour such as health and wellness (Cole, Walter, Bedeian, & O'Boyle, 2011; Crawford et al., 2010), increased client satisfaction and customer ratings (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005), organizational commitment and performance (Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008), increased daily financial returns and profitability (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009b), individual health outcomes (Christian & Slaughter, 2007), and extra-role behaviour (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). Moreover, Bakker and Demerouti (2008) suggested that engaged employees are more imaginative, productive, and more willing to go the extra mile.

Supportive work environments and positively valued experiences associated with the task itself may also play a substantial role in the development of work engagement through support from colleagues and superiors, a sense of a teamwork, meaningfulness and autonomy (Saks, 2006). Moreover, optimal job design may promote work engagement if tasks are allocated according to employees' abilities, skills and talent (Oldham & Hackman, 2010).

1.2 Research objectives

The main objective of this doctoral thesis is to investigate and understand the relationship among structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and work engagement in service organisations. To this end, the specific aims are detailed below:

- Delimitation of the theoretical framework that explains the relationships among the main study variables using different approaches.
- Configuration of the optimal strategy for selecting the most appropriate sources of information to explore the proposed relationships.

- Analyse empirically the influence of structural and psychological empowerment on work engagement using both quantitative and qualitative methods.
- Propose a number of practical recommendations based on the empirical findings aimed at improving levels of work engagement in the service industry.

1.3 Structure

The structure of this research is composed of a total of six chapters, in addition to the preliminary section, references and appendices (see Figure 1).

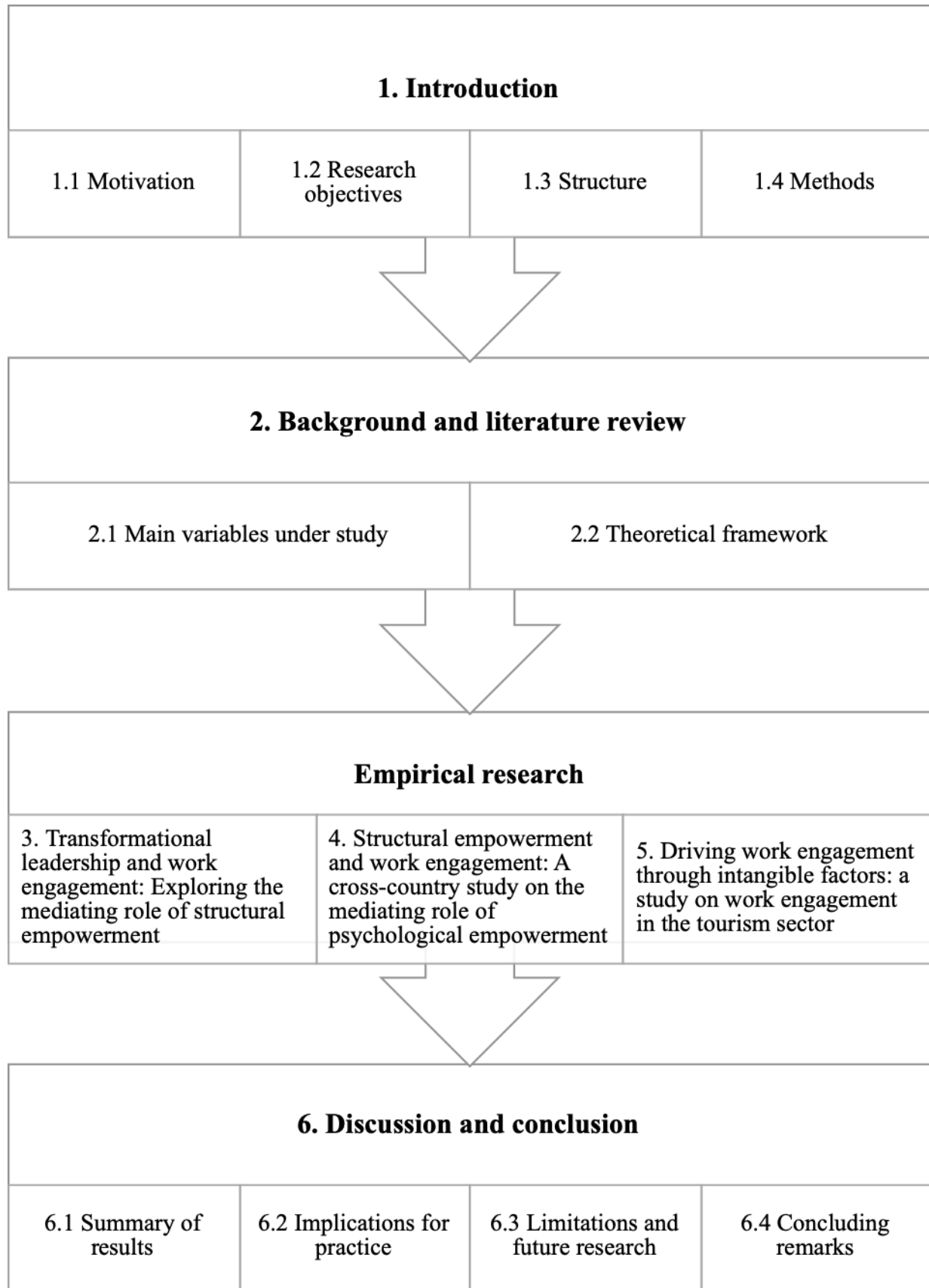
Chapter 1 includes an explanation and relevance of the research, as well as the motivation and objectives that will guide the research. This is followed by the structure and methods section, which contains an explanation of the research procedure, data collection methods and sample.

Chapter 2 presents an overview of the research background and the theoretical framework used. The former describes the main variables under study, namely work engagement, structural empowerment and psychological empowerment. The latter provides the theoretical underpinning for understanding the relationships studied in this research.

Chapters 3 to 5 present the empirical research that include three research papers (two quantitative and one qualitative) that have been submitted for publication to international journals with high impact factor.

Finally, Chapter 6 outlines a general discussion and conclusion. A number of theoretical contributions, practical implications, limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Figure 1. Research structure



1.4 Methods

Two different quantitative studies were conducted, but methods were alike using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The first empirical study includes a sample of 240 employees working in the Galician tourism sector (northwest Spain) and the second quantitative study comprises 515 cases from employees working in Spanish service organisations and 518 employees working in the United Kingdom.

First, the datasets were screened, outliers and missing values were removed. Preliminary analyses were carried out. Normality (i.e., skewness and kurtosis) was explored and descriptive statistics were computed (i.e., means, standard deviations and correlations among the study variables). Next, the proposed research models were developed and tested using a two-step approach (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The measurement model was examined first, validity and reliability tests (i.e., Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity and average variance extracted) were calculated and the presence of common method bias was inspected. Then, the structural models were assessed by means of Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFAs) with Amos version 25 (Arbuckle, 2017) and models were evaluated using multiple model fit indices.

A qualitative approach was used in the third study. 25 semi-structured interviews were conducted using the critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954). This technique is used to help identify specific patterns of behaviour, situations, and decisions leading to a particular event. To conduct the data analyses, thematic analysis was used following Braun and Clarke's (2006) guidelines.

CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Main variables under study
2. Theoretical framework

Chapter 2: Background and literature review

2.1 Main variables under study

2.1.1 Work engagement

Before we review the conceptualisations of work engagement, it is important to note that different types of engagement have been identified in the extant literature. The most common types of engagement are work engagement and employee engagement (Vance, 2006). The former refers to the relationship of employees with their work, whereas the latter is a broader concept that includes the relationship with the organisation (Schaufeli, 2013). That said, the present analysis and discussion will focus on work engagement.

On the basis of extensive research, many definitions of engagement have been originated. Kahn (1990) was the first scholar who conceptualized personal engagement in his seminal work as ‘the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances’ (p. 694). In other words, engaged employees exert themselves to do their work well because they identify with it and their organizational role, hence, the focus is on personal engagement. He further posed that there are three psychological conditions that may influence how people personally engage: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Meaningfulness refers to the gains or advantages associated with task features (e.g. challenging and independent tasks), role characteristics (e.g. status), and work interactions (e.g. interpersonal and social relationships). Safety is the assurance employees observe in situations that are foreseen and secure in terms of consequences related to their behaviour. Lastly, availability is

associated with the accessible resources essential for performing their roles. Kahn views engagement as a motivational behavioural construct.

Drawing on Kahn's concept, Rothbard (2001) defined engagement as a psychological presence and incorporated two crucial components: attention and absorption. Attention alludes to cognitive availability and the time spent by employees on their role, whereas absorption refers to being engrossed in one's role. Another stream of research on engagement is rooted in the burnout literature (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). These academics provided a new perspective, describing employee engagement and burnout as the opposite ends of the same continuum.

This concept was further developed by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002) who defined engagement as 'a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption' (p. 74). Vigour refers to energy, mental resilience and dedicating time and effort in one's work. Dedication is characterized by eagerness, pride, stimulus and meaningful involvement in their work. The last dimension, absorption, is about being completely focused and engrossed in one's work, thereby time flies and it is difficult to detach oneself from work (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Macey and Schneider (2008) suggested that engagement is 'a desirable condition, has an organizational purpose, and connotes involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort, and energy, so it has both attitudinal and behavioural components' (p. 4).

2.1.1.1 Similar constructs

One of the main issues identified in the literature is that the definition and operationalization of work engagement can sometimes overlap with some job attitudes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and job involvement. Indeed, previous research has suggested that engagement is a buzzword and is seen as ‘putting old wine in new bottles’ (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). In this section, these well-established constructs are explained to elucidate the main differences between these and work engagement and show work engagement is a unique concept different from other constructs.

Job satisfaction is one of the most studied job attitudes. This term concerns how employees feel about their job or the positive attitude towards their job. Locke, (1976) defined it as ‘a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences’ (p. 1304). This is a broad definition that encompasses not only the daily tasks or activities but also the interaction with colleagues and supervisors, policies and procedures, and working conditions.

Most literature on organisational commitment has focused on attitudinal and affective characteristics (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) defined organisational commitment as:

The relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization ... characterized by at least three related factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (p. 226).

Organisational commitment refers to a binding force between an individual and the organisation characterised by feelings of attachment and belonging (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). They developed a three-dimensional model including affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment alludes to an emotional attachment to the organisation and a belief in its values. The second component refers to commitment associated with the perceived value of staying with an organisation compared to leaving it. Lastly, normative commitment refers to employees' perception of obligation to stay with the organisation for moral or ethical reasons.

Job involvement was defined by Lodahl and Kejnar (1965) as 'the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-esteem' (p. 25). Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) contend that there is another view describing job involvement as a component of self-image. Put differently, job involvement refers to how individuals identify psychologically with their job.

Organisational citizenship behaviour concerns extra-role behaviours associated with the willingness to go the extra mile and exert discretionary effort. Examples include supporting colleagues with their work, helping them learn a new task, and volunteering to do something that benefits their teams, (Organ, 1988). Robbins (2005) defined it as 'voluntary individual behaviour, that while it is not part of formal job requirements, is still promoting the effective functioning of the organization' (p. 28).

Work engagement goes above and beyond the aforementioned job attitudes, combining a blend of different features. Work engagement includes feelings of enthusiasm, energy, and concentration. In particular, engagement is similar to organisational citizenship behaviour in a sense because it is voluntary and does not stem

from contractual obligations (Schohat & Vigoda-Gadot, 2010). Nonetheless, job satisfaction is a more passive form of employee well-being than work engagement in that the latter incorporates high levels of energy, activation, and concentration (Bakker, 2011). Unlike organisational commitment and job involvement that refer to intra-role behaviours and organisational citizenship behaviour that includes extra-role behaviours, work engagement encompasses both intra and extra-role behaviours.

Strong claims to this effect can be found in the research by Schohat and Vigoda-Gadot (2010) who argue that employee engagement comprises the best of what organisational commitment, job involvement, and organisational citizenship behaviour have to offer and ‘should be viewed as the most comprehensive description, to date, of the desired relationship between individuals and organizations’ (p. 105). Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006) showed in their empirical study that work engagement, job involvement, and organisational commitment represent different constructs. Therefore, work engagement should be considered a central standalone motivational construct.

From a somewhat different perspective, Newman, Joseph, and Hulin (2010) in their meta-analysis discovered that work engagement overlaps with a higher-order job attitude factor comprising job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and job involvement. Consequently, more work needs to be done in this area. Future research should examine the distinctiveness of these possibly overlapping work-related constructs.

2.1.1.2 Measures of work engagement

There are different approaches to the measurement of work engagement developed by scholars and practitioners. The main measures are described next.

Schaufeli et al. (2002) developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003), the most widely used academic measure of work engagement. The original scale comprised 17 items measuring the dimensions of vigour, dedication, and absorption. The short version encompasses 9 items. This scale has been validated in many countries and several studies have tested its reliability and validity.

Initially burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996) assessing the dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. However, items within each subdimension point to the same direction. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) further developed the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI), including the dimensions of exhaustion and disengagement. They suggest that OLBI can be used to assess work engagement if the items are reverse-coded.

Based on Kahn's (1990) concept of engagement, Rich, LePine, and Crawford, (2010) proposed a 18-item scale to measure what they called job engagement. This includes the subscales of physical engagement, emotional engagement, and cognitive engagement.

Several consultancy firms have developed different measures of engagement. The Gallup Workplace Audit (so called Q₁₂) includes 12 questions addressing issues such as role clarity, available material resources, development opportunities, social and supervisor support, feedback, coaching, voice, meaningfulness, quality culture as well as learning opportunities (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003). Nevertheless, Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2003) claim that this approach predicts job satisfaction. Another example is the Institute for Employment Studies (IES) engagement survey that includes

12 attitudinal statements. The main drawback of these measures is that they do not focus on actual engagement; rather, they analyse its predictors or consequences (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

Work engagement (i.e., vigour, dedication and absorption) was measured with shortened nine-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2002), which is the most commonly used measure to assess work engagement.

2.1.2 Structural empowerment

Empowerment is an essential element of organization effectiveness that may escalate when control and power are distributed (Keller & Dansereau, 1995). Empowerment has been analysed from different perspectives, stemming from two main research streams, namely structural and psychological empowerment. Structural empowerment has its roots in social exchange and power theories (Kanter, 1977, p. 19) can be regarded as the presence of practices, social structures and organizational resources in the workplace, such as equipment, infrastructures, good relationship with peers, information and knowledge sharing (Kanter, 1977, 1993). Kanter (1977, p. 166) defined power as the ‘ability to get things done, to mobilize resources’. According to Kanter (1977), power is gained when organisations provide have access to the necessary information, learning and development opportunities, support and resources at work. These are the four empowering conditions of structural empowerment.

The first empowering work condition entails having access to information about the current state of the company, its values and goals. Opportunities for learning and development refer to challenging work, new skills and knowledge that allow career advancement in the organization. Support encompasses receiving feedback, guidance

and support from subordinates, colleagues and management. Resources refer to equipment, materials, finance and time necessary to achieve organizational goals (Kanter, 1977, 1993; Laschinger, 2008).

Kanter (1977) contends that these work conditions leading to structural empowerment may influence employee work attitudes and behaviors in achieving organizational goals and allow employees to accomplish their work in meaningful ways. When these social structures are present, employees are more likely to be engaged at work and have a sense of meaning and purpose (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Structural empowerment (i.e., information, opportunity, support and resources) was measured as an employee's total score on the 12-item scale of Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, and Wilk (2001), adapted from the original Conditions of Work Effectiveness Questionnaire II.

2.1.3 Psychological empowerment

Psychological empowerment was initially defined as intrinsic task motivation by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). Based on the seminal work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Spreitzer (1995, p. 1444) described psychological empowerment as 'a motivational construct manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact'. Meaning indicates the degree to which individuals feel their work is important or meaningful. Competence or self-efficacy refers to one's ability, skills, capabilities or personal mastery to perform work activities. Self-determination is an individual's sense of having choice at work and freedom in how they do their job. Impact concerns individual beliefs on the influence of their work on the organization or department.

Psychological empowerment is associated with positive experiences that individuals gain directly from tasks when the four cognitions beforementioned are provided (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Further, Spreitzer (1995) and Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, and Wilk (2004) argue that psychological empowerment is the employees' response to the presence or lack of empowering workplace practices and conditions through which employees perceive their work as being meaningful and having impact.

Psychological empowerment (i.e., meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) was measured with the 12-item scale developed by Spreitzer (1995).

2.2 Theoretical framework

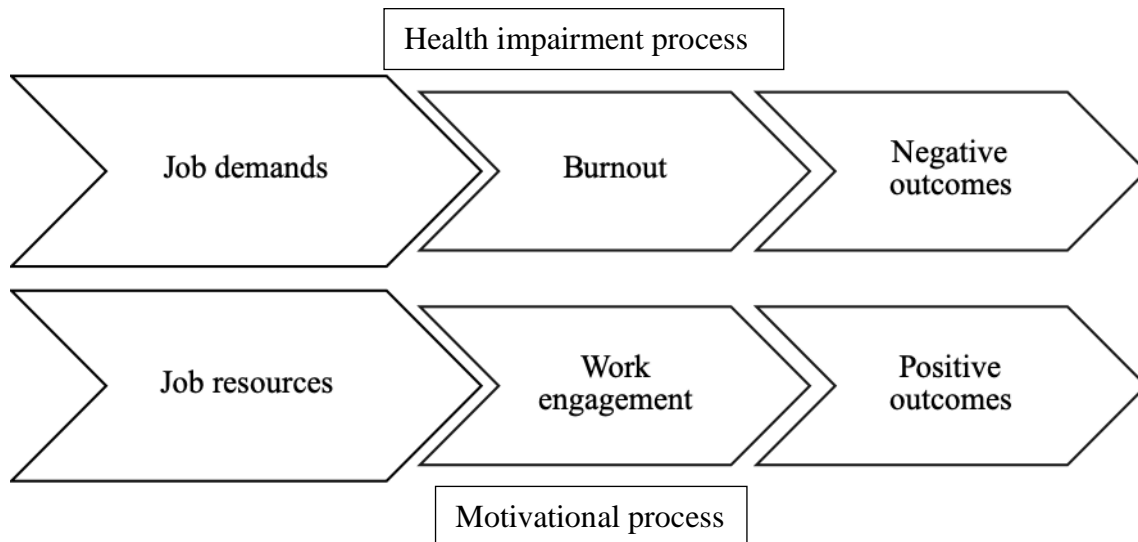
This doctoral thesis draws on three main theories, namely the job demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

2.2.1 Job demands-resources model

The job demands-resources model postulates that working conditions can be divided into two main categories: jobs demands and job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job demands refer to 'those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs' (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Examples of job demands are workload, time pressure, role conflict or job insecurity. Job resources, on the other hand, allude to the job characteristics that 'may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, (c) stimulate personal growth and development'

(Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Social support, feedback or coaching are examples of job resources.

Figure 2. The job demands-resources model



Source: Demerouti et al. (2001)

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008), job resources are the main drivers of work engagement through a motivational process, whereas job demands entails a stress process that may result in burnout. The availability of job resources promotes work engagement stimulating both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources may increase intrinsic motivation by fostering employees' growth, learning and personal development, but they may also play an extrinsic motivational role by facilitating work goals. For instance, appropriate feedback promotes learning and support from peers raises the probability of meeting one's work aims (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Therefore, job resources may lead to work engagement because they fulfil basic needs such as autonomy or competence, or help to achieve work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

More specifically, the job demands-resources model provided the theoretical underpinning for the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement, structural empowerment and work engagement, and served as the theoretical framework for understanding how employees may feel engaged at work in the qualitative study.

2.2.2 Social exchange theory

Social exchange theory conceptualises social relations in terms of exchange processes (Blau, 1964). This theory explains social exchange as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties that entail reciprocity. That is, when relationships between two parties (e.g., leaders and employees) are formed, certain reciprocal obligations are generated, and people may react accordingly. This is based on the norm of reciprocity that advocates that people may help those who have helped them (Gouldner, 1960). Social exchange suggests that individuals may weigh the benefits and costs of the social exchange process and, when the trade-off is favourable, social actors may engage in those activities to obtain desired objectives. Costs refer to negative aspects of the exchange process such as money, time or effort, whereas benefits involve the positive aspects of the exchange process that individuals receive such as fun or social support.

Social exchange theory maintains that social relationships are established based on reciprocal exchanges and the interests between the parties. Thus, interactions are shaped by reciprocal exchanges and expectations play an important role (Blau, 1964). Based on the premise of this theory, we propose that employees may feel compelled to reciprocate with high levels of engagement when organizations provide resourceful work environments and employees are psychologically empowered. For example, if organizations offer enough job resources such as opportunities to learn and grow,

information, feedback and materials, employees, in return, may reciprocate with high levels of work engagement.

Social exchange theory provided a theoretical basis to explain the mediating role of structural empowerment between transformational leadership and work engagement, the association of structural empowerment with work engagement and, in turn, the relationship between work engagement, task performance and intention to quit.

2.2.3 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory of motivation outlines two types of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic. This theory advocates that intrinsic motivation occurs when individuals do something that it is inherently enjoyable or stimulating and the rewards are the internal experiences that accompany that behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In contrast, extrinsic motivation alludes to performing an activity to attain a separable outcome (e.g., money, prizes or praise) and it is based on external elements such as compliance, external rewards and punishments. The interest of this doctoral thesis is in the processes through which intrinsic motivation is achieved to enhance empowerment and work engagement. Therefore, the focus will be on intrinsic motivation only.

