Duncan Shirandula

Innovation Barriers and Proactive Work Behaviour: Lessons from Selected Hotels in Nairobi City, Kenya

There is nothing more constant than change; stop the fuss, be proactive.

INNOVATION BARRIERS AND PROACTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR

LESSONS FROM SELECTED HOTELS IN NAIROBI CITY, KENYA

Duncan Shirandula

UTAFITI FOUNDATION

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DEDICATION

My lovely son Fortune and daughter Favour; may you excel beyond.
To my dear parents without whose dedication and sacrifice, I would not have come this far. Your inspiration crowned it all.

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I express my heartfelt appreciation to Mr. & Mrs. Shirandula, for their support, encouragement and love. I am grateful to my research supervisors Dr. Jacqueline Korir and Dr. Isabella Mapelu for their exceptional supervision and excellent guidance throughout the research process that preconceived this book. Thank you for being patient with me in every step of the way. I express my gratitude to other researchers whose work I have quoted, thank you for contributing to the existing knowledge tank. To all my lecturers who contributed to the study in different ways, may God bless you. And especially to God, His grace has not failed me in the face of obstacles.

Thank you

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AMA	American Management Association
CIS	Community Innovation Survey
HRI	Human Resource Institute
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
P. I	Personal Initiative
PSO	Public Sector Organization
PWB	Proactive Work Behaviour
R & D	Research and Development
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory
SBE	School of Business and Economics
SMEs	Small Medium Enterprises
UK	United Kingdom

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Endogenous barriers are barriers brought about by the internal business environment and can be influenced rather easily by the management of the organisation (Cordeiro & Vieira, 2012).

Exogenous barriers refer to barriers brought about by the external business environment which is more difficult to influence (Cordeiro & Vieira, 2012).

Front line employees are employees who directly interact with customers during service delivery. They are a bridge between a firm and its customers (Masdek, Rozana, Abdul Aziz & Awang, 2011).

Innovation barriers are obstacles that exist naturally, artificially, or a combination of both that restrict, delay, or stop creation and adaptation of ideas that are new-to-world, new to nation/ region, new-to-industry or new-to-firm.

Innovation is a set of self-starting, action oriented behaviour designed to change one's environment or oneself (Unsworth & Parker, 2003). It is change associated with the creation and adaptation of ideas that are new-to-world, new to nation/ region, new-to-industry or new-to-firm (Otterbacher, 2008).

Proactive work behaviour refers to anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments through taking initiative in pursuing personal and organisational goals, actively adapting to new environments, expressing voice, selling issues, and solving problems and taking charge (Grant, Parker & Collins, 2009).

Work behaviour refers to the behaviour one exhibits in employment and is normally more formal though this varies from profession to profession, as some are far more casual than others (Work behaviour. (n.d.) In *Wikipedia*. Accessed on Oct 12, 2013, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Work-behaviour

FOREWORD

In the current 21st century, the general global market environment is constantly being shaped by growing social and governmental constraints, downsizing, restructuring, competition pressures, mature markets and changing customer demands. In Kenya particularly, the hospitality industry is increasingly being characterized by intensive competition from international chain hotels; outsourcing and contractual management; decentralized management; fluctuating demand and supply due to seasonality dynamics; introduction of innovations and new technologies and increased job stress among others. Consequently, in order to survive the management is compelled to embrace innovation and proactive behaviour among employees.

However, there is limited information on managing innovation and employee proactive behaviours in the Kenyan hospitality context. For decades, hospitality professionals, consultants, policy makers, researchers and students have been longing for a book which addresses the intrigues of innovation and proactive behaviour in the Kenyan market context. This book deals with the two most critical innovation barriers to proactive work behaviour. It explains the effects of endogenous and exogenous barriers on proactive work behaviour. The book contends that endogenous barriers stifle proactive work behaviour while exogenous barriers breed proactive behaviour.

This book is particularly useful in that it demystifies the innovation barriers in the local context. The catch of this book rests in the conceptualization of the barriers in the Kenyan hospitality context, through a proposition of a domestic conceptual framework. Besides, the assessment of the extent of proactive behaviour between the male and female employees in Kenyan hotel industry creates new knowledge which can inform policy and industry practices.

The book is highly recommended to both undergraduate and graduate students, tourism and hospitality managers, scholars, researchers, policy makers, hospitality consultants and anybody interested in training staff on how to overcome innovation barriers. In this century of innovation and technology advancements, this book becomes A MUST READ!

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School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events management,
Moi University.

PREFACE

Proactive work behaviour and innovation in hotels may bring about positive changes in work environment that may include improved quality products, increased efficiency, a cut on costs and a greater market share. Despite these benefits, hotels struggle to be proactive and innovative; but fail because of challenges brought about in particular by innovation barriers for instance governmental constraints, lack of competences, time and risks of failure. These innovation barriers may lessen employees' personal initiative, ability to take charge, sell their issues and voice their views in the organization. Thus, this book presents the findings of a study that was guided by the objective: to determine the relationship between innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour in selected hotels located in Nairobi city. The study examined endogenous and exogenous innovation barriers in relation to proactive work behaviour in the hospitality industry. The study also tested the difference in proactive work behaviour between the male and female employees. The study employed a co-relational research design and was conducted in Nairobi city. The findings of the study indicated a relationship between endogenous innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour ($t=-5.036$, $p<.000$). It was established that there was a relationship between exogenous innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour ($t=3.503$, $p<.0.01$). There is no difference in proactive work behaviour between male employees and female employees (F 1.312; $p. = 0.269$). The study concluded that both endogenous and exogenous innovation barriers may affect proactive behaviour at work place. It recommended that hotels should focus on creating an enabling work environment that promotes proactive work behaviour through provision of adequate job resources. Besides, organisations should embrace gender diversity at workplace to create broader search base for proactive work behaviour.