Self-determination theory postulates that intrinsic motivation requires three innate psychological needs, namely competence, autonomy and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Competence refers to gaining mastery and learning new skills to pursuit one's work goals. Autonomy alludes to feelings of control over their work choices. Relatedness involves interacting with other people, a sense of belonging and attachment.

A basic tenet of self-determination is that the three innate psychological needs are fundamental for growth, social development and well-being, which help individuals

to better accomplish their work (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Individuals may feel intrinsically motivated when social contexts facilitate autonomy, competence and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). To the contrary, contexts supportive of excessive control are detrimental to intrinsic motivation.

Drawing on self-determination theory, we propose that psychological empowerment is positively related to work engagement and structural empowerment is positively associated with psychological empowerment. Furthermore, this theory provided the theoretical framework for understanding how employees may feel engaged at work in the qualitative study.

**CHAPTER 3: TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP AND WORK ENGAGEMENT:
EXPLORING THE MEDIATING ROLE OF
STRUCTURAL EMPOWERMENT**

Chapter 3: Transformational leadership and work engagement:

Exploring the mediating role of structural empowerment¹

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the mediating role of structural empowerment in the positive relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement. Based on self-reported questionnaires from 240 employees working in the tourism sector in Galicia (northwest of Spain), the findings reveal that the linkage between transformational leadership and work engagement is partially mediated by structural empowerment. These results imply that transformational leaders foster work engagement by enabling access to information, opportunities, support and adequate resources. This empirical study is one of the first to examine the role of structural empowerment as a mediator between transformational leadership and work engagement and may serve as a reference for promoting work engagement in service organizations. A number of contributions and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: Transformational leadership, work engagement, structural empowerment, mediation, tourism.

1. Introduction

Work engagement has become a very popular term and a subject of great interest in the field of management and positive psychology over the past 20 years. Having an engaged workforce is a competitive advantage for organizations as it associated with

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favourable organizational outcomes (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002; Saks, 2006).

Leadership is a critical component that influences the work environment and the way employees perceive their work (Christian et al., 2011). Specifically, transformational leadership behaviours such as intellectual stimulation and individual consideration may engender a supportive organizational climate that stimulates high levels of work engagement (Avolio & Bass, 1995) and enhances followers' internal motivation (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002). Further, transformational leaders who set clear expectations, praise employees for good performance, are fair, and are concerned about employees may play a part in bringing about feelings of attachment to one's work and psychological safety (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Structural empowerment refers to having access to information, support, enough resources and opportunities to learn and grow at work (Kanter, 1977). Moreover, leaders play an important role in creating empowering workplace conditions that may result in positive personal and organizational outcomes (Cummings et al., 2010). Bakker and Demerouti (2008) suggested that engaged employees are more imaginative, productive, and more willing to go the extra mile. Therefore, the embedded understanding of the relationship between transformational leadership and structural empowerment is key to increasing work engagement in today's highly competitive business environment.

The primary purpose of this study is to investigate the mediating role of structural empowerment in the positive relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement in the Galician tourism sector (northwest Spain). The tourism sector in Galicia is one of the pillars of the economy, being one of the most

powerful industries that generates employment. In the past few years, efforts have focused on the promotion of competitiveness, innovation, and the internationalization of this industry, which makes this a relevant context for this study.

2. Theoretical background and hypotheses

2.1 Transformational leadership and structural empowerment

Empowerment is a key component of organization effectiveness that may increase when control and power are distributed (Keller & Dansereau, 1995). Empowerment has been analysed from a two-fold perspective. The first standpoint describes structural empowerment as the presence of practices, social structures and organizational resources in the workplace, such as equipment, infrastructures, good relationship with peers, information and knowledge sharing (Kanter, 1977, 1993). Kanter (1977, p. 166) conceptualizes power as the ‘ability to get things done, to mobilize resources’. According to Kanter (1977), power is gained when employees have access to the necessary information, learning and development opportunities, support and resources at work. Such workplace structures should include access to information such as knowledge about policies, organization results and organizational changes through open communication systems. The opportunity for learning and development is another dimension that enables employees’ career advancement in the organization. Support encompasses receiving feedback and guidance from subordinates, colleagues and supervisors. Resources refer to gaining access to materials and equipment, time and financial resources that are necessary to achieve organizational goals (Kanter, 1977, 1993; Laschinger, 2008). Accordingly, when leaders provide employees with these social structures, they feel empowered and allow them to accomplish their work in meaningful ways (Kanter, 1993).

The second perspective, psychological empowerment, alludes to the psychological state derived from the structure of organizations. Psychological empowerment was defined by Spreitzer (1995, p. 1444) as ‘a motivational construct manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact’. Meaning refers to the degree to which individuals feel their work is important. Competence or self-efficacy indicates one’s ability or personal mastery to perform work activities. Self-determination concerns an individual’s sense of freedom or level of autonomy to start and carry out tasks. Impact refers to the degree to which individuals believe their work can influence organizational outcomes. The rationale that underlies psychological empowerment stems from its key antecedent, structural empowerment, which provides the necessary job resources in the workplace (Laschinger et al., 2001). This study focuses on structural empowerment, as it has not received much empirical attention compared to psychological empowerment and as it seems to be a precondition for psychological empowerment.

Previous research has explored the pivotal role of leadership in the creation of empowered structures at work, but the relationship between transformational leadership and structural empowerment remains unclear in the literature. The concept of transformational leadership was originated by Burns (1978) in his seminal work and further developed by Bass (1985, 1999). Transformational leadership promotes organizational change and innovation, and this type of leader communicates a clear vision, inspires followers and creates trust (Bass, 1985). Therefore, subordinates tend to act beyond their own expectations in such a way that they foster organizational effectiveness and achieve improved performance (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Yukl, 2013). Transformational leaders produce changes in their followers, encourage them to go beyond their personal interests by considering the organizational objectives and make

them think from different perspectives (Avolio & Bass, 1995). In contrast, transactional leadership entails contingent reward and management by exception (Bass, 1985; Howell & Avolio, 1993).

The analysis by Rafferty and Griffin (2004), adapted from the work of House (1971) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990), identifies five characteristics of transformational leadership, namely inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation, supportive leadership, personal recognition and vision. Inspirational communication refers to the use of positive and encouraging discussions that motivate followers and build confidence. Intellectual stimulation is experienced when leaders question old assumptions and encourage employees to think in new ways to become more innovative and creative so that they redefine the problems and face them differently. This dimension helps develop employees within the organization. Supportive leadership occurs when the leader expresses concern for subordinates, takes into account followers' individual needs regarding their personal and professional development, provides individualized support, and acts as mentors (Bass, 1990, 1999). Personal recognition refers to praise for work achievements and it is shown when the leader acknowledges followers' efforts. Vision encompasses leaders who envision a promising future, lead by example and set clear goals and high standards of performance.

These dimensions are fundamental to the creation of empowering structures in small organizations where managers are more approachable because transformational leadership provides a learning environment by inspiring, stimulating, supporting and recognizing followers (Bass, 1985). For example, by means of inspirational communication, transformational leaders provide meaningfulness and develop a sense of enthusiasm. Intellectual stimulation enhances employees' participation in the

decision-making process that promotes critical thinking, problem solving and learning and development opportunities. Practices and working conditions that promote structural empowerment provide employees with greater autonomy and participation by giving them control over their work.

Despite the significant number of studies on transformational leadership over the past decades, only a few have examined how transformational leadership predicts empowerment. Several studies have confirmed the positive association between transformational leadership, psychological empowerment and personal resources (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Barroso Castro, Villegas Perinan, & Casillas Bueno, 2008; Dust, Resick, & Mawritz, 2013; Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger, & Brown, 1999; Joo & Lim, 2013), but few studies have examined the effect of transformational leadership on structural empowerment. Laschinger, Sabiston, and Kutzscher (1997) argue that job activities that enable personal recognition and development of strong relationships among employees may increase structural empowerment. Greco, Laschinger, and Wong (2006) found that leader's empowering behaviours affect engagement (positively) and burnout (negatively) through structural empowerment and the six areas of work life among nurses. They argue that when leaders use empowering behaviours such as enhancing meaningful work or fostering autonomy, they develop supportive organizational structures that empower employees in a way that creates positive attitudes and promotes organizational goals. There is also evidence that transformational leadership has a positive impact on structural empowerment, which, in turn, results in higher job satisfaction and reduced adverse patient outcomes (Boamah, Laschinger, Wong, & Clarke, 2018). These arguments lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Transformational leadership is positively associated with high levels of structural empowerment.

2.2 Transformational leadership and work engagement

The burgeoning significance of leadership development activities in promoting engagement has been acknowledged by both academics and practitioners, culminating in studies that explore employee perceptions concerning those activities (Bal, Cooman, & Mol, 2013; Guest, 2014; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011; Bass et al., 2016; Schmitt, Den Hartog, & Belschak, 2016). For example, two studies examined the mediating role of self-efficacy between transformational leadership and work engagement (Salanova et al., 2011; Tims et al., 2011). Zhu, Avolio, and Walumbwa (2009) found that follower characteristics moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower work engagement. When leaders perceived follower's characteristics less positively, work engagement levels were lower. Song, Kolb, Hee Lee, and Kyoung Kim (2012) showed that work engagement mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational knowledge creation practices in Korea. Breevaart et al. (2013) showed that naval cadets were more engaged when their leader showed more transformational leadership and provided contingent reward (a component of transactional leadership). In a study conducted by Ghadi, Mario, and Caputi (2013), employees' perceptions of meaning in work partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement in an Australian context.

Kahn was the first scholar who conceptualized personal engagement and acknowledged three psychological conditions that may influence how people engage personally (i.e. meaningfulness, safety, and availability). Schaufeli et al. (2002, p. 74)

defined work engagement as ‘a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption’. Rather than being a specific and temporary state, it refers to a cognitive-affective state that is more persistent over time. In line with the initial definition of engagement, this study assesses engagement as a trait and not as a variant state (Sonnentag, Dormann, & Demerouti, 2010; Xanthopoulou & Bakker, 2013). Vigour refers to high levels of energy, mental resilience and dedicating time and effort in one’s work. Dedication is characterized by eagerness, pride, stimulus and meaningful involvement in their work. The last dimension, absorption, is about being completely focused and engrossed in one’s work, thereby time flies and it is difficult to detach oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2006, 2002).

This study draws on the job demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) to examine the association of two specific job resources, namely transformational leadership and structural empowerment, with work engagement. This framework postulates that working conditions can be divided in two main categories: jobs demands and job resources. Job demands (e.g. workload) refer to ‘those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs’ (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Job resources, on the other hand, refer to the job characteristics that ‘may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, (c) stimulate personal growth and development’ (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501).

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008), job resources are the main drivers of work engagement. Job resources allude to the physical, social or organizational characteristics that may be embedded in a job. Supervisor and social support, feedback,

coaching, voice, opportunities for learning and development and task variety are some examples of job resources. In fact, appropriate feedback promotes learning and support from peers raises the probability of meeting one's work aims (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

In light of the above considerations, the first requirement is:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Transformational leadership is positively associated with work engagement.

2.3 Structural empowerment and work engagement

Work engagement is likely to increase when job resources such as job control, feedback and task variety are high (Halbesleben, 2010; Bakker, 2011; Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). For example, Kahn (1990) stated greater levels of work engagement are achieved when work includes social support such as rewarding relations with colleagues. Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) suggested that employees would be more engaged at work when their leaders and organizations cover their basic needs.

Several studies have used the job demands-resources model (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009b) to examine the positive relationship between job resources and work engagement. Hakanen et al. (2006) found that job resources such as job control, supervisory support, information, social climate and innovativeness may predict organizational commitment through work engagement. Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) showed in their diary study that employees working in fast-food restaurants were more engaged on days they had access to available resources. Another study demonstrated that organizational resources and work engagement predicted service climate in Spanish hotels and restaurants, which, in turn, predicted employee performance and customer loyalty (Salanova et al., 2005).

Further research has also revealed that structural empowerment is related to positive organizational outcomes including job satisfaction (Laschinger, 2008; Stam, Laschinger, Regan, & Wong, 2015), commitment (Wilson & Laschinger, 1994), decreased burnout (Greco et al., 2006) and reduced job strain (Laschinger et al., 2001). Laschinger and Finegan (2005) found that structural empowerment has a positive influence on work engagement through five of the six areas of work life (i.e. control, value congruence, reward, community, and fairness). A study carried out by Boamah and Laschinger (2015) demonstrated that structural empowerment and psychological capital are related to greater work engagement. Laschinger, Wilk, Cho, and Greco (2009) found a strong positive relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement in their study among new graduates and experienced nurses. These studies underline the significance of empowering practices and working conditions in the promotion of work engagement. Based on this argumentation, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Structural empowerment is positively related to work engagement.

Social exchange theory provides a theoretical basis to explain how the acceptance of the leadership style and structural empowerment may relate to work engagement (Blau, 1964; Cook, Cheshire, Rice, & Nakagawa, 2013). This theory explains social exchange as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties that entail reciprocity. That is, when relationships between leaders and employees are formed, certain reciprocal obligations are generated such as psychological meaningfulness, safety or availability when leaders show genuine personal recognition or supportive leadership (Zhu et al., 2009). Moreover, employees may feel compelled to reciprocate with high levels of engagement when organizations provide resourceful work environments and job resources such as support, information, or feedback.

Although both transformational and transactional leadership may contribute to work engagement (Breevaart et al., 2014), we argue that it is the acceptance of transformational leadership that mainly related to work engagement because of the enhancement of structural empowerment. A number of studies applied social exchange theory to explain the relationships between leadership styles, work engagement and other motivational constructs (Agarwal, Datta, Blake-Beard, & Bhargava, 2012; Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, & Gatenby, 2013; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Song et al., 2012). Thus, in line with prior theoretical and empirical work, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Structural empowerment mediates the positive relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

3. Methods

3.1 Sample and procedure for data collection

The sample consisted of 240 Spanish employees (132 females- 55% and 108 males- 45%) from organizations in the tourism sector. All organizations were small- and medium-sized enterprises except for one large travel agency. Organizations were composed of small teams characterised by open communication and low hierarchical structures. Fifty eight per cent of participants were younger than 45, and the organizational tenure was between 4 and 10 years ($SD= 1.40$) on average. They were employed in various jobs and occupational fields such as travel consultants, receptionists, guest services, marketing and human resources (HR). The questionnaire was distributed at the end of 2017 and beginning of 2018 by professionals of the HR departments of the organizations that participated in the study.

We first contacted organizations to gain access and explain to the HR department of each organization the purpose and scope of the project, ensuring confidentiality and voluntary participation. Upon agreement, we sent a cover letter to the management team by e-mail along with the online questionnaire requesting them to distribute it to the employees in their organizations. The questionnaire could be accessed through an e-mail that was sent to all employees within the organizations encouraging them to complete it online.

The questionnaire comprised 36 items measuring transformational leadership, structural empowerment and work engagement as well as demographic characteristics such as age, gender, seniority and type of contract. A total of 674 questionnaires were sent and a total of 240 completed questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 35.60%.

3.2 Measures

Transformational leadership. We used Rafferty and Griffin's (2004) scale to measure transformational leadership. The original scale is comprised of 15 items assessing the dimensions of inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation, personal recognition, supportive leadership and vision. All items were translated into Spanish as the original scale is in English. Participants indicated their responses on a five-point scale with anchors (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. It is important to mention that employees had different leaders. Example items are: 'my leader says things that make employees proud to be a part of this organization' (inspirational communication); 'my leader challenges me to think about old problems in new ways' (intellectual stimulation); 'my leader behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of my personal needs' (supportive leadership). Cronbach's alpha was .74, showing a high

degree of internal consistency in the responses (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Heppner, Wampold, & Kivlighan, 2008; Nunnally, 1978).

Structural empowerment was measured with the 12-item Spanish structural empowerment scale (Jáimez Román & Bretones, 2013), adapted from the Conditions of Work Effectiveness Questionnaire II developed by Laschinger et al. (2001). This scale captures four dimensions, namely opportunity, information, resources and support and has been used in a growing number of studies (e.g. Boamah & Laschinger, 2015; Stam et al., 2015; Ayala Calvo & García, 2018; Boamah et al., 2018). The respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with the statements about their job characteristics at work. A five-point scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree was used. Example items are: ‘I have the chance to gain new skills and knowledge on the job’ (opportunity); ‘I have information about the current state of the organization’ (information); and ‘I have time available to accomplish job requirements’ (resources). Overall, Cronbach’s alpha was .89.

Work engagement. We used the shortened nine-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2002) to assess work engagement, using a 5-point scale with anchors from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. This scale assesses the three engagement dimensions of vigour, dedication and absorption. Example items are: ‘At my work, I feel bursting with energy’ (vigour); ‘I am proud of the work that I do’ (dedication); and ‘I am immersed in my work’ (absorption). Internal consistency for the overall scale was .91, meeting the .70 threshold.

Control variables. We controlled for age, in line with previous research (Avolio et al., 2004; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2008). Age was measured as a categorical variable as specified in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

Category	Frequency	Per cent %
<i>Age</i>		
Under 30	49	20.40
31-45	89	37.10
More than 46	102	42.50
<i>Gender</i>		
Female	132	55
Male	108	45
<i>Type of contract</i>		
Temporary	113	47.10
Permanent	127	52.90
<i>Organizational tenure</i>		
< 12 months	45	18.80
1-3 years	49	20.40
4-10 years	58	24.20
11-20 years	49	20.40
21+ years	39	16.30

Note. N= 240.

3.3 Data analyses

Hypotheses were tested by means of structural equation models with maximum likelihood estimation using Amos version 25 (Brown, 2006). First, we investigated the fit of the measurement model by means of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs), and then, we tested the hypothesized model. Before fitting the structural models, we checked for multivariate normality and outliers, while missing values were removed. Absolute values of skewness should be lower than 2 (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996). Additionally, consistent with previous studies (Tims et al., 2011; Wong & Laschinger,

2012), we calculated a composite score for each subdimension of each factor by summing and averaging the items scores in order to measure the levels of transformational leadership, structural empowerment and work engagement (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Kline, 2011). The indicator of vision from the transformational leadership scale was removed in our study because loadings were non-significant, as recommended by Hair et al. (2010). The mean value of this dimension was lower than the other especially for employees on a temporary contract. We also run a model where all dimensions of transformational leadership were included as related manifest variables with unique paths to structural empowerment.

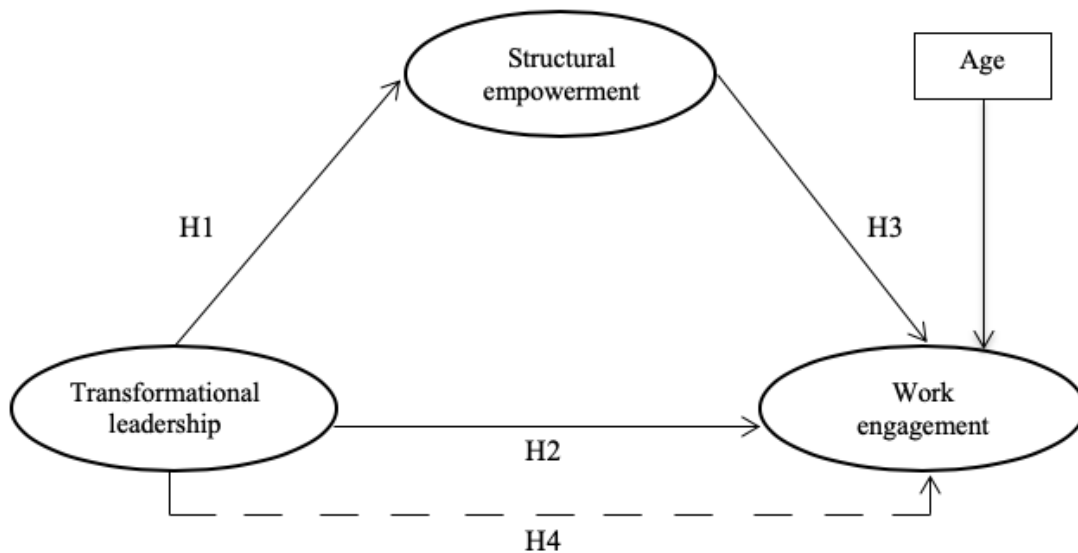
As suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), we used a two-step modelling approach. First, the fit of the measurement model to the data was examined. The measurement model consisted of three latent variables and 12 manifest variables comprising four dimensions of transformational leadership, four dimensions of structural empowerment, three indicators of work engagement and the control variable age. Thus, there are $12(12+1)/2$ unique elements of the observed covariance matrix (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Therefore, the model can be estimated as it meets the criteria of degrees of freedom ($df > 0$) (Bollen, 1990; Kline, 2011).

We then tested the fit of the structural model, as depicted in Figure 3 (Kline, 2011). To test the mediating hypothesis, we compared a full mediation model to a partial mediation model to investigate whether there was a significant variation in model fit with or without the direct path from transformational leadership to work engagement. Then, we examined the conditions for mediation suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986): a) the independent variable should be associated with the outcome variable, b) the independent variable should be associated with the mediating variable, c) the mediator should be associated with the outcome variable, and d) if the predictor-

outcome path is non-significant, there is full mediation, and if it is significant, there is partial mediation. Bootstrapping was performed using 2000 resamples in order to test the significance of the indirect effect (Hayes, 2009). This approach is a re-sampling procedure that uses a number of sub-samples of the dataset and produces bias-corrected confidence intervals for the indirect effect.

Figure 3. The research model.

Note: The dashed line represents the indirect effect of transformational leadership on work engagement once the mediator has been introduced in the model.



Finally, multiple measures were used to assess model fit to determine whether the proposed model indicates good fit to the data, in line with Bollen (1989) and Bentler (1990). First, we used the chi-square (χ^2) test, which compares the model-implied covariance matrix of the observed variables to the observed covariance matrix. A significant value of χ^2 means that the observed covariance matrix is significantly different from the estimated covariance matrix. However, a major drawback is that the χ^2 statistic is highly sensitive to sample size, yielding potentially misleading conclusions as plausible models might be rejected based on a significant χ^2 value.

Furthermore, the more complex the model is, the smaller the χ^2 value on account of the reduction in degrees of freedom (Bollen, 1989). We therefore also used additional criteria to evaluate model fit.

The most commonly reported fit indices are the χ^2/df , the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI). χ^2/df values of 3 or less (Kline, 2011) indicate good model fit although Ullman (2001) proposed a cut-off of 2 or less. Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999) suggest, as a rule of thumb, RMSEA values approximately .06 or less as a cut-off value for a good fit. However, Browne and Cudeck (1993) recommend RMSEA values smaller than .05 considered as a good fit, values between .05 and .08 indicating adequate fit and values greater than .10 indicating poor model fit. GFI values higher than .90 indicate good fit. TLI and CFI values greater than .95 appear to be the most common indicator of good fit (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1995, 1999).

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics

Table 2 presents means, standard deviations, correlations between the study variables and Cronbach's alphas. The correlation matrix reveals that Pearson's correlations among the constructs were positive and moderate in magnitude, and statistically significant at the .01 level, thus providing initial support for our hypotheses. Additionally, age and work engagement were positively related ($r = .25$, $p < .01$) while

Table 2. Means, standard deviations, correlation matrix and Cronbach's alpha for study variables (N = 240).

Variables	Means	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Age	2.22	.76	-						
2 Gender	1.45	.50	.17**	-					
3 Type of contract	1.53	.50	.47**	.23**	-				
4 Organizational tenure	2.95	1.35	.62**	.26**	.82**	-			
5 Transformational leadership	4.02	.68	.10	.01	.06	.02	(.74)		
6 Structural empowerment	3.39	.82	-.01	.05	-.06	-.12	.56**	(.89)	
7 Work engagement	4.05	.69	.25**	.01	.07	.06	.53**	.54**	(.91)

Notes: ** $p < .01$. Cronbach's alpha values on the diagonal (where appropriate); age: 1 = Under 30, 2 = 31-45, 3 = 46 or more; gender: 1 = female, 2 = male; type of contract: 1 = temporary, 2 = permanent; organizational tenure in years: 1 = <1, 2 = 1-3, 3 = 4-10, 4 = 11-20, 5 = >21.

correlations among the different variables were moderate to strong and significant at the .01 level and consistent with discriminant validity. Transformational leadership dimensions had moderate correlations with structural empowerment, ranging from .29 to .58, being vision the dimension with the lowest correlation. Cronbach's alpha of all items and CR values range from .74 to .91 for each latent variable. Thus, all internal consistencies meet the .70 criterion (Nunnally, 1978; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

4.2 Measurement model

The measurement model was tested to analyse the relationships among the constructs and their indicators. Two measurement models were evaluated to validate the hypothesized model. First, all indicators loaded on a single factor and CFA results indicate poor fit ($\chi^2= 503.37$; $\chi^2/df= 11.44$; GFI= .68; RMSEA= .21; TLI= .63; CFI= .70). Then, the proposed three-factor model was assessed. All factor loadings are higher than .50 and all λ 's are significantly different from zero at the .01 level with t-values that exceed the 1.96 threshold (Hair et al., 2010). Average variance extracted of each factor exceeds the minimum acceptable value of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and CFA results also show acceptable fit ($\chi^2= 100.49$; $\chi^2/df= 2.45$; GFI= .93; RMSEA= .08; TLI= .95; CFI= .96).

4.3 Hypothesis testing

Two structural models were tested. The first one tested a two-factor model where transformational leadership was the sole predictor of work engagement and results indicate poor fit ($\chi^2= 237.34$; $\chi^2/df= 5.39$; GFI= .88; RMSEA= .14; TLI= .80; CFI= .87). The second model, illustrated in Figure 4, tested the mediating effect of structural empowerment between transformational leadership and work engagement. All path coefficients are significant at the .01 level, and the effects are in the expected

direction. Results showed that the hypothesized partial mediating model fit well to the data ($\chi^2= 143.61$; $\chi^2/df= 1.97$; GFI= .93; RMSEA= .06; TLI= .95; CFI= .97), meeting all criteria for model fit.

We then compared the partial mediating model (M1) with the full mediating model (M2). Table 3 provides us with some of the absolute and relative goodness-of-fit statistics we performed. Model 1 was statistically better than Model 2 and goodness-of-fit indices of the partial mediating model seem more favourable than those of the full mediating model. $\Delta\chi^2$ denotes the chi-square difference between Model 2 and Model 1, which is more constrained and thus has fewer parameters and more degrees of freedom. Δdf indicates the degrees of freedom difference of the models in question (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1989). Based on these results, the first model that assumes that empowerment partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement is retained as the best model. Multi-group analyses were performed to test differences between male and female, among age groups and tenure, but there were no significant differences across groups. The proposed model accounted for 52.80% of the variance in work engagement.

All hypotheses were tested on the basis of the best-fitted partial mediating model. Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive direct association between transformational leadership and work engagement. As expected, the direct effect of transformational leadership on work engagement was significantly different from zero ($\beta= .38$, $p< .001$), providing strong support for H2. Results also show that transformational leadership was positively related to structural empowerment ($\beta= .69$, $p< .01$) and empowerment influences positively work engagement ($\beta= .34$, $p< .01$), providing support for H1 and H3, respectively.

Figure 4. Structural regression model.

Notes. **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$; c: direct effect before mediator is introduced; c': indirect effect.

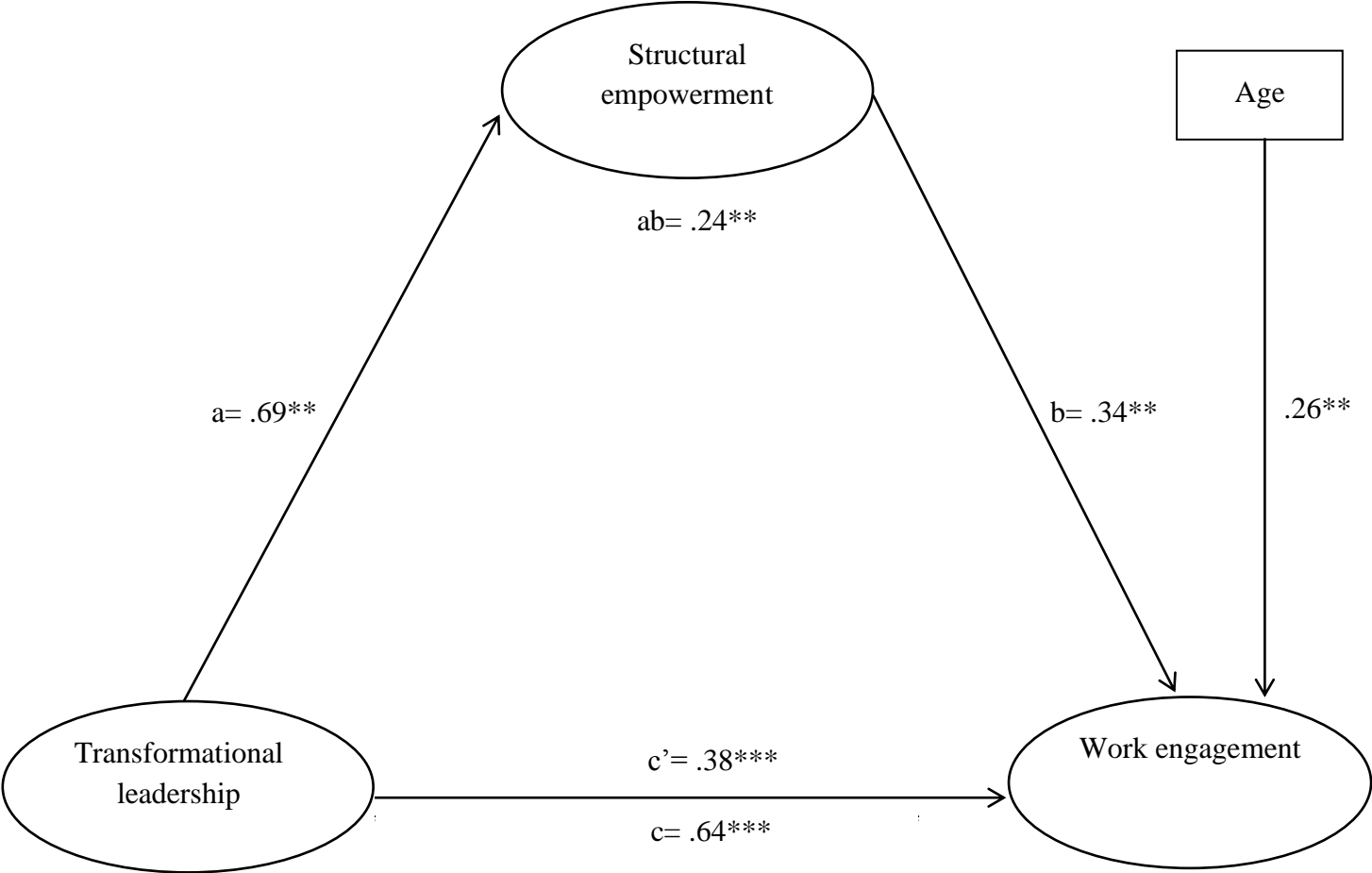


Table 3. Goodness-of-fit indices of the examined models.

Models	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	RMSEA	NFI	TLI	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Partial mediation	143.61***	73	1.97	.93	.06	.93	.95	.97	-	-
Full mediation	159.81***	74	2.16	.92	.07	.92	.94	.96	16.20***	1

Notes. χ^2 = Chi-square; df= degrees of freedom; GFI= Goodness-of-Fit Index; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; NFI= Normed Fit Index; TLI= Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; $\Delta\chi^2$ = chi-square difference; Δdf = degrees of freedom difference; ***: $p < .001$.

Table 4. Decomposition of direct, indirect and total effects (β).

	Standardized path coefficients		
	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Age \rightarrow work engagement	.26***	-	-
Transformational leadership \rightarrow structural empowerment	.69**	-	-
Transformational leadership \rightarrow work engagement	.38***	.24**	.62***
Structural empowerment \rightarrow work engagement	.34**	-	-

Notes. **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$.

To test H4, we examined the indirect effect produced between the independent and the dependent variable through the mediator using a bootstrap approximation obtained by constructing two-sided bias-corrected confidence intervals (99%). To do so, we first added a path from transformational leadership to work engagement to estimate the direct effect before adding the mediator and the two additional paths (Hair et al., 2010). This relationship was significantly different from zero at the .001 level ($\beta = .64$). The path *c* represented in Figure 4 is reduced to *c'* when the mediator was included in the model, but it remained statistically significant ($\beta = .38, p < .001$), consistent with H3. Table 4 displays the decomposition of direct, indirect and total effects. Accordingly, these findings suggest that the effect of transformational leadership on work engagement is partially mediated through structural empowerment, controlling the effects of age.

5. Discussion

Structural empowerment refers to the practices, social structures and organizational resources that are present in the workplace such as having access to the necessary information, learning and development opportunities, support and resources (Kanter, 1977, 1993). The present study aimed to examine the contribution of structural empowerment as a mediator and provide insights into the interplay between transformational leadership and work engagement. The proposed research model was tested and broadly supported on a data set comprising 240 employees from the tourism sector in northwest Spain.

The findings of the current study demonstrated that transformational leadership and structural empowerment are significant predictors of work engagement in the Spanish tourism sector context. Consistent with our prediction,

transformational leadership related positively to structural empowerment and, consequently, work engagement. Specifically, we found that structural empowerment acted as a partial mediator in the positive relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement. Results showed that the mediating model fit better than the two-factor model where transformational leadership is used as the sole predictor of work engagement. Therefore, high levels of transformational leadership result in greater feelings of structural empowerment, which, in turn, lead to work engagement. These findings could further help line managers, HR, employees and service organizations utilize the significant interplay among these constructs to develop training programmes that increase levels of work engagement.

By linking transformational leadership with structural empowerment and work engagement, we shed light on the processes that explain why transformational leaders enhance their followers work engagement. The magnitude of the effect of transformational leadership on structural empowerment underlines the significance of that type of leadership in creating empowering conditions at work in the tourism sector. Similarly, employees reported moderate levels of structural empowerment. This indicates that employees feel somewhat empowered, thereby contributing to work engagement. These results corroborate previous research that linked structural empowerment to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Laschinger, Leiter, Day, & Gilin, 2009), and work engagement (Laschinger et al., 2009; Boamah et al., 2018).

The significance of this study lies in the examination of the mediating effect of structural empowerment in the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement. This is the first study that tests a mediating mechanism between transformational leadership and work engagement in the tourism sector in

Spain. This study demonstrates that both transformational leadership and structural empowerment are considered critical job resources that may predict work engagement and the job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) helps rationalize the positive association among these constructs. When transformational leaders facilitate access to resources, information, feedback, and learning and development opportunities, employees are more likely to be highly vigorous, dedicated and engrossed at work. Although most previous research has focused on psychological empowerment (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003; Özaralli, 2003; Krishnan, 2012), this study shows that structural empowerment plays an essential role in increasing the levels of work engagement.

This study lends support to previous findings in the leadership-work engagement literature, and the empirical link between these constructs and structural empowerment is an important contribution to existing theories. For example, this research helps understand the underlying influence of transformational leadership on work engagement by identifying structural empowerment as a factor that mediates that key relationship, thus contributing to expanding the job demands-resources theory.

5.1 Managerial implications

The results of this empirical study have potential implications for practice. In an economic climate of increased flexibility, high technology, organizational change and short-term contracts, employees nevertheless showed high levels of work engagement when transformational leadership is present. From a practical standpoint, organizations should be aware of the critical role of the leader in stimulating work engagement. Organizational interventions that promote the development of

transformational leadership and structural empowerment in the workplace may be valuable to enhance work engagement. Creating transformational leaders is therefore just a start to developing empowering working conditions in organizations that generate organizational change by promoting inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985). Thus, organizations should invest in developing transformational leaders through a comprehensive training programme. Previous research has demonstrated that transformational leadership training is effective (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002).

Moreover, as most organizations in this study are small- and medium-sized enterprises, it is certainly worth exploring how leaders in less hierarchical organizations empower their employees. For example, it is important to reinforce the role of the leader in stimulating zeal among employees through conversations that inspire them, with positive messages about the organization which make them feel proud of being part of the organization and being an active listener (inspirational communication dimension) (Yukl, 2013). Extensive two-way communication and transfer of information are also key factors (Guest, 2014) that are easily achievable when managers are more approachable. According to Bakker et al. (2011), good and open communication strategies play a critical role in the development of positive work engagement.

Therefore, job and organization restructuring efforts should focus on creating resourceful work environments. These findings highlight the importance of effective HR management, that should create practices that enhance intangible motivators to boost levels of work engagement. Leaders should acknowledge good work, praise employees for their achievements, thank them for their effort (personal recognition),

facilitate appropriate resources and development opportunities, provide formal or informal feedback on a regular basis (support) and nurture strong social relationships and a climate of support based on trust and teamwork via emotional support, help or information (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010). Additionally, if employees feel they do not have enough information, support or resources they can craft resources by asking to get feedback for instance (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). All these implications may fuel levels of structural empowerment and work engagement.

5.2 Limitations and directions for future research

This research has a number of limitations that need to be addressed. The main limitation is that there is a chance of common method bias as we used self-report questionnaires as a single source to measure all factors based on employees' perceptions (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Although CFA confirmed that the multi-factor model fitted the data well, we carried out Harman's single-factor test to explore discriminant validity and assess the presence of common method bias. This tests if the majority of the variance can be explained by a single factor by constraining the number of factors in our confirmatory factor analysis into one and examining the unrotated solution. The single factor did not account for the majority of the total explained variance; hence, common method bias is not a concern in our study. We propose that future studies should take account of leaders' perceptions when collecting data.

Another potential limitation is associated with the cross-sectional nature of the study, which impedes causal inferences. Despite applying theoretical frameworks that strongly support the causal directions of our hypotheses, we suggest that future research should use longitudinal designs for making causal inferences about work

engagement and for exploring variations over time (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010). Another avenue for further research is to study state engagement rather than trait engagement to examine within-person fluctuations (Xanthopoulou & Bakker, 2013).

Additionally, the variable executive position was not controlled in the analysis. It is important that future research controls for potential confounding variables, specifically, the effects of managerial and non-managerial positions on work engagement.

A further limitation is that this study did not examine the type of psychological contract. Rousseau (1995) delineated the psychological contract as the ‘individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding the terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization’ (p.9). Thus, employees are likely to become more engaged at work when they perceive the employer fulfils its obligations. Relational contracts refer to long-term relationships, foster mutuality, autonomy of the parties, loyalty and stability. Conversely, transactional contracts are short-term and focus on economic exchange, and employee involvement is limited (Rousseau, 2004). A promising direction for future research would be to further examine the extent to which psychological contract breach or fulfilment moderates the relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement.

Finally, data were obtained from the tourism sector only and this may limit the generalizability of the findings. We therefore encourage future studies to examine the interplay among these constructs in different sectors and countries where culture and power distance varies to take account of different contexts as well as include

psychological empowerment as predictor of work engagement and organizational outcomes such as job performance, turnover or absenteeism.

6. Conclusion

This study was conducted to investigate structural empowerment as an underlying mechanism explaining the positive link between transformational leadership and work engagement drawing on the job demands-resources model. Findings illustrated that structural empowerment is an important antecedent of work engagement and emphasized the importance of transformational leadership on the creation of empowering working conditions. Such social structures, in turn, bring out high levels of work engagement.

Declarations of interest

None.

Acknowledgments

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CHAPTER 4: STRUCTURAL
EMPOWERMENT AND WORK
ENGAGEMENT: A CROSS-COUNTRY STUDY
ON THE MEDIATING ROLE OF
PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Chapter 4: Structural empowerment and work engagement: A cross-country study on the mediating role of psychological empowerment

Abstract

In this cross-country study, we drew on self-determination and social exchange theories to investigate whether psychological empowerment mediates the positive relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement and consequently, the relationship of work engagement with task performance and intention to quit. A total of 1033 employees working in the service sector in Spain ($N = 515$) and the United Kingdom (UK; $N = 518$) participated in the study. Multi-group structural equation modeling analyses showed that psychological empowerment partially mediated the relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement, and that work engagement associated positively with task performance and negatively with intention to quit. Invariance analyses suggested that the positive link between psychological empowerment and work engagement was stronger for employees working in the UK than in Spain, providing support for partial structural invariance of the hypothesized model. These findings contribute to existing literature by explaining the mechanism through which structural empowerment positively relates to work engagement, and a number of practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, work engagement, mediation, cross-country study.

1. Introduction

Research on work engagement has received a great deal of attention because it can play a critical role in organizational effectiveness, performance, sales, customer satisfaction and positive employee outcomes (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002) define work engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p. 74). Vigor refers to high levels of energy, mental resilience and effort in one’s work. Dedication alludes to meaningful work, pride and zeal. Absorption involves being fully concentrated and immersed at work, in such a way that time passes quickly.

According to job demands-resources theory (Demerouti et al., 2001), job (e.g., autonomy, support) and personal (e.g., self-efficacy, optimism) resources are recognized as the main antecedents of work engagement (for a meta-analysis see, Halbesleben, 2010). However, next to resources other structural and psychological factors may contribute in an engaged workforce. Psychological and structural empowerment can be such factors. Psychological empowerment refers to increased task motivation manifested in four cognitive components: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Though sparse (Bhatnagar, 2012; Macsinga et al., 2015; Wang & Liu, 2015), literature has demonstrated that psychological empowerment relates to higher work engagement. Structural empowerment refers to the presence of social structures at work that allow employees to accomplish their work through access to opportunities, relevant information, support and resources (Kanter, 1977). The relationships among structural empowerment and work engagement have received far less attention, being mainly explored in healthcare settings (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Laschinger et

al., 2001; Laschinger, Wilk, et al., 2009). Also, the interplay between structural and psychological empowerment in explaining work engagement has been largely neglected (Monje Amor, Abeal Vázquez, & Faíña, 2019).

In the present cross-country study, this gap in the research literature will be addressed. Namely, we investigate both structural and psychological empowerment as antecedents of work engagement and consequently, intention to quit, and task performance. More so, based on the job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and social exchange (Blau, 1964) theories, this study aims at exploring the extent to which structural empowerment works through psychological empowerment to explain work engagement. The proposed mediating mechanism is tested across employees working in Spain and the UK to study whether there are differences in the hypothesized processes across these two samples.

This study makes two significant contributions to the literature. First, the present study is one of the first to investigate whether structural empowerment influences work engagement through the enhancement of psychological empowerment across Spain and the UK, thus advancing empowerment literature in an area where little research has taken place. Second, this study expands the nomological network of work engagement by shedding light on the psychological processes through which structural and psychological empowerment may explicate this phenomenon.

2. Literature review and hypotheses

2.1 Structural empowerment and psychological empowerment

Structural empowerment has been distinguished from psychological

empowerment. Structural empowerment occurs when there are social workplace conditions and policies at work (Kanter, 1977) that facilitate access to opportunities, information, support and resources. Opportunities for learning and development include access to challenging work, new skills and knowledge that allow professional growth. The second empowering work condition involves having access to information regarding organizational aims, values, policies and decisions. Support entails receiving feedback and help from colleagues, subordinates and management. Resources refer to equipment, materials, finance, and time necessary to achieve organizational objectives.

Psychological empowerment is a motivational construct involving four dimensions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact (Spreitzer, 1995). Meaning indicates the degree to which employees perceive their work is important or meaningful. Competence refers to one's ability, skills and capabilities to accomplish their work. Self-determination is an employee's sense of having choice at work and freedom in how they do their job. Impact concerns the perceived influence of their work on the organization or department. According to Spreitzer, management may play an important role in enhancing four dimensions of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995).

Structural empowerment consists of having social structures in the workplace that facilitate the employees' work, whereas psychological empowerment concerns positive experiences that individuals obtain directly from tasks when the cognitions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact are satisfied (Spreitzer & Quinn, 2001). Although it may be argued that structural empowerment has similarities with the concept of job resources (i.e., "aspects of the job that may: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated

physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development”; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001, p. 501), since both refer to aspects in the environment that facilitate employees to achieve their goals, the difference between the two is that job resources encompass broader aspects of the job (e.g., social, work and developmental) whereas structural empowerment mainly focuses on the aspects at the organizational level. Similarly, despite the fact that both psychological empowerment and personal resources refer to individual qualities that are motivational in nature, the difference between the two concepts is that personal resources are characteristics of individuals related to resiliency (e.g., self-efficacy, optimism and self-esteem) and psychological empowerment refers to positive experiences that derive from the task itself. Therefore, it is important to have a study on structural and psychological empowerment over and above job and personal resources.

2.2 Structural empowerment and work engagement

Kanter (1977, p. 166) describes power as the “ability to get things done, to mobilize resources”. She contends that empowering work conditions (i.e., opportunities, information, support and instrumental resources) influence employee work attitudes and behaviors in achieving organizational goals in meaningful ways. When these social structures are present, employees are more likely to be engaged at work. For example, Boamah and Laschinger (2015) revealed that structural empowerment- together with psychological capital- were positively associated with work engagement. Further, Laschinger, Wilk, Cho, and Greco (2009) found that structural empowerment was related to effectiveness and work engagement among nurses.

The fact that structural empowerment may promote work engagement is explained on the basis of the job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). According to job-demands resources theory, the availability of job resources may enhance work engagement through a motivational process that stimulates both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In contexts where employees have access to opportunities for development, support or necessary material to perform their tasks are more likely to be intrinsically motivated as these job resources fulfil basic human needs (i.e., needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence). For instance, opportunities for development increase employees' growth and learning, thus fostering job competence. Such work environments also play an extrinsic motivational role because performance feedback and resources may facilitate work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Job resources may foster structural empowerment because if organizations offer enough empowering work conditions such as opportunities to learn and grow, information, feedback and materials, employees, in return, may reciprocate with high levels of work engagement. Social exchange theory maintains that social relationships are established based on reciprocal exchanges and the interests between the parties, who may act in favor of each other, expecting that such favor will be reciprocated in the future (Blau, 1964). It can be expected that employees may reciprocate with more engagement when they perceive social structures are present at work. Prior empirical studies (e.g., Saks, 2006; Salmela-Aro & Upadyaya, 2018; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009) demonstrated that job resources such as performance feedback, opportunities for development,

organizational and social support were crucial to cultivating work engagement. These arguments lead to the first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. Structural empowerment is positively related to work engagement.

2.3 Psychological empowerment and work engagement

Despite the burgeoning interest in the impact of psychological empowerment on positive individual and work outcomes such as job satisfaction or organizational commitment, only a limited number of studies have examined the relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement (Bhatnagar, 2012; Maccinga et al., 2015; Wang & Liu, 2015).

Previous research has demonstrated that psychological empowerment partially mediated the positive relationship between professional nursing practice environment and work engagement (Wang & Liu, 2015). Maccinga et al. (2015) highlighted the incremental value of psychological empowerment- along with two personality traits (i.e., extraversion and conscientiousness)- in explicating employee work engagement. In the same vein, Bhatnagar (2012) found that psychological empowerment was positively related to work engagement, and this, in turn, was positively associated with innovation and lower turnover intention. However, these studies did not explain the underlying mechanism explaining the effect of psychological empowerment on work engagement.

Drawing on self-determination theory (SDT) of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985), we argue that when employees believe that their work is important (meaning), have the skills and abilities to do their job (competence), have choice (self-determination) and their work has significant influence in their department (impact),

they will be more energetic, dedicated and absorbed in their work because they will feel intrinsically motivated. Indeed, the needs for competence and self-determination underlie intrinsic motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Kahn (1990) suggested that meaningfulness is a psychological condition indispensable for engagement. Further, Spreitzer (1995) advocated that competence may lead to effort and persistence, akin to the work engagement dimensions of vigor and dedication. Therefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2. Psychological empowerment is positively related to work engagement.

2.4 The mediating role of psychological empowerment

According to Kanter (1977), in order for organizations to be empowering, they must provide access to more information about the current state of the company, its values and goals because this gives employees a sense of meaning and purpose (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Similarly, Spreitzer (1995) argues that psychological empowerment is the response to empowering practices and conditions through which employees perceive their work as being meaningful and having impact. In this context, it can be argued that structural empowerment is the precondition for psychological empowerment to occur. Nevertheless, the mediating role of psychological empowerment as a core mechanism linking structural empowerment and work engagement has not been studied so far.

SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) provides the theoretical underpinning for understanding the relationship between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment. SDT postulates that intrinsic motivation requires the satisfaction of the three innate psychological needs for competence, autonomy and relatedness.

Ryan and Deci (2000) further discussed that such needs are fundamental for growth, social development and well-being. Structural empowerment may satisfy the basic psychological needs leading to psychological empowerment. For example, feedback and guidance (support dimension) nurtures learning thus increasing competence. Gagné and Deci (2005) found that employees having access to relevant information about the company performance, values and policies (information dimension) may increase meaning in work when they perceive value and interest in the information given and on-the-job learning (opportunity dimension) makes individuals more independent and autonomous.

Previous research has found that structural empowerment is an important predictor of psychological empowerment (Laschinger et al., 2004; Purdy, Laschinger, Finegan, Kerr, & Olivera, 2010; Sun, Zhang, Qi, & Chen, 2012). To date, however, this relationship has been mainly explored in healthcare settings. For example, Sun et al. (2012) suggested that perceptions of empowering workplace conditions led to changes in psychological states of empowerment, influencing employees' creativity. Purdy et al. (2010) concluded that structural empowerment positively influenced psychological empowerment which, in turn, had significant effects on empowered behaviors, job satisfaction and care quality. Along these lines, Laschinger et al. (2004) discovered in their longitudinal study that changes in structural empowerment were positively associated with psychological empowerment and, ultimately, with job satisfaction.

Given that structural empowerment may be an antecedent of psychological empowerment, we argue that psychological empowerment may also be the underlying mechanism explaining why structural empowerment associates positively to employee engagement. In this context, previous research indeed showed that

psychological empowerment explain why specific factors in the work environment may relate to engagement. For example, Albrecht and Andretta (2011) empirically showed that psychological empowerment fully mediated the positive relationship between empowering leadership and work engagement among health service employees. Aryee and Chen (2006) discovered in their study among Chinese employees that psychological empowerment fully mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange and three work outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, psychological withdrawal behavior and task performance). Along the same lines, Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004) found that psychological empowerment mediated the relation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment in the healthcare industry in Singapore. Based on this evidence, we postulate that when employees experience that their organization provides access to opportunities, information, support and resources, and hence enhancing their psychological empowerment, they will be more likely to be engaged at work. That is due to the fact that employees who are intrinsically motivated may be more likely to reciprocate by being actively engaged at work.

A basic tenet of SDT is the satisfaction of the three innate psychological needs for competence, autonomy and relatedness lead to intrinsic motivation, which helps individuals to better accomplish their work (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This motivation derives from the work itself because the individual finds it interesting (Gagné & Deci, 2005) and it refers to the extent to which employees can have control over their work choices. To the contrary, contexts supportive of excessive control are detrimental to intrinsic motivation. Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 3. Psychological empowerment will mediate the positive relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement.

2.5 Outcomes of work engagement: lower intention to quit and task performance

The significance of work engagement resides in its positive impact on employee attitudes, behaviors and organizational outcomes (Bakker, 2011). We propose two outcomes of work engagement that are relevant for this study and organizations in general. Intention to quit is important because employee turnover entails high costs for organizations in terms of time, money (e.g., training, recruitment) and losing talented employees (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006). Work engagement is expected to limit intention to quit and foster employee retention because engaged employees try to retain resources at work such as autonomy, feedback and social support (Salanova, Schaufeli, Xanthopoulou, & Bakker, 2010). Engaged employees invest a lot of energy, identify with their work and protect and accumulate resources. Leaving a job contributes to loss of resources, thus engaged employees are less likely to quit their jobs because they may strive to maintain, protect, and build valued resources at work.

Empirical evidence has suggested a plethora of individual and organizational consequences associated with work engagement such as decreased turnover intention (Agarwal et al., 2012; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), reduced turnover (De Lange, De Witte, & Notelaers, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and low absenteeism (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). Work engagement tended to relate to low intention to quit, suggesting a positive link between work engagement and employee retention.

Task performance reflects individual performance for organizational goals

and refers to the outcome of performance with respect to the completion of assigned duties and fulfillment of work responsibilities (Williams & Anderson, 1991). There are several reasons that explain why work engagement may lead to enhanced performance. First, engaged employees may perform better because they experience positive emotions such as happiness, joy, interest and optimism. Second, research suggests that work engagement is associated with better health, as engaged employees are less prone to report health issues (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), implying that engaged employees may be able to perform well. Additionally, engaged employees are better able to create their own job and personal resources than disengaged employees, suggesting that there is an upward spiral of work engagement and resources. Lastly, work engagement is believed to be contagious, fostering increased team performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Prior research has demonstrated that work engagement has been associated with organizational performance (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010; Sonnentag, 2003), individual and team performance (Tims, Bakker, Derks, & van Rhenen, 2013), task and contextual performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Brummelhuis, 2012) and job performance rated by supervisors (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) illustrates the negative relationship between work engagement and intention to quit and the positive relationship with task performance. Engaged employees experience positive emotions and put a lot of effort and energy into their jobs, contributing to job performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010). Consequently, in line with previous research, we posit:

Hypothesis 4. Work engagement is negatively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 5. Work engagement is positively related to task performance.

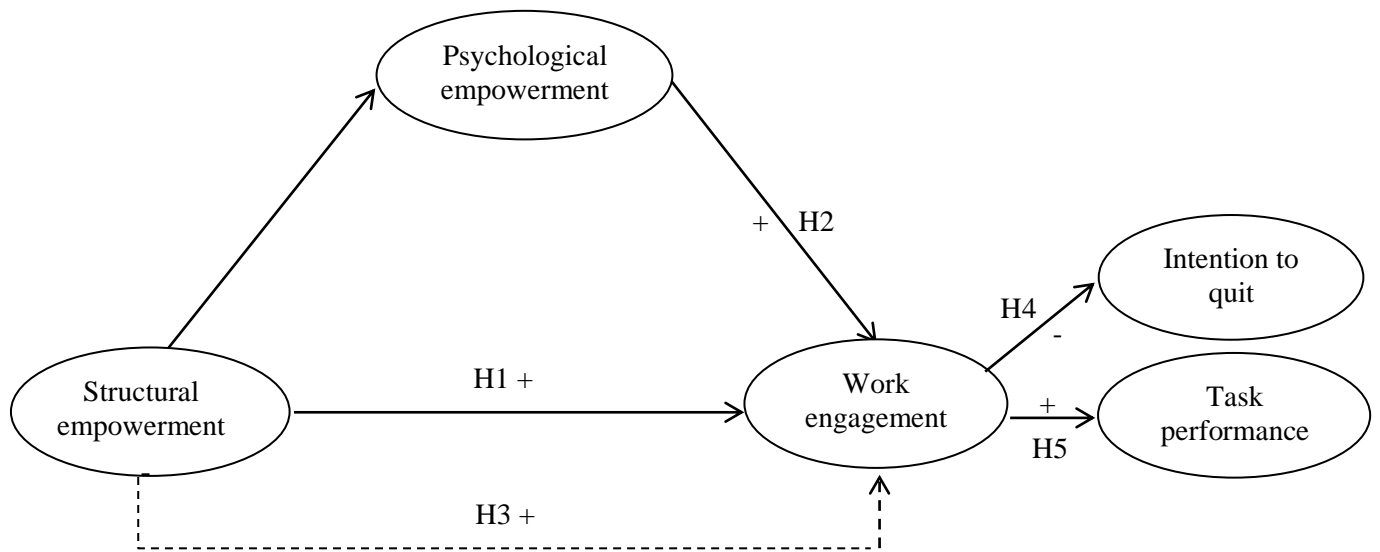
2.6 A cross-national comparison between Spain and the UK

An additional aim of the present study is to investigate whether the hypothesized model is invariant across employees from two countries -Spain and the UK- that share similarities but also differ with regard to work characteristics and access to opportunities. The last European working conditions survey (Eurofund, 2017) demonstrated that these two countries have some similarities such as working time quality, usual weekly working hours, work intensity and perception of supportive social relationships. However, the work environment of Spanish employees is less favorable than that of British employees. More specifically, gender inequality in managerial positions is more pronounced in Spain as well as job insecurity, because of the high proportion of temporary employees. This survey also showed that British employees experience higher levels of skill variety, work-life balance, access to training, prospects for career advancement and opportunities for learning and development than Spanish employees.

Notwithstanding these differences in the levels of work characteristics, our hypotheses are grounded in the theoretical arguments and empirical research presented in the literature review, suggesting that the structure of the hypothesized model may be similar in both countries. Testing invariance is essential to make comparisons across groups and may provide ecological validity of the measurement tool. The hypothesized model is depicted in Figure 5. Because this is the first study examining the proposed relationships and the test of invariance is exploratory, instead of formulating a specific hypothesis we propose the following research question:

Research question 1. Is the hypothesized model invariant across countries?

Figure 5. The research model.



Note: The dashed line depicts the indirect effect of structural empowerment on work engagement through psychological empowerment.

3. Method

3.1 Participants and procedure

Data were collected in February-March 2019 through Qualtrics. Potential participants received an invitation by email, enquiring completion of the questionnaire and, when accepted, the online questionnaire was sent. Individuals were informed about the research purpose, and the estimated length of participation. Demographic questions such as age, gender and working status were used to select eligible participants. The study was conducted in service organizations and two separate samples were examined.

Sample 1 comprised 515 employees working in Spain. Fifty-one percent of participants were female, their mean age was 40 ($SD = 11.93$), their mean organizational tenure was 10 ($SD = 8.36$) years, 59.8% worked full time and 14.80%

were temporary employees. Participants worked in a wide range of services including technical and professional services (15.10%), commercial services (13.60%), hospitality and tourism (13.20%) and educational services (8.90%). Participants were working in small (42.50%), medium-sized (40.20%) and large organizations (17.30%).

Sample 2 included 518 participants working in the UK. Fifty percent of participants were female, their mean age was 39 ($SD = 13.74$) years, their mean organizational tenure was 13 ($SD = 11.65$) years, 43.60% worked full time and 6.80% were temporary employees. They worked in technical and professional services (15.60%), health care or social assistance (14.50%), educational services (10.60%) and hospitality and tourism (9.80%). Participants were employed by small (36.20%), medium-sized (41.30%) and large organizations (22.50%).

Results of one-way analyses of variance indicated that employees working in Spain and in the UK did not differ significantly with regard to age [$F(1,1031) = .83$, $p = .36$], type of contract [$F(1,1031) = 2.87$, $p = .09$] and type of industry [$F(1,1031) = 1.87$, $p = .17$]. However, British employees reported a higher organizational tenure [$F(1,1031) = 23.39$, $p < .001$] and Spanish employees worked more hours per week on average [$F(1,1031) = 30.92$, $p < .001$]. Thus, the two country samples were quite comparable regarding demographics.

3.2 Measures

Questionnaires were distributed in the Spanish and English language. When validated Spanish versions of the original scale in English were not available, scales were translated to Spanish from English with the method of back translation. Unless

otherwise stated, scale items were rated on a seven-point scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

Structural empowerment was measured using the shortened 12-item scale developed by Laschinger et al. (2001) and its Spanish version that was validated by Jáimez Román and Bretones (2013). This scale includes three items for each of the four underlying dimensions of structural empowerment, namely opportunity (e.g., “I have the chance to gain new skills and knowledge on the job”), information (e.g., “I have information about the goals of the organization”), support (e.g., “I receive specific information about things I do well”) and resources (e.g., “I have time available to do necessary paperwork”). Participants indicated the degree to which some job characteristics occur in the workplace by responding on a five-point scale with anchors (1) not at all to (5) in great deal. Two unsound items (item 2 from the subscale of resources and item 3 from self-determination) whose factor loadings were lower than .60 and non-significant across both samples were eliminated (Hair et al., 2010).

Psychological empowerment. We used Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item scale and its Spanish adaptation (Albar, García-Ramírez, López Jiménez, & Garrido, 2012) to measure the dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Each subscale contains three items. Example items are: “The work that I do is very important to me” (meaning); “I have mastered the skills necessary for my job” (competence); “I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job” (self-determination); “I have significant influence over what happens in my department” (impact).

Work engagement was assessed with the 9-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002) in both samples. This scale measures the three dimensions of vigor, dedication and absorption, consisting of 3 items each subscale. Example items are: “At my work, I feel bursting with energy” (vigor); “My job inspires me” (dedication); “I am immersed in my work” (absorption).

Intention to quit was assessed with a 5-item scale developed by Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997). An example item is: “I am seriously thinking about quitting my job”.

Task performance was measured with 5 items from the scale by Williams and Anderson (1991). An example item is: “I adequately complete assigned duties”.

3.3 Analytical approach

Data screening was conducted, and five multivariate outliers were removed. We adopted a two-step approach (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) to examine the hypothesized model using Amos version 25 (Arbuckle, 2017). Hence, the measurement model was examined first by means of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) in each sample separately and then hypotheses were tested with structural equation modeling (SEM). The empirical covariance matrix was analyzed with the maximum likelihood estimation method (Brown, 2006). In both analyses, for multi-dimensional constructs, the sub-dimensions were used as indicators of their respective latent variables (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Hair et al., 2010). Intention to quit and task performance items were used as indicators loading on their corresponding factor. This concerns both the measurement and the structural model.

First, we compared the proposed five-factor measurement model (i.e., structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, work engagement, intention to quit and task performance operationalized by their respective sub-dimensions) against five nested models (i.e., three four-factor models, a three-factor model and a one-factor model) to establish discriminant validity: a) a four-factor model in which structural and psychological empowerment indicators loaded on the same factor, b) a four-factor model in which psychological empowerment and work engagement indicators loaded on the same factor, c) a four-factor model in which structural empowerment and work engagement indicators loaded on the same factor, d) a three-factor model where structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and work engagement loaded on the same factor, and e) a one-factor model where all indicators loaded on a single latent factor.

Also, and since the aim of the study was to compare two country samples, we performed multi-group confirmatory factor analyses to assess measurement invariance across the Spanish and the British samples (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). This is important because cross-country comparisons can only be performed when the underlying constructs mean the same across the samples (Meredith, 1993). We tested configural (i.e., whether the same factor structure holds across the two samples) and metric (i.e., whether participants respond to the scale items in the same way irrespective of their group membership) invariance. Testing configural invariance involves fitting the unconstrained hypothesized measurement model across groups to test whether the factor structure is invariant (Byrne, 2010). To test for metric invariance, equality constraints were imposed on factor loadings across the different groups.

To test the study hypotheses, multi-group analyses were performed, and three different models were fitted to the data. The first model (M1) was a partial mediation model (i.e., the hypothesized model; see Figure 5) and it was compared to the full mediation model (M2) where the path from structural empowerment to work engagement was constrained to 0. The last competing model (M3) tested the alternative hypothesis that structural empowerment would mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement. Bootstrapping was performed using 2,000 resamples from the observed sample and 95 bias-corrected confidence intervals (CI) to evaluate the significance of the indirect mediated effect (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon, Coxé, & Baraldi, 2012).

Structural invariance across the two country samples was investigated to examine if the hypothesized paths were invariant across the samples by means of pairwise parameter comparisons. Therefore, factor loadings, item intercepts, factor variances and covariances were constrained to be equal across groups. When critical ratios for differences between parameters exceed the value of $|1.96|$, it suggests that such parameter varies significantly across the samples.

Lastly, several indices were used to assess the model fit, as suggested by Bollen (1989) and Bentler (1990). We used the Chi-square (χ^2) statistic, the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), the Normed Fit Index (NFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI); the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) to assess model fit. Non-significant and small values of χ^2 indicate good fit. However, this test is very sensitive to sample size (Bollen, 1989). Values of GFI, NFI, TLI and CFI greater than or equal to .90 are indicative of good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMSEA values around .06 and a SRMR cut-off value of .08 are

accepted according to Hu and Bentler (1999), although a cut-off value of .05 is suggested for the former by Browne and Cudeck (1993). When invariance was tested, the $\Delta\chi^2$ and ΔCFI were used to compare nested models (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). A statistically non-significant value of $\Delta\chi^2$ contends that the measurement model is invariant across groups, whereas a significant $\Delta\chi^2$ indicates that the meaning of the latent factors is substantially different across groups. An absolute ΔCFI greater than .01 indicates that there is a significant change in the model fit and lack of invariance across the samples. Because the $\Delta\chi^2$ is sensitive to sample size (Bollen, 1989), ΔCFI is used as a decisive criterion to determine whether invariance holds.

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics and preliminary analyses

Table 5 presents means, standard deviations, average variance extracted (AVE) and internal consistencies among all variables under study for each sample. Values of AVE and Cronbach's alpha of all scales and subscales met the .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and .70 (Heppner et al., 2008; Nunnally, 1978) criteria. Table 6 provides the correlations among the variables analyzed in both samples and Table 7 displays the intercorrelations among the construct dimensions. The correlation matrix for the total sample is available upon request by the first author. All correlations among the factors were in the expected direction and most of them were significant at the .05 level or lower. We conducted Harman's single factor by loading all dimensions on a single factor to check for common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Results showed that the single factor did not explain the majority of the model variance (46% in Spain and 42% in the UK).

Table 5. Means, standard deviations, average variance extracted (AVE) and Cronbach's alpha for the study variables in the total sample (N = 1033), the Spanish (N = 515), and the British (N = 518) samples.

	Total sample				Spanish sample				British sample			
	M	SD	AVE	α	M	SD	AVE	α	M	SD	AVE	α
Age	40.73	12.87			40.37	11.93			39.09	13.74		
Gender	1.51	0.50			1.51	0.50			1.50	0.49		
Organizational tenure	11.66	10.26			10.13	8.36			13.19	11.65		
Work hours	5.81	1.66			6.10	1.46			5.53	1.79		
Executive position	1.45	0.50			1.49	0.50			1.42	0.49		
Type of contract	1.96	0.41			1.94	0.46			1.98	0.34		
Opportunity	3.80	0.89		.84	3.84	0.88		.81	3.77	0.88		.87
Information	3.69	0.92		.86	3.70	0.94		.87	3.69	0.90		.84
Support	3.67	0.90		.81	3.77	0.86		.80	3.57	0.92		.81
Resources	3.45	1.01		.83	3.59	0.97		.78	3.32	1.03		.87
Structural empowerment	3.65	0.78	.61	.85	3.72	0.77	.64	.87	3.59	0.77	.59	.84
Meaning	5.70	1.08		.92	5.77	1.09		.92	5.65	1.07		.93
Competence	5.94	1.06		.85	6.07	1.07		.86	5.83	1.04		.83
Self-determination	5.68	1.24		.80	5.77	1.20		.81	5.60	1.26		.79
Impact	5.25	1.47		.90	5.55	1.25		.84	4.96	1.60		.92
Psychological empowerment	5.65	1.02	.62	.85	5.79	0.98	.63	.86	5.51	1.03	.62	.83
Vigor	5.06	1.38		.85	5.37	1.21		.79	4.75	1.47		.88
Dedication	5.40	1.35		.89	5.52	1.29		.89	5.28	1.38		.89
Absorption	5.29	1.24		.83	5.43	1.19		.82	5.15	1.26		.84
Work engagement	5.25	1.24	.83	.94	5.44	1.16	.83	.94	5.06	1.29	.83	.93
Intention to quit	3.40	1.97	.79	.95	3.24	1.94	.79	.95	3.56	1.98	.78	.94
Task performance	5.92	1.02	.65	.89	5.99	1.05	.80	.92	5.84	0.98	.60	.86

Table 6. Correlations among the latent variables for the Spanish (N = 515) and the British (N = 518) samples.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Age	-	-.18**	.52**	-.07	-.04	.15**	-.16**	.06	.01	-.22**	.07
2 Gender	-.18**	-	-.15**	-.22**	.14**	.06	.03	-.00	.01	.01	.07
3 Organizational tenure	.62**	-.17**	-	.14**	-.14**	.05	.09*	.13**	.09*	-.13**	.02
4 Work hours	.20**	-.20**	.21**	-	-.26**	.02	.08	.09*	.06	-.01	-.02
5 Executive position	-.10*	.21**	-.19**	-.21**	-	-.06	-.19**	-.28**	-.26**	.01	.01
6 Type of contract	.23**	-.16**	.20**	.19**	-.25**	-	-.06	.15**	.03	-.17**	.07
7 Structural empowerment	.01	-.05	.07	.08	-.27**	.06	-	.55**	.65**	-.12**	.28**
8 Psychological empowerment	.12**	.01	.08	.14**	-.20**	.12**	.61**	-	.67**	-.18**	.52**
9 Work engagement	.09	.01	.07	.05	-.17**	.02	.71**	.64**	-	-.25**	.36**
10 Intention to quit	-.24**	.08	-.23**	-.17**	.10*	-.10*	-.21**	-.20**	-.23**	-	-.08
11 Task performance	.13**	.05	.02	.11*	-.03	.10*	.35**	.68**	.43**	-.21**	-

Notes: Correlations for the Spanish/British samples are presented below/above the diagonal. **: $p < .01$. *: $p < .05$.

Table 7. Intercorrelations for all variables dimensions in the Spanish (N = 515) and the British (N = 518) samples.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1 Age	-	-.18**	.52**	-.07	-.04	.15**	-.19**	-.09*	-.08	-.15**	.06	.11*	.04	.03	-.02	.02	.03	-.22**	.07
2 Gender	-.18**	-	-.15**	-.22**	.14**	.06	.06	.00	.03	.01	.01	.05	.01	-.05	-.03	.04	.01	.01	.07
3 Tenure	.62**	-.17**	-	.14**	-.14**	.05	.09*	.12**	.12**	-.01	.08	.11*	.09*	.14**	.08	.07	.10*	-.13**	.02
4 Work hours	.20**	-.20**	.21**	-	-.26**	.02	.16**	.08	.04	-.01	.02	-.02	.07	.18**	.05	.06	.05	-.01	-.02
5 Executive position	-.10*	.21**	-.19**	-.21**	-	-.06	-.13**	-.22**	-.16**	-.12**	-.16**	-.03	-.18**	-.45**	-.26**	-.23**	-.24**	.01	.01
6 Type of contract	.23**	-.16**	.20**	.19**	-.25**	-	-.06	-.06	-.03	-.04	.12**	.09*	.17**	.12**	.01	.06	.01	-.17**	.07
7 Opportunity	.06	-.01	.10*	.11*	-.21**	.09*	-	.64**	.63**	.40**	.38**	.30**	.35**	.39**	.44**	.55**	.48**	-.11*	.31**
8 Information	-.01	-.07	.07	.08	-.29**	.07	.64**	-	.68**	.48**	.39**	.31**	.39**	.45**	.48**	.54**	.47**	-.13**	.25**
9 Support	-.01	-.03	.03	.08	-.23**	.04	.64**	.73**	-	.60**	.42**	.32**	.40**	.45**	.57**	.57**	.53**	-.09	.22**
10 Resources	-.03	-.07	.02	.02	-.19**	.00	.52**	.60**	.63**	-	.37**	.24**	.37**	.40**	.57**	.47**	.44**	-.08	.14**
11 Meaning	.11**	.03	.09*	.11*	-.16**	.10*	.49**	.47**	.48**	.47**	-	.67**	.75**	.60**	.54**	.61**	.58**	-.19**	.51**
12 Competence	.14**	.06	.08	.13**	-.05	.05	.36**	.28**	.35**	.24**	.65**	-	.59**	.38**	.34**	.43**	.43**	-.09*	.61**
13 Self-determination	.06	-.01	.01	.07	-.17**	.09*	.42**	.38**	.40**	.44**	.73**	.56**	-	.57**	.53**	.56**	.56**	-.20**	.47**
14 Impact	.09	-.05	.08	.17**	-.30**	.15**	.53**	.59**	.57**	.54**	.69**	.50**	.57**	-	.56**	.58**	.57**	-.11*	.25**
15 Vigor	.06	-.01	.06	.07	-.16**	.01	.64**	.57**	.62**	.53**	.57**	.42**	.49**	.58**	-	.82**	.81**	-.21**	.24**
16 Dedication	.08	.01	.07	.07	-.17**	.05	.66**	.57**	.59**	.52**	.61**	.43**	.50**	.59**	.85**	-	.86**	-.32**	.41**
17 Absorption	.10*	.01	.06	-.01	-.14**	-.01	.61**	.53**	.59**	.47**	.53**	.42**	.45**	.52**	.82**	.83**	-	-.18**	.37**
18 Intention to quit	-.24**	.08	-.23**	-.17**	.10*	-.10*	-.22**	-.15**	-.20**	-.16**	-.19**	-.20**	-.14**	-.16**	-.20**	-.26**	-.20**	-	-.08
19 Task performance	.13**	.05	.02	.11*	-.03	.10*	.35**	.29**	.32**	.22**	.63**	.73**	.51**	.46**	.38**	.43**	.40**	-.21**	-

Notes: Intercorrelations for the Spanish/British samples are presented below/above the diagonal. **: $p < .01$. *: $p < .05$.

4.2 Measurement model and invariance

All standardized factor loadings of the five-factor measurement model were statistically significant at the .001 level and greater than .70 on their respective constructs (Kline, 2011). In addition, the standardized residuals were lower than 2.58 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The five-factor model revealed an acceptable fit to the data in Spain ($\chi^2[179] = 733.31; p < .001; GFI = .88; NFI = .93; TLI = .93; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05$) and the UK ($\chi^2[179] = 814.45; p < .001; GFI = .87; NFI = .91; TLI = .91; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06$). Next, results indicated that the five-factor model provided a significantly better fit than all alternative, nested models described in the Analytical approach section: when compared with the four-factor model in which structural and psychological empowerment indicators loaded on the same factor ($\Delta\chi^2[4] = 505.63, p < .001$ in Spain and $\Delta\chi^2[4] = 537.53, p < .001$ in the UK), the four-factor model in which psychological empowerment and work engagement indicators loaded on the same factor ($\Delta\chi^2[4] = 638.83, p < .001$ in Spain and $\Delta\chi^2[4] = 493.15, p < .001$ in the UK), the four-factor model in which structural empowerment and work engagement indicators loaded on the same factor ($\Delta\chi^2[4] = 318.51, p < .001$ in Spain and $\Delta\chi^2[4] = 384.53, p < .001$ in the UK), the three-factor model where structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and work engagement loaded on the same factor ($\Delta\chi^2[7] = 899.54, p < .001$ in Spain and $\Delta\chi^2[7] = 860.09, p < .001$ in the UK) and the one-factor model where all indicators loaded on a single latent factor ($\Delta\chi^2[10] = 4767.46, p < .001$ in Spain and $\Delta\chi^2[10] = 4334.71, p < .001$ in the UK), supporting the distinctiveness of these factors.

The multi-group configural invariance model comprised five factors, namely structural empowerment and the sub-dimensions of information, opportunity, support

and resources, psychological empowerment and the sub-dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact, work engagement and the sub-dimensions of vigor, dedication and absorption, task performance and intention to quit. This model exhibited an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2[358] = 1547.75; p < .001$; GFI = .89; NFI = .92; TLI = .92; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .05). We compared the configural invariance model (i.e., unconstrained model) to the metric invariance model (i.e., where equal factor loadings were set across country samples). Since the metric invariance model had a somewhat worse fit than the configural model ($\Delta\chi^2[16] = 27.32, p < .05, |\Delta CFI| = .001$), we inspected which factor loadings needed to be freely estimated to establish partial invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). One factor loading (the subfactor of self-determination) was freely estimated, and a revised metric invariance model was rerun and compared to the configural model. The $\Delta\chi^2[15] = 23.24$ was non-significant and the ΔCFI value showed that the two models did not vary significantly ($|\Delta CFI| = .001$) thus, results provide support for partial measurement invariance across the two samples. This means that participants answered most of the items in the same way.

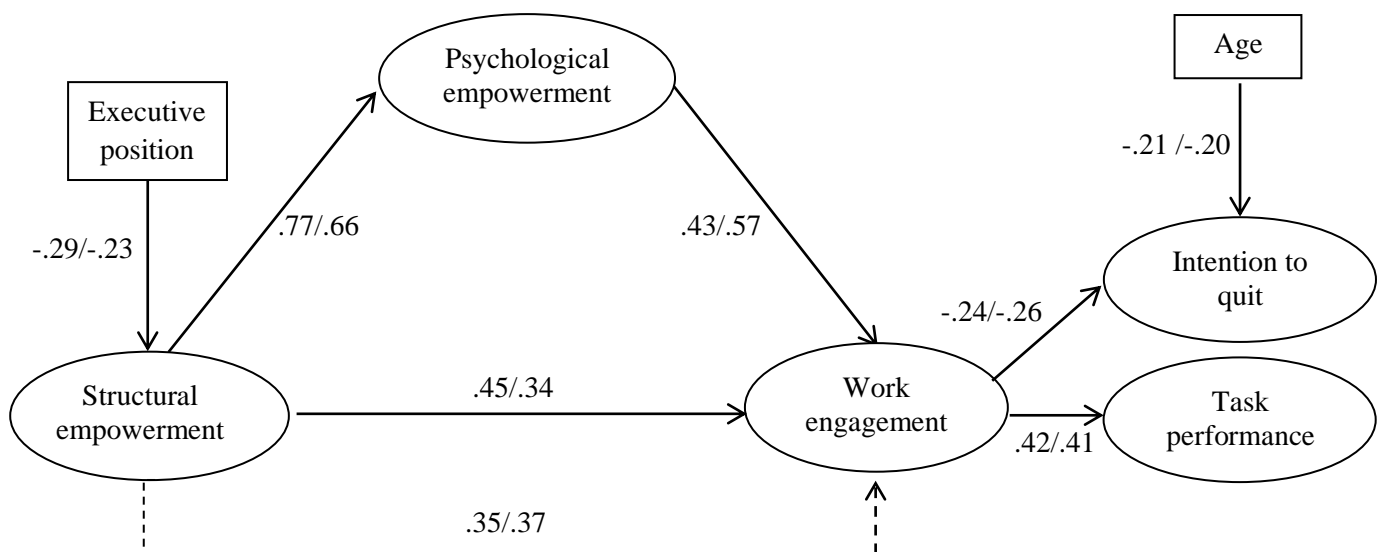
4.3 Hypothesis testing

To test the study hypotheses, we performed multi-group SEM analyses and fit the structural partial mediation model (i.e., M1) to the data. We controlled for five demographic variables that were significantly related to the variables of the proposed model: age, organizational tenure, work hours, executive position and type of contract. Age and organizational tenure were measured in years. Weekly work hours were measured as a categorical variable where 1 was 10 hours and 5 was 40 hours (full-time). Executive position and type of contract were operationalized as dichotomous variables where 1 was manager/supervisor and temporary contract, and

2 was not a manager/supervisor and permanent contract, respectively. When these controls were included in the structural model, only the estimates of two of them (i.e., executive position and age) were significant. Consequently, following the principle of parsimony, we controlled for the effects of executive position and age in the multi-group analyses.

M1 fitted the data well ($\chi^2[436] = 1579.37; p < .001; GFI = .90; NFI = .92; TLI = .93; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .07$). M1 was compared to the full mediation model (i.e., M2; $\chi^2[438] = 1657.21; p < .001; GFI = .89; NFI = .91; TLI = .92; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .08; \Delta\chi^2[1] = 77.84, p < .001$) and an alternative model of reversed sequence of effects (i.e., M3; $\chi^2[436] = 1629.17; p < .001; GFI = .87; NFI = .91; TLI = .92; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .09$). On the basis of these results, M2 and M3 provided an adequate fit, but the hypothesized model indicated a superior fit. Importantly, results were similar when control variables were excluded from the model. Thus, the study hypotheses were examined on the basis of M1. Figure 6 depicts the multi-group results with standardized coefficients for the M1.

Figure 6. Standardized path coefficients of the proposed model.



Note: All path coefficients for the Spanish/British samples are significant at the .001 level.

M1 explained 69% of the variance in work engagement in Spain and 70% in the UK, 10% of the variance in intention to quit in the Spanish sample and 11% in the British sample, and the predictors of task performance explained 18% and 17% of its variance, respectively.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 stated that structural empowerment and psychological empowerment were positively related to work engagement. The direct path from structural empowerment to work engagement was $\gamma = .45$ ($p < .001$) in the Spanish sample and $\gamma = .34$ ($p < .001$) in the British sample. Similarly, psychological empowerment was positively associated with work engagement ($\beta = .43$, $p < .001$ in Spain; $\beta = .57$, $p < .001$ in the UK). These results provide support for Hypotheses 1 and 2. Also, the path from structural empowerment to psychological empowerment was positive and strong in both samples ($\gamma = .77$, $p < .001$ in Spain; $\gamma = .66$, $p < .001$ in the UK).

Table 8 shows that direct and indirect effects were statistically significant in both samples. Bootstrap estimates using 95% CI indicated that the indirect mediating effect of structural empowerment on work engagement was significant (estimate = .35, CI = .20, .50, $p < .001$) in the Spanish sample and among employees working in the UK (estimate = .37; CI = .26, .52, $p < .001$), thus supporting Hypothesis 3. We also found that work engagement was negatively related to intention to quit ($\beta = -.24$, $p < .001$; $\beta = -.26$, $p < .001$, respectively) and positively associated with task performance ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .41$, $p < .001$, respectively) in both samples,

Table 8 . Bootstrap estimates of direct and indirect effects across employees in Spain/UK.

	β	S.E.	Lower CI	Upper CI
SE \rightarrow WE	.45*** / .34***	.07 / .07	.25 / .18	.62 / .48
SE \rightarrow PE	.77*** / .66***	.07 / .07	.69 / .55	.84 / .75
PE \rightarrow WE	.43*** / .57***	.07 / .07	.25 / .43	.62 / .72
SE \rightarrow PE \rightarrow WE	.35*** / .37***	.08 / .07	.20 / .26	.50 / .52
WE \rightarrow ITQ	-.24*** / -.26***	.07 / .06	-.33 / -.36	-.14 / -.17
WE \rightarrow TP	.42*** / .41***	.04 / .03	.32 / .31	.52 / .51
Executive position \rightarrow SE	-.29*** / -.23***	.06 / .06	-.37 / -.32	-.20 / -.14
Age \rightarrow ITQ	-.21*** / -.20***	.01 / .01	-.29 / -.28	-.12 / -.11

Notes. SE: structural empowerment, PE: psychological empowerment; WE: work engagement; ITQ: intention to quit; TP: task performance; β : standardized estimate; ***: $p < .001$; S.E.: standard error; CI: 95 bias-corrected confidence interval.

supporting Hypotheses 4 and 5. As can be seen in Figure 6, the signs of all coefficients were in the predicted direction. Evidence of indirect effects was also found from structural empowerment to intention to quit and task performance through psychological empowerment.

Finally, structural invariance results showed that the path from psychological empowerment to work engagement was stronger for employees working in the UK ($z = 2.79, p < .01$). All other paths were invariant across samples. Thus, structural invariance was partially supported.

5. Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to examine the mediating role of psychological empowerment in the positive relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement among employees working in service organizations in Spain and the UK. Although prior research has investigated these relationships separately (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Laschinger et al., 2001; Laschinger, Wilk, et al., 2009), this is the first cross-country study that integrates both structural and psychological empowerment in a model explaining work engagement. The findings showed that structural and psychological empowerment associated positively with work engagement, that in turn, was related positively to task performance and lower intention to quit. In what follows, we discuss the most relevant contributions of the present study.

5.1 Theoretical implications

Firstly, the present cross-country study contributes to the growing empowerment and work engagement literatures by shedding light on the underlying mechanism explaining why structural empowerment makes employees more engaged. The findings

demonstrated that psychological empowerment is a core mechanism explaining this relationship, and consequently important behaviors such as intention to quit and task performance. In other words, employees who work in empowering workplaces (i.e., having access to information, opportunities, support and resources) are more likely to stimulate their psychological state, thereby they may reciprocate with high levels of engagement. Consequently, employees may complete their tasks successfully and have lower intention to leave. These findings are in line with previous studies (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001) showing the positive relationship of work engagement with organizational success factors and lower turnover intentions.

Our findings are consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and the job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), as structural and psychological empowerment fulfill basic human needs (i.e., needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness), enhancing employees' levels of vigor, dedication and absorption. Consequently, engaged employees associated positively with task performance and lower intention to quit.

Secondly, although full invariance of the hypothesized model was not supported, partial invariance across the two national samples enhances the robustness of the findings. Simply put, the factor loadings and structural paths across the samples did not vary notably. Accordingly, results suggested that the structure underlying the proposed model replicated well in Spain and the UK. The fact that the path from psychological empowerment to work engagement was stronger for employees working in the UK might be attributed to cultural differences concerning the dimension of individualism, as the UK is a more individualistic society than Spain, which is more collectivistic (Hofstede, 2001). We argue that in an individualistic context like the British, psychological empowerment may be more prominent and matter more to engagement

than structural empowerment. This cross-cultural difference might be further investigated.

5.2 Practical implications

The present study not only supports previous research, but also demonstrates the significant role that structural and psychological empowerment can play in the enhancement of work engagement. The practical implication of this finding is that managers should facilitate sufficient social structures and conditions that foster psychological empowerment. In particular, increasing employee involvement in decision-making process may enhance both structural and psychological empowerment (Riordan, Vandenberg, & Richardson, 2005). For example, organizations should let employees take an active role through more participation in the decisions that affect their work and performance.

Moreover, structural empowerment can be cultivated through practices that include access to relevant information to accomplish one's work, providing opportunities for professional growth and development, giving effective feedback on performance and clear directions, and allocating enough time to assigned tasks (Kanter, 1977). To promote overall psychological empowerment, organizations should delegate more to provide employees more freedom as to how or when to carry out their, challenge them, set clear goals, sustain teamwork and a supportive atmosphere (Bakker et al., 2011; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997).

Given the importance of the work context for work engagement, the active role of human resource management is fundamental. Specifically, ongoing training is likely to provide opportunities for learning, promote professional growth and employees' contribution to the organization, strengthening empowerment and work engagement.

Suggested efforts should also include the provision of opportunities for learning and development through job rotation and skill variety (Bakker et al., 2011). They also contend that good and open communication strategies play a significant role in the development of positive work engagement. Therefore, interventions including information sharing such as team briefing or a suggestion box are encouraged.

5.3 Limitations and directions for future research

The first limitation is the use of single source measures rated by employees. Although constructs that concern internal states (such as psychological empowerment or work engagement) are difficult to be rated by other sources, future research could test the robustness of the study findings by using other sources (e.g., supervisor, colleague). This would help to reduce common method bias associated with the use of self-reports (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Second, causal inferences cannot be drawn due to the cross-sectional design of the present study. Accordingly, future studies should employ longitudinal designs to compare the proposed model with models with reversed causation. Finally, the present study focused on the service sector only, restricting generalizability of results. However, the samples included a broad range of services. Scholars should replicate the proposed model in different occupational settings in order to strengthen the robustness of the findings.

6. Conclusion

To conclude, the results of this empirical study indicated that structural and psychological empowerment are critical antecedents of work engagement among employees working in Spain and the UK. Work engagement, in turn, was positively related to task performance and lower intention to quit. Additionally, integrating different theoretical perspectives, psychological empowerment was found to mediate

the relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement. Future studies should continue to test the growing network of relationships among empowerment, work engagement, its predictors and positive outcomes.

Declarations of interest

None.

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**CHAPTER 5: DRIVING WORK
ENGAGEMENT THROUGH INTANGIBLE
FACTORS: A STUDY ON WORK
ENGAGEMENT IN THE TOURISM SECTOR**

Chapter 5: Driving work engagement through intangible factors: a study on work engagement in the tourism sector

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to shed light on the motivational process through which intangible factors affect work engagement in service organisations. To this end, the research was conducted using semi-structured interviews in four organisations from the tourism sector in Galicia (Spain). Participants included 25 employees, holding both managerial and non-managerial positions, and thematic analysis was used to examine the interview transcripts. The results revealed that intangible factors that promote resourceful work environments and employee empowerment may drive work engagement. An integrated model of work engagement-disengagement underpinned by factors at the individual, group and organisational level is suggested as synthesis of the main research results and can serve as a solid foundation for creating better future workplaces. This paper contributes to the understanding of people behaviours and organisations at work by discussing and empirically exploring how intangible factors associated with employee empowerment may enhance work engagement.

Keywords: work engagement; intangible factors; empowerment; qualitative study; thematic analysis; tourism.

1. Introduction

Nowadays organisations are facing many social, economic and political changes. Particularly, digitalisation has revolutionised the hospitality industry, imposing great economic challenges and transforming the job market and the way of doing business (Dredge, Phi, Mahadevan, Meehan, & Popescu, 2019). These changes influence

individuals' work experiences and have important implications for how people and organisations are managed, management practices and the way people plan their trips.

In this new scenario, comprising mainly small- and medium-sized enterprises, tourism and travel-related services are the key to success of this industry and efforts should be made to retain the best talent, as employees are paramount to customer satisfaction (Ministry of industry, trade and tourism, 2019). To face these challenges, it is important to create and maintain an engaged workforce.

The study of work engagement has burgeoned during the past 20 years, providing scholars with important insights into the field of management and positive psychology. Work engagement has risen to prominence because of its numerous advantages for organisations such as task performance, increased customer satisfaction and positive employee outcomes (Halbesleben, 2010; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

Work engagement has been defined as 'a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption' (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Vigour alludes to high levels of energy, mental resilience and effort in one's work. Dedication refers to meaningful work, pride and enthusiasm. Absorption is about being engrossed and immersed in one's work, in such a way that time passes quickly and it is hard to detach oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

Previous research on work engagement has mainly investigated the influence of job demands and resources (Demerouti et al., 2001), personal resources (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a), human resource practices (Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013; Alfes, Truss, et al., 2013) or transformational leadership (Monje Amor et al., 2019; Tims et al., 2011). Most of research is based on quantitative studies that test validated theories and hypotheses, but

only a limited number of studies have explored this concept from a more thorough and qualitative perspective (Kahn, 1990; Shuck, Rocco, & Albornoz, 2011). There is a lack of consensus among academics as to the meaning and features of work engagement (Gruman & Saks, 2011) and the extant literature falls short of exploring the employee's perception of their engagement (Shuck et al., 2011).

Therefore, this qualitative study seeks to fill this gap in the literature and aims to elucidate the process through which engagement is achieved and enrich current theories by investigating, from employees and management's perspectives, which intangible factors influence work engagement, how individuals perceive it and clarifying the contextual factors that underlie this behaviour.

2. Theoretical background

Prior research has identified several antecedents of work engagement and its underlying causes such as job characteristics, job resources, personal resources and leadership styles (Christian et al., 2011; Saks & Gruman, 2014, 2018). Hitherto, many studies have explored the relationship between work engagement and different job resources (Breevaart & Bakker, 2018; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a), but the importance of intangible factors and intrinsic motivation has still received too little attention in the literature on work engagement (Putra, Cho, & Liu, 2015).

Ryan and Deci's (2000) theory of motivation and the job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) provide a comprehensive theoretical framework for understanding how employees may feel engaged at work. Intrinsic motivation alludes to doing something because it is inherently enjoyable or stimulating. For example, when individuals have freedom to do their work and the social contexts facilitate autonomy, competence and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). These intangible factors and

favourable work conditions may act as motivators and a source of competitive advantage to work engagement. Resourceful work environments and an intellectually stimulating job may also boost work engagement (Laschinger, Leiter, et al., 2009; Spreitzer, 1995).

The job demands-resources model postulates that every job includes demands and resources. Job demands (e.g., workload, role conflict, job insecurity) refer to the job aspects that ‘require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs’ (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). On the other hand, job resources (e.g., supervisor support, role clarity, availability of tools) are the aspects of the job that do any of the following: ‘(a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development’. Job demands refer to a stress process that may result in burnout, whereas job resources generate a motivational process that may lead to work engagement (Schaufeli, 2017).

Prior research has used the job demands-resources model to predict work engagement (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Bakker, Van Veldhoven, & Xanthopoulou, 2010; Hakanen et al., 2006). Bakker and Bal (2010) showed that week-levels of certain job resources such as autonomy, exchange with the supervisor and developmental opportunities were positively associated with work engagement among Dutch teachers, indicating that engaged teachers may perform well. Further, in the recent study of Saks and Gruman (2018), they indicated that socialization resources (e.g., supervisor support, recognition, and feedback) can be used to foster work engagement through personal resources and person-organization fit perceptions.

Putra et al. (2015) showed that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are significant predictors of work engagement in the hospitality industry but, when both types of motivation were included as antecedents of work engagement, intrinsic motivation played a more important role in driving work engagement. In effect, there has been a shift from monetary incentives and extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation (Bénabou & Tirole, 2003; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

Additionally, leaders are expected to play a central role in the development of work engagement. A number of empirical studies have explored the impact of different types of leadership such as leader-member exchange (Agarwal et al., 2012; Altinay et al., 2019), empowering leadership (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012) or transformational leadership (Monje Amor et al., 2019; Tims et al., 2011) on work engagement. A growing body of research has revealed that fostering transformational leadership is linked to numerous organizational benefits such as performance (see for example, Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Howell & Avolio, 1993). Tims et al. (2011) demonstrated in their diary study that transformational leadership had a positive effect on daily work engagement through optimism.

3. Methods

3.1 Research participants

The research was conducted in four small- and medium-sized enterprises among a sample of 25 tourism sector employees in Galicia, northwest of Spain. This sector is characterised by the seasonality in tourism demand and the high proportion of temporary contracts. Organisations had little hierarchical structure and included two hotels and two travel agencies. The sample settings comprised a dynamic and young workforce, working in small teams where managers were approachable. Table 9

presents the description of research participants.

Table 9. Research participants.

Organisation	Participants	Occupation
Hotel A	5	1 Hotel General Manager 1 Housekeeper 3 Front Desk employees
Hotel B	5	1 Hotel Manager 2 Housekeepers 2 Front Desk employees
Travel agency A	7	1 Regional Manager 2 Office Managers 4 Travel Agents
Travel agency B	8	1 CEO 1 Call Centre Coordinator 1 Marketing Assistant 1 Office Administrator 4 Travel Agents

Each of the organisations was asked to select a number of employees comprising staff holding managerial and non-managerial positions to capture a wider variety of staff groups and roles. Individuals had a minimum organisational tenure of six months to participate in the research. For the purpose of reporting the research findings, each key informant was given an identification number to manage anonymity. Responses were coded as E1, E2, ..., E18, wherein each number represents the responses from each employee holding non-managerial positions. Responses from management were coded as M1, M2, ..., M7. Participant demographics are displayed in Table 10.

Table 10. Sociodemographic characteristics of study participants (N = 25).

Category	Frequency	Per cent %
<i>Age</i>		
Under 30	10	40%
30-40	7	28%
More than 41	8	32%
<i>Gender</i>		
Female	19	76%
Male	6	24%
<i>Type of contract</i>		
Temporary	9	36%
Permanent	16	64%
<i>Work hours</i>		
Part-time	6	24%
Full-time	19	76%
<i>Position</i>		
Non-managerial	18	72%
Managerial	7	28%
<i>Organisational tenure</i>		
< 12 months	5	20%
1-10 years	16	64%
10+ years	4	16%

A purposive sampling approach was used to select an appropriate sample, ensuring both genders, age cohorts and different job titles in the hospitality industry were included. A total of 25 individuals were recruited, of whom 76% were women and 24% were men, aged between 23 and 60, with an average age of 35. 64% of individuals had a permanent contract and 76% worked full-time. 72% of participants held non-managerial positions and mean organisational tenure was 5 years.

3.2 Data collection

First, access to organisations was gained and managers were contacted by telephone to explain the general purpose of the study, the aims of the interview and expected duration, who was conducting it, confidentiality confirmation and follow-up actions. No prior relationships with participants were established before data collection. Participation was voluntary and all individuals were acquainted with the scope of the study, reasons for doing the research, confidentiality, anonymity, and informed consent forms were signed prior to conducting the interviews.

Interviews were held for 18 to 63 minutes, with an average interview time of 36 minutes. All interviews were undertaken in January 2019 by the first author who probed on key responses and were carried out in the workplace during participants' work hours, in a designated office where privacy was guaranteed and there were no external disturbances.

Following Yin's case study approach (2009), semi-structured interviews including open-ended questions were conducted in order to get a better understanding of the employees' attitudes, experiences at work, their perception of work engagement, its drivers and consequences in the tourism sector. This method allows researchers to investigate thoroughly the participants' opinions and motives (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). An interview guide was used and consisted of warm-up questions about the participant's demographics, work history, as well as 15 open-ended questions that focused on six key areas: 1) understanding the perception of work engagement, 2) general feelings about engagement and its consequences, 3) differences among engaged and disengaged employees, 4) the influence of the leader, 5) how to increase the levels of work engagement and 6) its meaning.

The interview was pilot-tested to ensure all relevant topics were covered. The purpose of the interviews was to shed some light on the process through which motivational factors, particularly intangible ones, influence work engagement and enrich current theories of motivation and work engagement. Therefore, the critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954; McClelland, 1973) was used to carry out the one-to-one interviews because this method enables participants to explain in detail how, why and to what extent they feel engaged or disengaged at work. The critical incident technique was originally used as a job analysis procedure by Flanagan (1954).

Participants were asked to report incidents and relate times when they felt engaged and disengaged at work, its main drivers, consequences and the role of management in shaping their levels of work engagement. Probes were used to better understand these events and conversations were recorded and transcribed verbatim for analysis. Interviews were conducted until overarching themes and categories were repeated several times and incidents did not report new patterns. Thus, saturation was achieved (Charmaz, 2006; Saunders et al., 2018; Trotter, 2012).

3.3 Data analyses

We followed the theory-building process-tracing approach (Beach & Pedersen, 2013), which is focused on building a theory based on understanding causal mechanisms among variables in complex situations. Inductive thematic analysis was used following Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step guide, a qualitative method widely used in psychology and management. First, researchers became familiar with the data by listening to tape recordings, reading and reviewing field notes and transcripts. Second, key words from responses were searched for, transcripts were analysed, and codes were developed using an iterative process entailing continuous revisiting of

theory and inspection of raw data from the interviews. Next, predominant themes were constructed and reviewed drawing upon prior research and attempting to enrich current theories. Lastly, themes were defined and named.

Table 11. Coding frame and examples.

Code	Description	Example
Autonomy	Individuals refer to the extent to which they can choose when and how to carry out their tasks	‘I have freedom to make my own choices about how to complete my tasks’ ‘A job where I can choose how my work is done’
Leadership	The way leaders influence directly or indirectly levels of work engagement	‘If they (managers) lead by example’ ‘The role of the leader is key and can influence both positively and negatively work engagement’
Learning and development	Participants give examples of different events where they can have opportunities for learning and development	‘Specially when a job offers career progression’ ‘A team and an organisation that support me with training, professional and personal development’

Boyatzis framework (1998) was applied to develop the data-driven codes using NVivo version 12. The raw data was first analysed to recognise repeated expressions and keywords that served as a basis for the development of the first set of codes. The first step was to determine the unit of analysis. Initial open coding was carried out line-by-line to ensure in depth analysis was conducted and descriptive labels were generated. Codes were created from the recurrence of the same patterns in the events described by individuals (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994), mirroring the content of the categories

identified. Table 11 provides some excerpts from the transcripts to show how codes were generated. Next, preliminary set of codes were developed and clustered into categories that shared similar attributes, meanings or behaviours.

15 categories were identified by all authors and, by the end of data analysis, categories were collapsed into four themes. Themes were checked against each other and the original raw data, and each theme was consistent and unique. Any disagreements in the coding were debated until consensus was reached among all researchers. Two independent coders were used to compute the percentage of agreement to assess inter-rater validity of the generated themes and categories (Krippendorff, 2004). A level of agreement greater than 75% was achieved.

4. Results

This section reports the themes identified from the interview transcripts among the sample of workers in the Spanish tourism sector. From the vast array of factors cited, the ones with similar patterns within the data were lumped together. The first theme that dominates the data is the type of tasks and the work itself. This theme refers to the work content and how it is perceived by individuals and encompasses five categories which affect levels of work engagement significantly. The second theme alludes to the social relations that happen in the workplace and contains three main intangible aspects that affect current levels of work engagement. The third theme focuses on five organisational resources. The last theme addresses features of work engagement and attributes of an engaged workforce. Table 12 summarises the themes and categories described in the results section.

Table 12. Summary of results.

Themes	Categories
1. Type of tasks	Self-determination Task variety Challenge Role clarity Meaningful work
2. Social relations	Recognition Relationships at work Support
3. Organisational resources	Opportunities for learning and development Communication Work-life balance Equipment and material resources Leadership style
4. Understanding work engagement	Features of work engagement Attributes of engaged employees

4.1 Type of tasks

4.1.1 Self-determination

The first category derived from the data was self-determination. When participants were asked about what they liked the most about their job, they alluded to experiences when they perceived they had freedom or could make decisions as to how the work is done:

I like being autonomous and not sticking to a strict place or schedule. This flexibility allows me to make decisions more easily and manage my time effectively. I decide when and how I carry out my work, so I manage time according to the needs of the organisation. (M1, Hotel A)

I can have leeway to organise my tasks and do my work. (E8, Travel agency A)

4.1.2 Task variety

The second category identified in the data was task variety. This key issue was cited among participants in all four organisations and such responses are suggestive of the fact that ‘diverse work’, ‘a dynamic job’, ‘a job that rotates tasks to break out routine’ or ‘a job that is not monotonous’ may be associated with work engagement:

I love talking to customers because each one has a story to tell and I always learn something new from their travel experiences. (M5, Hotel B)

I really like doing check-ins and check-outs because I can interact with people from other places and I find it very dynamic, as each customer is different; it's not a monotonous job. (E10, Hotel B)

4.1.3 Challenge

A number of participants recalled challenging experiences they had when they were asked about a time they felt engaged at work. Many individuals admitted that challenging tasks kept them motivated, especially when they were completed on time and successfully:

I face different challenges every day and that is what keeps me going. ... Their flight was cancelled, so I looked for different alternatives and managed to change their flight despite being high season. (E8, Travel agency A)

One day the hotel was fully booked ..., it challenged myself because I had to do everything right, fast and provide a top-notch service. (E9, Hotel B)

Some people settle for a job they do not really like, and others don't. However, if the job is not challenging, some individuals (e.g., nonconformist or challenge-oriented people) may eventually search for other jobs elsewhere (Rodrigues, Guest, & Budjanovcanin, 2013).

4.1.4 Role clarity

The majority of participants described situations that alluded to role clarity or lack thereof. They mentioned that organisations should clearly specify the job responsibilities and tasks in the job description so that employees are aware of what is expected of them at work, know what they have to do and how to do it:

I think everyone here is engaged; we all have clear tasks which contribute to the overall strategy. (E16, Travel agency B)

Conversely, a number of employees interviewed stated that lack of role clarity made them feel disengaged or burned out:

Few months ago, I was assigned a new project and I didn't know what I had to do. I was uninformed, working long hours and I burned out. (E2, Hotel A)

I did not know how to proceed sometimes at work and information was not clear. Thus, I was making mistakes and giving the wrong information to customers because I lacked direction and my tasks were not clear or well-defined. (E10, Hotel B)

4.1.5 Meaningful work

Each participant looked at similar events through a different lens and noted that meaningful work was key to work engagement. This category entails interesting work content and finding significance, meaning or purpose at work. Nonetheless, meaningful work means something different to everyone as people have different expectations and career prospects:

I see my job as helping to deliver high quality customer service. (E12, Hotel B)

I love my job because I sell dreams and experiences. (E5, Travel agency A)

In summary, five categories have been identified among individuals working in the Spanish tourism sector. The first theme broadly encompasses characteristics of job design that may influence positively work engagement such as self-determination, task variety, challenge, role clarity and meaningful work.

4.2 Social relations

4.2.1 Recognition

The most salient relational factor reported by all participants was recognition. This category involves thanking employees by showing appreciation regularly in unexpected ways, complimenting them for their insights, providing praise for their contribution, performance and accomplishments and encouraging employee involvement:

Feeling recognized by the company through more responsibility and words of appreciation such as "well done" or "thank you" makes me feel my effort and dedication is worthwhile. (E1, Hotel A)

I think it is essential to make employees participate in the project we all do together, listen to them carefully and take their opinion into account. (M6, Travel agency B)

On the other hand, lack of recognition made individuals feel disengaged:

I feel disengaged when I am not let to express my thoughts and when I am not listened to while trying to express my point. (E5, Travel agency A)

I felt unappreciated by my managers because my suggestions and ideas were not listened to. Thus, I ended up being disengaged. (M5, Hotel B)

In line with the last passages, individuals emphasised the importance of valuing their suggestions and ideas as they are the ones who are always in contact with customers and know best what they need. Employees also affirmed that when they perceived their work was recognised, they felt valued, more empowered and this helped to create a sense of belonging in the workplace.

4.2.2 Relationships at work

Most of the individuals in our sample stated that building good relationships at work enhanced their levels of work engagement. Although they might expect to advance in their careers, team atmosphere and maintaining positive relationships with colleagues and management was vital to them:

Building relationships at work with customers and employees is what I like the most about my job. (M2, Travel agency A)

I think it is crucial to have healthy relationships at work, bond with colleagues, have a laugh with them and support each other. (E9, Hotel B)

They also stressed the importance of ‘collaboration’, ‘teamwork’, ‘team spirit’, ‘good atmosphere’, ‘getting along with colleagues’ and ‘a relaxed environment’ at work. Nevertheless, when participants were asked to recall a time they felt disengaged, a number of respondents described situations where employees clashed and they had to deal with employee conflict, suggesting that negative people can bring down a whole team:

Having a bad relationship with colleagues makes me feel disengaged because we work hand in hand and it is very difficult to spend 8 hours a day with people I do not get along with. (E7, Travel agency A)

I felt disengaged and very uncomfortable when there was this one person from work who was looking down on colleagues and created a very bad work atmosphere. My boss knew it and he did nothing to avoid it or solve it, so I left the company. (M3, Travel agency A)

4.2.3 Support

The third category that was acknowledged by numerous participants was perceived support from management and colleagues. They believed that organisations might encourage work engagement by bolstering employees:

It's nice when you have supportive colleagues. We spend many hours together and it is very difficult not to get emotionally attached to some of them. (E2, Hotel A)

Organisations should be supportive; resolve conflicts we may have with suppliers and help us to carry out our work effectively. (E6, Travel agency A)

Although this category overlaps to a certain extent with relationships at work and recognition, it is considered a separate category because content in each category differs significantly.

Overall, these categories encompass different social relations (i.e., recognition, good relationships at work and a supportive environment) that can be given in actions or words, which are key to developing trust and employee morale (Agarwal, 2014).

4.3 Organisational resources

4.3.1 Opportunities for learning and development

Many individuals displayed a preference for opportunities for learning and development to 'nurture their growth professionally and personally', 'learn new things', wanting 'career progression':

There are opportunities for on-the-job learning and development for everyone here. Employees can learn from experience if they are assigned a new task or if they take on more responsibility, but the role of the leader is crucial and should provide support and coaching when needed. (M7, Travel agency B)

Organisations should provide more opportunities for career advancement. In this industry, the majority of workforce is female and most managerial positions are held by men. (E8, Travel agency A)

Staff also recognised that training is a key instrument for learning and efforts should concentrate on integrating more formal or informal training with regards to the team's needs:

The company must recognize that human capital is key to company success. If organisations don't take care of their employees by investing in more training and resources, they will not succeed. (E7, Travel agency A)

4.3.2 Communication

The importance of good communication was cited several times as one which would contribute to organisational success in many ways. Participants stressed that the presence of 'information sharing', 'active listening', 'open communication' and 'keeping employees informed' were central aspects to work engagement, suggesting that managers should be accessible so that people can ask questions, make suggestions and express concerns:

The company has to be honest in all aspects, explain why and what for decisions are made, stress the things that are done well over what is done wrong. We have to move away from the archaic way of working characterised by rigid rules and hierarchy. (M7, Travel agency B)

My current organisation could enhance work engagement through effective top-down communication. (E6, Travel agency A)

4.3.3 Work-life balance

It is important to stress that striking a balance between work and life was an important factor to many participants, but it was mainly cited as something ideal:

My ideal job would be the one that optimizes the time devoted to work, the resources and the person. That is to say, maybe an employee who works 6 hours instead of 9 performs better, is more productive and engaged. (M3, Travel agency A)

Management proposed that I kept working from home instead of leaving. The fact that I was allowed to work remotely made me feel really engaged with the company. (E17, Travel agency B)

Work-life balance and flexibility was far more important to them than, for example, pay, which they believed could never counterbalance ‘more time with kids’, ‘flexible working hours’ or ‘telecommuting’. Interestingly, only 7 participants out of 25 mentioned pay as a key factor in their current jobs:

I would prioritize flexibility over pay. (E10, Hotel B)

Now that I have kids, I appreciate more days off than a pay rise. (M3, Travel agency A)

Additionally, a number of participants highlighted the pitfalls of some organisational structures, especially large and hierarchical organisations, which might thwart flexible work practices:

In my previous job, engagement was wearing out little by little because it was a large company, policies and procedures were strict, things were obsolete, and it was too hierarchical. Organisations should change the old-fashioned way of working towards more flexible policies and procedures.

For example, I would like to leave an hour earlier or work from home some days to pick up my kids. (M6, Travel agency B)

4.3.4 Equipment and material resources

The provision of sufficient material resources, the right tools and equipment to carry out one's work was dominant among 8 individuals:

Organisations should provide appropriate tools such as computer systems.

The fact that computer systems work badly generates stress, discomfort, and delays our work. (M2, Travel agency A)

My previous organisation should have modernised equipment and resources. Having the necessary resources at your disposal is extremely important in my job. (E2, Hotel A)

4.3.5 Leadership

When participants were asked about the role of the leader in shaping levels of work engagement, all the above-mentioned categories were cited. Employees indicated that leaders who were 'open', 'supportive', 'approachable', 'inspiring' and 'encourage participation' were likely to enhance work engagement. However, if they were 'unsupportive', 'don't convey information' or 'don't solve problems', they might have a negative impact on engagement:

Your boss's behaviour always affects work engagement. It depends on how they say things, convey feelings and the extent to which trust and emotional ties are created. (E7, Travel agency A)

Work engagement and management go hand in hand. Engagement needs managers who encourage teamwork, a positive work environment, support and good communication. (E12, Hotel B)

Managers' underscored the importance of 'walking the walk', 'creating a good environment', 'putting people first' and 'making decisions by consensus':

I believe that the line manager has the biggest impact on engagement, both positively and negatively. My behaviour as a leader aims to motivate them (employees), support them, talk to them, dialogue, have a close relationship with them and give them feedback. I try to reflect and analyse situations in order to find win-win solutions, challenge the mindset of people, provide expertise and new ways of doing things. (M1, Hotel A)

The manager's attitude is paramount to the smooth running of the company. It is all about effective communication, respect and exchange of ideas. Disrespect encourages discomfort at work and affects work engagement negatively. It is very important to make a good team and learn from your colleagues. (M3, Travel agency A)

4.4 Understanding work engagement

4.4.1 Features of work engagement

Participants were asked to define or describe their perception of work engagement in their own words and several commonalities were found among all definitions. Four main features of work engagement were identified: 1) a positive feeling, 2) an emotional connection, 3) a cognitive aspect and 4) a voluntary action:

To me, engagement is the willingness to give discretionary effort, to go over and above the call of duty because you have an emotional connection with your employer. (M4, Travel agency A)

Being engaged is to care about your work and your company and devote time to it because you really feel part of the company, you want things to go well, do something that nobody has asked you to do. (E3, Hotel A)

Individuals perceived work engagement as a positive feeling. Examples are: ‘a positive feeling’, ‘feeling of excitement’, ‘feeling happy and motivated’ and ‘a job that makes me feel happy every morning when I get out of bed’. They also felt attachment to or an emotional connection with the organisation, the team they work with or the task itself: ‘feeling of belonging to the organisation’, ‘a positive connection with the company’, ‘feeling of union and belonging to the workplace’, ‘devoted to my job’, ‘make the company’s projects your own’, ‘feeling part of the organisation’ and ‘care about the organisation’. The third feature of engagement is a cognitive aspect that refers to ‘giving your best at work’, ‘exert yourself to accomplish my tasks’ or ‘doing your best at work’. It is also important to note that engagement was perceived as a voluntary action, that is, individuals feel engaged because they ‘feel like it’, ‘do something nobody has asked you to do’ and ‘do it voluntarily’.

4.4.2 Attributes of engaged employees

There are numerous advantages associated with work engagement. This category encompasses the attributes of work engagement and disengagement, focusing primarily on the positive features. Individuals were asked about the distinctiveness of engaged employees in contrast to disengaged employees. Findings suggest that engaged employees are believed to possess certain attributes such as ‘having initiative’, being

‘proactive’, ‘dynamic’, ‘collaborative’ or ‘optimistic’. Conversely, disengaged employees are believed to ‘do the bare minimum’, ‘complain about work’, ‘get distracted easily’ or ‘have little enthusiasm’.

Participants narrated different events and accentuated the way the experience itself made them feel and advocated that engagement might bring about positive organisational outcomes such as ‘performance’, ‘customer satisfaction’ or ‘employee retention’, whereas disengagement might lead to consequences such as ‘employee turnover’ or ‘low productivity’:

Eventually, disengaged employees would leave. Also, disengaged employees can make other employees less engaged. The work they produce is not usually the best, as they don’t necessarily care about how the company is doing, but just that the salary they get pays the bills. (E17, Travel agency B)

Moreover, participants indicated that work engagement was contagious. Employees conceded that positive emotions were passed from one person to another. For example, when customers were satisfied or colleagues were content at work, they might leverage employees’ levels of work engagement.

5. Discussion

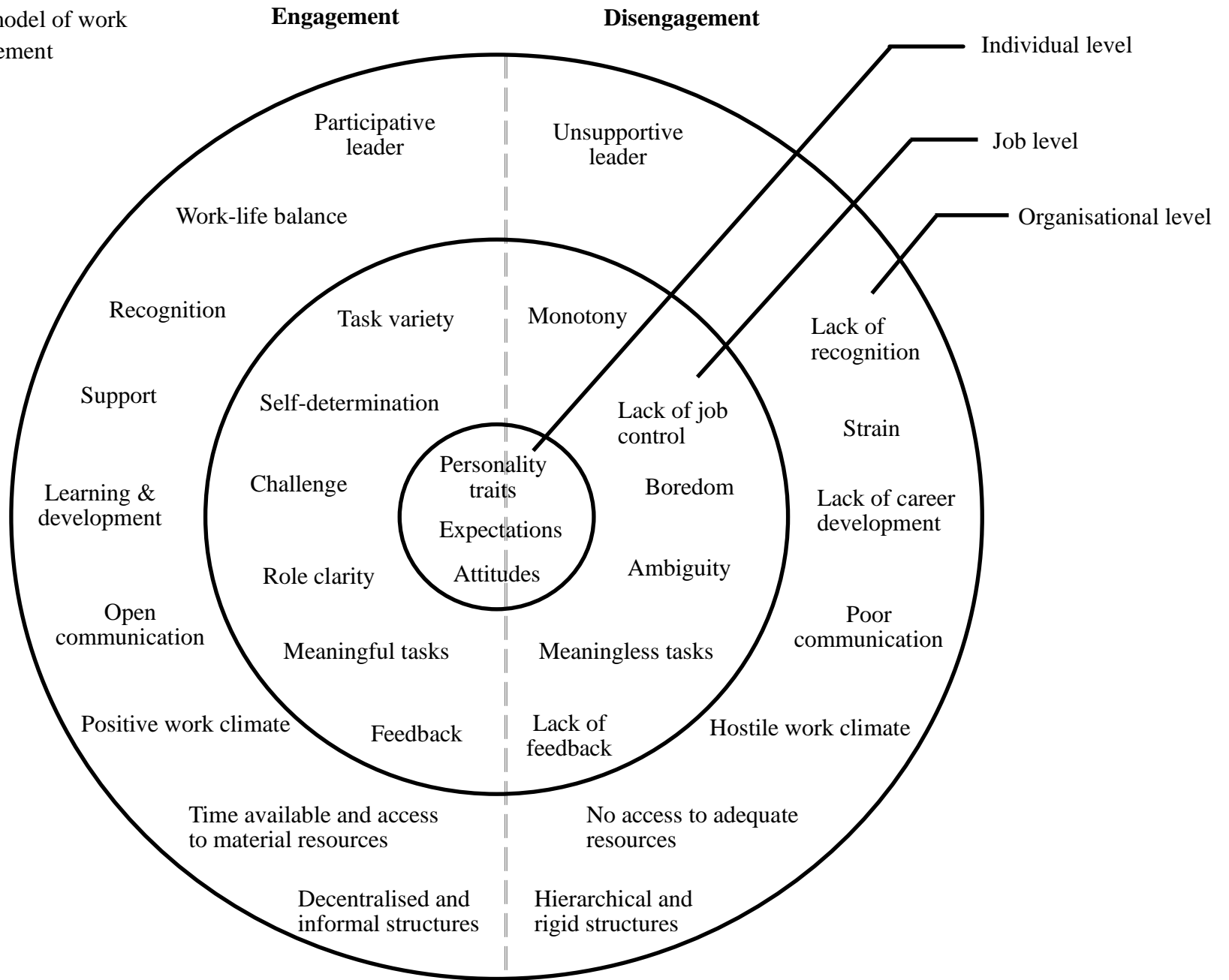
The aim of this research paper has been to explore the influence of intangible factors on work engagement from a qualitative viewpoint, taking account of different hierarchical levels. Four main themes have been identified among a sample of workers in the Spanish hospitality industry through in-depth interviews that allowed us to provide a comprehensive understanding of people’s motivations at work.

The first research question asked which intangible factors influenced work engagement. Our findings suggest that the type of work, social relations and organisational resources may enhance work engagement. In fact, self-management allows employees to organise their tasks, learn how to prioritise and become more involved in the organisation because they participate in the decision-making process, building a sense of ownership (Amah & Ahiauzu, 2013). The findings further indicate that inspiring leaders help employees to see how they contribute to the organisation's higher purpose. In accordance with previous research (Yukl, 2013), participative or empowering leadership and transformational leadership may influence positively work engagement.

The second research question focused on how individuals perceived work engagement. The participants' definitions of work engagement were in line with Schaufeli et al.'s conceptualization of engagement (2002), as individuals revealed a personal attachment to their work roles and peers (emotional component) and a cognitive aspect derived from their effort.

Based on these research findings and following a process-tracing approach (Beach & Pedersen, 2013), a work engagement-disengagement framework, depicted in Figure 7, was designed. This model consists of three levels: individual, job and organisational level. The individual level refers to characteristics of participants such as personality traits (dispositional attribution), attitudes, emotions, expectations and type of psychological contract (Rousseau, 2004). Literature on work engagement has demonstrated that personality (Sonnetag et al., 2010) and certain personal resources and dispositional characteristics (e.g., self-efficacy, optimism, proactivity, conscientiousness, resilience) are positively associated with work

Figure 7. Integrated model of work engagement-disengagement



engagement (Bakker et al., 2012; Christian et al., 2011; Dai, Zhuang, & Huan, 2019; Sonnentag, 2003). Second, different components at the job level may influence work engagement or disengagement depending on its nature (i.e., positive or negative). For example, having a meaningful job, that is varied, challenging and with a clear purpose may encourage work engagement. Lastly, the organisational level concerns elements within the work environment such as recognition, having supportive colleagues and managers, opportunities for growth, a climate of open communication and access to appropriate resources.

5.1 Practical implications

This research has several managerial implications. First, this study demonstrates that the aforementioned intangible factors (e.g., task variety, challenging work, support, opportunities for learning and development) are more relevant to work engagement than extrinsic motivators such as fringe benefits and monetary rewards. This suggests that hospitality management should not neglect the power of the intrinsic parts of the job. Thus, it might be worthwhile for organisations and managers to focus on making jobs more interesting and meaningful because it increases intrinsic motivation and, in turn, enhances employees' levels of work engagement. This can be achieved by informing employees of their impact and contribution to the organisation, setting clear expectations, showing them that their work does matter and involving them in the decision-making process (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010).

Second, our findings also reinforce the role of structural and psychological empowerment in the enhancement of work engagement (Laschinger et al., 1997; Spreitzer, 1995). Structural empowerment happens when employees have access to information, opportunities to learn and develop, support and resources at work (Greco et al., 2006) and

psychological empowerment refers to the need for meaningful work, competence, self-determination and impact on one's work (Spreitzer, 1995). This suggests that managers should delegate more and give employees autonomy with the intention to empower them so that they can learn and develop. It is therefore important to facilitate the necessary job resources, give feedback and create a work climate that enhances a positive disposition among service employees and customers through recognition, support and access to information.

Third, the research shows that organisational structures may influence leadership and, ultimately, work engagement. In effect, small- and medium-sized enterprises can enjoy greater flexibility than large organisations due to the simplicity of their internal organisation. Thus, they are more adaptable and responsive to changes that occur (Cardon & Stevens, 2004). This is relevant to the research context, as the Spanish hospitality industry is made up of many small and medium organisations. Organisations could promote work engagement through participative leadership style and the development of management practices that foster participation and people development (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990). Line managers should think and act strategically and seek to eliminate bureaucracy and streamline processes to be more efficient.

5.2 Limitations and directions for future research

This study has three main limitations that lead to different avenues for future research. First, the small sample size and the focus on the hospitality sector in Spain may limit the generalisation of results to other work settings. Despite the small sample size, we accounted for different types of employees, both in managerial and non-managerial positions, providing a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between work engagement, empowerment and intangible factors. Nonetheless, this study did not aim at looking for

differences and similarities across hierarchical levels. Future research should be conducted in different sectors and take account of larger samples.

Second, due to the qualitative nature of this study, the magnitude or the extent to which the factors identified influence work engagement could not be measured. Consequently, one interesting line for positive psychology theory development would be the use of quantitative methods to examine the relationships among leadership styles (e.g., participative or transformational leadership), structural and psychological empowerment and work engagement. Also, longitudinal research or diary studies are needed to examine the stability of work engagement as well as the determinants of change over time.

Another limitation is researcher partiality (Gough & Madill, 2012). Despite the fact that choices have been made to develop codes and themes inductively, assumptions stemmed from theoretical underpinnings and prior research. However, it is undeniable that there may be some subjectivity in the interpretation of the findings. Further, the interviewer followed a neutral approach, focusing on how participants understood work engagement and how they interpreted their experiences, attempting to reduce this potential bias (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

Finally, future studies should analyse whether personal traits associated with work engagement (e.g., proactivity, self-efficacy, conscientiousness) can buffer factors at the job or organization level leading to disengagement such as lack of recognition, bad work environment or monotonous work. Future research might also explore the extent to which high or low season in the tourism sector influences intangible factors and work engagement due to changes in work intensity.

6. Conclusion

This qualitative study advances knowledge about the understanding of people at work and the antecedents of work engagement in the hospitality industry. First, the critical incident technique has shown how specific events affect work engagement. Second, it has identified the main determinants and features of work engagement in the Galician hospitality sector (Spain). Finally, this study lends credence to the importance of structural and psychological empowerment in the enhancement of work engagement. As for organisations building better workplaces, an integrated model of engagement-disengagement is proposed to enhance levels work engagement through intangible factors.

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CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

1. Summary of results
2. Implications for practice
3. Limitations and future research
4. Concluding remarks

Chapter 6: Discussion and conclusions

6.1 Summary of results

The purpose of the present thesis was to investigate the influence of structural and psychological empowerment on work engagement in service organisations. To this end, three studies were conducted. The first empirical chapter (Chapter 3) examined the mediating role of structural empowerment between transformational leadership and work engagement among 240 employees working in the Galician tourism sector (Spain). Results revealed that transformational leadership related positively to structural empowerment and consequently, work engagement. Findings also showed that structural empowerment acted as a partial mediator between transformational leadership and work engagement.

Chapter 4 explored the mediating role of psychological empowerment between structural empowerment and work engagement across employees working in service organisations in Spain and the UK. It also examined the influence of work engagement on task performance and intention to quit. Results showed that psychological empowerment partially mediated the proposed relationship and the model provided support for partial invariance across countries. British employees reported a stronger relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement than Spanish employees.

The qualitative study presented in Chapter 5 discovered that intangible factors (e.g., challenging work, autonomy, feedback, learning and development opportunities, support) associated with structural and psychological empowerment may drive work engagement. An integrated model of work engagement-disengagement was suggested to help organisations to improve levels of work engagement.

This thesis is largely consistent with prior research (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Laschinger et al., 2001; Tims et al., 2011), but contributes to the literature on empowerment and work engagement by empirically investigating and explaining the underlying mechanisms through which structural and psychological empowerment may influence work engagement. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and the job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) provided the theoretical underpinning for explaining the proposed relationships. This research showed that empowering workplaces (i.e., having access to information, opportunities, support and resources) and psychological empowerment (i.e., meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) were positively associated with work engagement in service organisations in Galicia, Spain and the UK, contributing to creating positive workplaces that improve employees' work engagement.

6.2 Implications for practice

The results of this research indicated a number of practical implications for organisations and leaders to enhance levels of empowerment and, consequently, work engagement. First, Chapter 3 emphasised that the role of the leader is critical in stimulating work engagement through structural empowerment. This study suggested more training to develop transformational leaders who may promote employees' work engagement through strong leader behaviours such as inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985). This implies that employees may be more engaged when leaders inspire them, are open to change, challenge and support them. Additionally, leaders in small and medium-sized enterprises may enhance structural empowerment through open communication, feedback, praise and help.

Second, organisations should be aware of the significant role of structural and psychological empowerment in the enhancement of work engagement. If managers facilitate enough social structures (i.e., information, opportunities for learning and development, feedback and resources), they may foster psychological empowerment. Particularly, organisations could benefit by promoting employee involvement in decision-making process, active participation and allowing more access to relevant information concerning employees' work and performance. Furthermore, organisations should delegate more, give autonomy to employees, provide adequate training and opportunities to cultivate psychological empowerment (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997).

Structural empowerment was found to mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement and psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between structural empowerment and work engagement. This indicates that both structural and psychological empowerment influenced work engagement directly and indirectly. Organisations may also benefit from high levels of work engagement because it was related to task performance and lower intention to quit (Chapter 4). This results in long-term benefits for both organisations and employees.

Finally, Chapter 5 discovered a number of intangible factors that may lead to work engagement. Intervention strategies should not only consider determinants of work engagement at the job (e.g., task variety, self-determination, challenge) and organisational level (e.g., recognition, support, open communication), but also at the individual level, taking into account employees' expectations, personality traits and attitudes. This implies that interesting jobs that provide empowering conditions may increase intrinsic motivation and, in turn, work engagement. Managers should inform employees of their impact and contribution

to the organisation, set clear goals, show them that their work is important and involve them in the decision-making process to cultivate work engagement (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010).

Chapters 3 and 5 were conducted in the Galician hospitality sector, which is mainly composed of small and medium-sized enterprises. This context is relevant for this research as these organisations have greater flexibility than large organisations because of their internal structures. Therefore, they can adapt faster to changes and the suggested interventions (Cardon & Stevens, 2004).

6.3 Limitations and future research

This doctoral thesis has a number of limitations that should be addressed. First, the quantitative studies presented in Chapters 4 and 5 used cross-sectional data, which may impede causal inferences because there is no evidence of a temporal relationship between predictor and outcome (Spector, 2019). However, mediation models make theoretical claims about causality. Therefore, future research should use more robust designs such as longitudinal or diary studies to test the proposed models.

The second limitation concerns the potential presence of common method bias, as data were obtained from self-report questionnaires and self-ratings were used to measure work behaviours. Common method bias may occur when data for both independent and dependent variables are obtained from the same source, inflating the relationships or correlations between variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Nevertheless, model assumptions and hypotheses were supported, construct validity evidence was demonstrated, and Harman's single factor results showed that a single factor model did not account for the majority of the total explained variance. Although common method bias was not a concern in these studies, obtaining data from multiple sources (e.g., leader or colleagues) may reduce this potential bias.

Another potential limitation is that only trait work engagement was examined. Following the initial definition of work engagement by Schaufeli et al. (2002), trait work engagement focuses on interindividual differences and, rather than being a specific and temporary state, it refers to a cognitive-affective state that is more persistent over time. However, work engagement is not a fixed state and may change over time. State work engagement reflects a vivid experience and analyses fluctuations within individuals over a short period of time (Sonnetag et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou & Bakker, 2013). Accordingly, future research may explore the impact of structural and psychological empowerment on state work engagement to capture within-person fluctuations across time.

As each study focused on a specific group of employees working in service organisations (i.e., Galician tourism sector, service organisations across Spain and the UK), this may limit the generalization of the study results. Thus, future studies could explore these relationships in different settings (e.g., more hierarchical and large organisations) and other sectors.

Also, the incremental value of structural and psychological empowerment in explaining work engagement over and above job and personal resources has been explained, but it has not been formally tested in the studies presented in this dissertation. This issue could be also discussed as an avenue for future studies that could investigate whether structural and psychological empowerment explain variance in work engagement over job and personal resources.

The main limitations of the qualitative study were the small sample size (25 interviews) and partial subjectivity. Nonetheless, efforts have been made to account for different types of employees (holding both managerial and non-managerial positions), working in different roles. Despite the above limitations, a combination of quantitative and

qualitative research methods were used, contributing to the understanding of the relationships among structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and work engagement.

It would be interesting to study the moderating role of psychological contract breach between empowerment (either structural or psychological) and work engagement to explore whether the effect of empowerment on work engagement depends on employees' perceptions about their psychological contract breach. Finally, one of the interesting findings from the study presented in Chapter 4 is that the relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement was stronger for British employees than Spanish ones. This is untrodden research ground and further research is needed to investigate the cultural differences explaining such difference.

6.4 Concluding remarks

The current fast-changing global environment has brought about calls for more adaptive and flexible organizations. This research shed light on the mechanism through which structural and psychological empowerment may lead to work engagement, an understudied research topic. Managers need to think about how to create empowering workplaces and employees in order to generate adequate levels of work engagement and intrinsic motivation. In order for employees to be engaged, organisations should encourage participative leadership and people development, enabling teamwork and cooperation, structural empowerment and psychological empowerment. It is important to give autonomy to employees as for making decisions regarding productivity, innovation or goal achievement. In conclusion, this thesis expands the nomological network of work engagement by investigating whether structural and psychological empowerment may contribute to explaining this phenomenon and reveals that the adoption of collaborative

practices between employees and organisations that enhance empowerment may boost levels of work engagement.

6.4 Conclusiones

El entorno global actual está cambiando constantemente y ha transformado el mercado laboral y las organizaciones, que cada vez son más flexibles para adaptarse a estos cambios. Esta investigación arroja luz sobre el mecanismo que explica cómo el empoderamiento estructural y psicológico pueden conducir al *work engagement*, un tema de investigación poco estudiado. Los gerentes y equipos de recursos humanos deben pensar en cómo crear lugares de trabajo y empleados empoderados para generar niveles adecuados de compromiso y motivación intrínseca en el trabajo. Para que los empleados se involucren, las organizaciones deben alentar el liderazgo participativo y el desarrollo de las personas, facilitando el trabajo en equipo y la cooperación, el empoderamiento estructural y psicológico. Es transcendental dar autonomía a los empleados para que tomen decisiones sobre productividad, innovación o consecución de objetivos. En conclusión, esta tesis amplía la red nomológica del *work engagement* al investigar si el empoderamiento estructural y psicológico pueden contribuir a explicar este fenómeno y, además, evidencia que la adopción de prácticas colaborativas entre empleados y organizaciones que fomentan el empoderamiento puede aumentar los niveles de compromiso.

6.4 Conclusión

A contorna global actual está a cambiar constantemente e transformou o mercado laboral e as organizacións, que cada vez son máis flexíbeis para adaptarse a estes cambios. Esta investigación arroxa luz sobre o mecanismo que explica como o apoderamento estrutural e psicolóxico poden conducir ao *work engagement*, un tema de investigación pouco estudado. Os xerentes e equipos de recursos humanos deben pensar en como crear lugares de

traballo e empregados apoderados para xerar niveis adecuados de compromiso e motivación intrínseca no traballo. Para que os empregados se involucren, as organizacións deben estimular o liderado participativo e o desenvolvemento das persoas, facilitando o traballo en equipo e a cooperación, o apoderamento estrutural e psicolóxico. Cómpre dar autonomía aos empregados para que tomen decisións sobre produtividade, innovación ou consecución de obxectivos. En conclusión, esta tese amplía a rede nomolóxica do *work engagement* ao investigar se o apoderamento estrutural e psicolóxico poden contribuír a explicar este fenómeno e, ademais, evidencia que a adopción de prácticas colaborativas entre empregados e organizacións que fomentan o apoderamento pode aumentar os niveis de compromiso.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire used in Chapter 3

Por favor responde a las siguientes preguntas.

Edad

- Menos de 20
 - 21-30
 - 31-45
 - 46-65
 - +65
-

Sexo

- Hombre
 - Mujer
-

¿Cuántos años llevas trabajando en esta empresa?

- Menos de 1 año
 - 1-5 años
 - 6-15 años
 - +15 años
-

¿Qué tipo de contrato tienes?

- Temporal
 - Indefinido
 - Otro
-

A continuación, se describe el comportamiento de su supervisor/jefe directo en el trabajo. Indique el grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones de 1 a 5, donde 1 es “totalmente en desacuerdo” y 5 “totalmente de acuerdo”.

	1	2	3	4	5
Habla con entusiasmo acerca del futuro de la empresa	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hace que los empleados se sientan orgullosos de formar parte de esta empresa	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cuando logro los objetivos propuestos, me informa que lo he hecho bien	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hace que los que están a su alrededor se sientan bien	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sugiere nuevas formas de hacer el trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Expresa confianza en que se alcanzarán los objetivos	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Me ayuda a mirar los problemas desde distintos puntos de vista	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Me desafía a pensar de nuevas maneras	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Considera mis sentimientos al implementar acciones que me afectarán	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tiene una visión clara del futuro de la empresa	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Considera que tengo
necesidades, habilidades y
aspiraciones que son únicas

Tiene en cuenta mis necesidades
personales

Dice cosas positivas sobre mi
departamento

Valora los intereses de los
empleados a la hora de tomar
decisiones

Me ayuda a desarrollar mis
capacidades



Indique el grado en el que cada una de las siguientes características se da en su puesto de trabajo de 1 a 5, donde 1 es “poco/a” y 5 “mucho/a”.

	1	2	3	4	5
Un trabajo estimulante	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Oportunidad de adquirir nuevas habilidades y conocimientos en el trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Desarrollo de tareas que emplean todas sus habilidades y conocimientos	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Información sobre el estado actual de la organización	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Información sobre los valores de la organización	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Información sobre los objetivos de la organización	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Información específica sobre las cosas que usted hace bien	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Comentarios concretos sobre las cosas que usted podría mejorar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Consejos útiles o sugerencias sobre la resolución de problemas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tiempo disponible para realizar el trabajo administrativo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tiempo disponible para cumplir los requisitos del trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Oportunidad de conseguir ayuda temporal cuando se necesita



Las siguientes preguntas se refieren a sus sentimientos en el trabajo. Si nunca se ha sentido así conteste '0', y en caso contrario indique cuántas veces se ha sentido así teniendo en cuenta el número que aparece en la siguiente escala de respuesta (de 1 a 6).

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
En mi trabajo me siento lleno de energía	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Soy fuerte y vigoroso en mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Estoy entusiasmado con mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mi trabajo me inspira	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cuando me levanto por las mañanas tengo ganas de ir a trabajar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Soy feliz cuando estoy concentrado en mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Estoy orgulloso del trabajo que hago	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Estoy inmerso y concentrado en mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Me "dejo llevar" por mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

En cumplimiento de la LOPD (L.O. 15/1999, de 13 de diciembre), se le informa de que sus datos personales van a ser incorporados a un fichero titularidad de esta. La finalidad del presente fichero es poder realizar estudios estadísticos y control de calidad. Dichos datos personales no serán cedidos a ningún tipo de organización, ni pública ni privada, quedando bajo la plena responsabilidad de la alumna. Los afectados podrán ejercitar los derechos de acceso, rectificación, cancelación y oposición frente al Responsable del Fichero en la siguiente dirección de correo: engagementsurveyinfo@gmail.com.

Muchas gracias por el tiempo dedicado a este cuestionario. Todas sus respuestas son anónimas y los datos que nos ha facilitado se tratarán con la mayor confidencialidad y no se le pedirá que proporcione su nombre o posición. No obstante, si quiere que le informemos de los resultados de esta investigación y que le mantengamos al corriente de la entrega de informes en el futuro, por favor proporciónenos sus datos y el equipo de investigación estará encantado de mantenerse en contacto con Ud.

Appendix B: Questionnaire used in Chapter 4 (Spanish)

Por favor responde a las siguientes preguntas.

Año de nacimiento

Sexo

- Hombre
 - Mujer
-

¿Cuántos años llevas trabajando en esta empresa?

¿Cuántas horas trabajas a la semana?

- 10
 - 15
 - 20
 - 25
 - 30
 - 35
 - 40
-

¿Cuál de las siguientes opciones describe mejor su papel dentro de la organización?

- Responsable/supervisor/jefe
 - Empleado sin equipo a cargo
-

¿Qué tipo de contrato tienes?

- Temporal
 - Indefinido
 - Otro
-
-

¿Cuántos empleados trabajan en su organización?

- 1-4
 - 5-9
 - 10-19
 - 20-49
 - 50-99
 - 100-249
 - 500-999
 - 1000 o más
-
-

¿En qué tipo de empresa trabaja?

- Sector público
 - Sector privado
-
-

¿Cuál de las siguientes industrias es la que más se ajusta a la de su empresa?

- Seguros, servicios bancarios y financieros
- Servicios profesionales, científicos o técnicos
- Educación
- Sanidad o servicios sociales
- Comercio
- Transporte
- Servicios turísticos/restauración
- Gobierno y Administración Pública
- Otros servicios
- No es una empresa de servicios

Indique el grado en el que cada una de las siguientes características se da en su puesto de trabajo de 1 a 5, donde 1 es “poco/a” y 5 “mucho/a”.

	1	2	3	4	5
Un trabajo estimulante	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Oportunidad de adquirir nuevas habilidades y conocimientos en el trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Desarrollo de tareas que emplean todas sus habilidades y conocimientos	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Información sobre el estado actual de la organización	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Información sobre los valores de la organización	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Información sobre los objetivos de la organización	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Información específica sobre las cosas que usted hace bien	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Comentarios concretos sobre las cosas que usted podría mejorar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Consejos útiles o sugerencias sobre la resolución de problemas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tiempo disponible para realizar el trabajo administrativo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tiempo disponible para cumplir los requisitos del trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Oportunidad de conseguir ayuda temporal cuando se necesita



Indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo respecto a las siguientes afirmaciones de 1 a 7, donde 1 es “totalmente en desacuerdo” y 7 “totalmente de acuerdo”.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
El trabajo que yo hago es muy importante para mí	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mis actividades laborales son personalmente valiosas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
El trabajo que realizo es significativo para mí	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confío en mi aptitud para hacer mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confío en mi capacidad para desarrollar las tareas que se requieren en mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
He adquirido dominio en las habilidades necesarias para desarrollar mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tengo autonomía para determinar cómo hacer mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yo puedo decidir por mi mismo cómo organizar mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tengo suficiente libertad e independencia para decidir cómo hacer mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mi trabajo es importante para el funcionamiento de mi departamento	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Tengo suficiente control sobre
lo que ocurre en mi
departamento

Tengo suficiente influencia en
lo que ocurre en mi
departamento



Las siguientes preguntas se refieren sus sentimientos en el trabajo. Si nunca se ha sentido así conteste '0', y en caso contrario indique cuántas veces se ha sentido así teniendo en cuenta el número que aparece en la siguiente escala de respuesta (de 1 a 6).

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
En mi trabajo me siento lleno de energía	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Soy fuerte y vigoroso en mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Estoy entusiasmado con mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mi trabajo me inspira	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cuando me levanto por las mañanas tengo ganas de ir a trabajar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Soy feliz cuando estoy concentrado en mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Estoy orgulloso del trabajo que hago	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Estoy inmerso y concentrado en mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Me "dejo llevar" por mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo respecto a las siguientes afirmaciones de 1 a 7, donde 1 es “totalmente en desacuerdo” y 7 “totalmente de acuerdo”.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Estoy buscando trabajo activamente fuera de esta empresa	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tan pronto como pueda encontrar un trabajo mejor, dejaré esta empresa	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Estoy pensando seriamente en dejar mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A menudo pienso en dejar mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
No creo que esté trabajando aquí dentro de cinco años	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo respecto a las siguientes afirmaciones sobre su desempeño laboral de 1 a 7, donde 1 es “totalmente en desacuerdo” y 7 “totalmente de acuerdo”.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Completo adecuadamente las tareas que se me asignan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cumplo con las responsabilidades que se especifican en la descripción del puesto de trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Realizo las funciones que se esperan de mi puesto de trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cumplo con las obligaciones relacionadas con mi desempeño laboral	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Me involucro en actividades que afectarán directamente mi evaluación de desempeño	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix C: Questionnaire used in Chapter 4 (English)

Please answer the following questions

What is your year of birth?

What is your sex?

- Male
 - Female
-

What is your organizational tenure in years?

How many hours do you work per week?

- 10
 - 15
 - 20
 - 25
 - 30
 - 35
 - 40
-

Which of the following best describes your role within the organization?

- Manager/supervisor
 - Not a manager or supervisor
-

What is your type of contract?

- Temporary
 - Permanent
 - Other
-

How many employees work in your organization?

- 1-4
 - 5-9
 - 10-19
 - 20-49
 - 50-99
 - 100-249
 - 500-999
 - 1000 or more
-

Where are you employed?

- Public sector
 - Private sector
-

Which of the following industries most closely matches the one in which you are employed?

- Banking, insurance and financial services
- Professional, scientific or technical services
- Educational services
- Health care or social assistance
- Commerce
- Transportation or warehousing
- Hospitality/tourism services
- Government and Public Administration
- Other services
- Not in the service sector

Indicate the degree to which each of the following characteristics happens in your workplace from 1 to 5, where 1 is the lowest score and 5 is the highest score.

	1	2	3	4	5
Challenging work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The chance to gain new skills and knowledge on the job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tasks that use all of your own skills and knowledge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Information about the current state of the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Information about the values of the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Information about the goals of the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Specific information about things you do well	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Specific comments about things you could improve	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Helpful hints or problem solving advice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Time available to do necessary paperwork	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Time available to accomplish job requirements	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Acquiring temporary help
when needed



Indicate the degree to which each of the following characteristics happens in your workplace from 1 to 7, where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The work that I do is very important to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job activities are personally meaningful to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The work I do is meaningful to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am confident about my ability to do my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My impact on what happens in my department is large	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I have a great deal of control
over what happens in my
department

I have significant influence
over what happens in my
department



The following statements are about how you feel at work. If you have never had this feeling, choose “0” (zero). If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you felt it by selecting the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am enthusiastic about my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job inspires me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel happy when I am working intensely	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of the work that I do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am immersed in my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get carried away when I am working	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements, where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am actively looking for a job outside this company	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave this company	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am seriously thinking about quitting my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often think about quitting my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't think I will be working here five years from now	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your performance, where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I adequately complete assigned duties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I fulfil responsibilities specified in job description	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I perform tasks that are expected of me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I meet formal performance requirements of the job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix D: Interview guide used in Chapter 5

Sexo: Hombre Mujer

Edad: Menos de 30 años 30-40 años Más de 40 años

¿Cuál es tu puesto de trabajo?

¿Cuál es tu antigüedad en la empresa (en años)?

Jornada laboral: Parcial Tiempo completo

Tipo de contrato: Temporal Indefinido Otro

Describe brevemente en que consiste un día de trabajo normal

1. De todas las funciones y tareas que realizas, ¿cuál es la que más te gusta? ¿Por qué?

2. Cuéntame la última vez en que te sentiste comprometido en el trabajo. ¿Cómo te sentiste?

3. Describe los resultados positivos o negativos del compromiso para la organización.

4. ¿Crees que todos los trabajadores de la empresa se sienten igual de comprometidos? ¿Por qué?

4.1 ¿Qué características o rasgos personales crees que tienen las personas que se sienten más comprometidas?

4.2 ¿Qué características o rasgos personales crees que tienen las personas que se sienten menos comprometidas?

5. ¿Cómo crees que afecta el comportamiento de tu jefe en tu compromiso? (Empleado)

¿Cómo crees que tu comportamiento afecta al compromiso de los trabajadores? (Jefe)

6. Cuéntame una ocasión en la que no te sentiste comprometido en el trabajo recientemente.
¿Cómo te sentiste?
7. Describe las consecuencias de no sentirse comprometido para la organización.
8. ¿Qué se puede hacer para mejorar tu compromiso en esta empresa?
9. ¿Qué factores del entorno laboral consideras más importantes para conseguir un mayor compromiso en el trabajo?
10. ¿Qué debe de ofrecer un puesto de trabajo para que te llene 100%? ¿Por qué?
11. Después de responder a todas estas preguntas, ¿cómo definirías el compromiso en el trabajo?

Appendix E: Consent form used in Chapter 5

Consentimiento Informado para Participantes de Investigación

El propósito de esta ficha de consentimiento es proveer a los participantes en esta investigación con una clara explicación de la naturaleza de esta, así como de su rol en ella como participantes.

La presente investigación es conducida por Ariadna Monje Amor de la Universidade da Coruña. El objetivo de este estudio es investigar las causas del compromiso en el trabajo en el sector turístico gallego y sus consecuencias.

Si usted accede a participar en este estudio, se le pedirá responder a una serie de preguntas en una entrevista que durará aproximadamente 30 minutos. Lo que conversemos durante estas sesiones se grabará, de modo que el investigador pueda transcribir después las ideas que usted haya expresado.

La participación en este estudio es estrictamente voluntaria. La información que se recoja será confidencial y no se usará para ningún otro propósito fuera de los de esta investigación. Sus respuestas a la entrevista serán codificadas usando un número de identificación y, por lo tanto, serán anónimas. Una vez transcritas las entrevistas, se destruirán las grabaciones.

Si tiene alguna duda sobre este proyecto, puede hacer preguntas en cualquier momento durante su participación en él. Igualmente, puede retirarse del proyecto en cualquier momento sin que eso lo perjudique en ninguna forma. Si alguna de las preguntas durante la entrevista le parece incómoda, tiene el derecho de hacérselo saber al investigador o de no responderla.

Yo, _____, acepto participar voluntariamente en esta investigación, conducida por Ariadna Monje Amor. He sido informado del objetivo de este estudio y me han indicado también que tendré que responder a varias preguntas en una entrevista, la cual durará aproximadamente 30 minutos.

Reconozco que la información que yo provea en el curso de esta investigación es estrictamente confidencial y no será usada para ningún otro propósito fuera de los de este estudio sin mi consentimiento. He sido informado de que puedo hacer preguntas sobre el proyecto en cualquier momento y que puedo retirarme del mismo cuando así lo decida, sin que esto acarree perjuicio alguno para mi persona. De tener preguntas sobre mi participación en este estudio, puedo contactar a Ariadna Monje Amor (ariadna.monje@udc.es).

Entiendo que una copia de esta ficha de consentimiento me será entregada, y que puedo pedir información sobre los resultados de este estudio cuando éste haya concluido. Para esto, puedo contactar al Investigador Responsable del proyecto al correo electrónico anteriormente mencionado.

Fecha

FIRMA DEL PARTICIPANTE