This book targets the stakeholders in the hospitality industry in Kenya, Africa and globally. The general readers are also important audience of the book. The results presented here could give a baseline on which any corrective action could be taken in the industry.

On the organisation of the book, it begins by giving an overview on the proactive work behaviour, innovation and endogenous and exogenous barriers to innovation in general terms. An in-depth discussion on the concept of innovation is given in chapter two of the book, after which the proactive work behaviour is discussed with intensive review of existing literature. Chapter four discusses proactive work behaviour and gender differences. A study of the selected hospitality establishments (Hilton, Safari Park and Intercontinental hotels) follows in chapter five and the discussion of the findings is given in chapters six and seven. Lastly, conclusion drawn and recommended ways through which innovation can be enhanced with combating the endogenous and exogenous barriers in relation to proactive work behaviour follows in chapter seven.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO PROACTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR AND INNOVATION

Proactive work behaviours are particularly imperative in today's economies that are characterized by decentralized management, increased team work, rapid organizational changes including the introduction of innovations and new technologies, and increased job stress (Thatcher & Zhu, 2006). It is significant in market environments characterized by growing social and governmental constraints, downsizing, restructuring, competitive pressures, mature markets and changing customer demands (Tidd & Hull, 2003).

Proactive behaviour is self-directed and future-focused action in an organization, in which the individual aims to bring about change (Grant et al., 2009; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Morrison, 1999). The change could be in terms of change to the situation for instance, introducing new work methods, influencing organizational strategy and/or change within oneself for example, learning new skills to cope with future demands. This book focuses on personal initiative, taking charge, voice behaviour and issue selling proactive work behaviours.

Personal initiative is a work behaviour defined as self-starting and proactive that overcomes barriers to achieve a goal. Taking charge is defined as voluntary and constructive efforts by individual employees to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the context of their jobs, work units or organizations. Besides, issue selling

is a voluntary, discretionary set of behaviour by which organizational members attempt to influence the organizational agenda by getting those above them to pay attention to issues while voice behaviour emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to realize improvements rather than to just criticize how things are done (Frese & Day, 2001; Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

Hadjimanolis (2003) asserts that there are factors or constraints that inhibit innovation. The study of the barriers to innovation focuses on the problems that can occur throughout the complex and delicate process of innovation. These factors, which place obstruction or inertia in innovation, termed as barriers to innovation, can arise for various reasons. Identification and categorization is fundamental since it creates mechanisms to reduce their existence, minimize them, or convert them into facilitators of innovation. Most authors categorize such factors into internal and external barriers. Internal barriers are those that arise inside the company and external barriers, arise from the external environment (Cordeiro & Vieira, 2012; Hadjimanolis, 2003; Guijarro, Garcia & Auken, 2009; Stanislawsky & Olczak, 2010).

Small and Medium Enterprises are mostly flooded with many similar, often easily substitutable service offerings which make it difficult for customers to differentiate an establishment from its competitors. This situation can decrease the competitiveness of these establishments, the Kenyan hospitality establishments included; hence the need to introduce several radical innovations. However, several studies (Davidsson, 1989; Hakim,

1989) show that most small firms are, in fact, not very entrepreneurial or innovative despite their economic value. Nikolaou, Vakola, & Bourantas (2007) state that organizations are increasingly demanding more and more from their employees with regards to taking initiative, generating innovative ideas, speaking up and accepting responsibility. This is as a result of intensive competition, higher customer expectations and increased focus on quality among others.

Keegan et al. (1997) and Keegan et al. (1997) state that barriers to innovation in European SMEs are shared across countries. Barriers to innovation that European small firms in general perceive as most significant range from, according to Keegan et al. (1997), high costs associated with innovation, long pay-off periods, low availability of venture capital, the perception that innovations are easily copied by competitors, high rates of income tax and social insurance, the small size of the domestic market, lack of government support for business, national tendency towards jobs with security, to an education system that influences people to get white collar jobs. Loewe (2004) states the top six endogenous obstacles to innovation across industries as; short-term focus, inadequate time, resources or staff, leadership expectations of payoffs sooner than is realistic, management incentives not structured to reward innovation, lack of a systematic innovation processes and a firm belief that innovation is naturally risky. Shortage of resources relates to competence and personnel factors like the firm's ability and capability to innovate, both regarding available time and regarding the level of employee's capacity to discover new solutions. These barriers may be termed as endogenous as they are caused by the internal business environment and can be

influenced rather easily by the management of the organization (Cordeiro & Vieira, 2012).

Exogenous innovation barriers include the society‘s beliefs and traditions, risks and criticism resulting from innovation failures, lack of governmental support, and stringent bureaucracies and formal procedures. For instance, bureaucracies and formal procedures like budgeting and governmental approval processes can be so embedded and cumbersome that they can stifle creativity and flexibility in the workplace (Henrekson, 1996).

Gender insensitivity in society is another factor that is exogenous to the work environment. According to the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics report (2012), there are more male employees in Restaurants and Hotels sector than female employees. There are many factors that may lead to this situation; for instance odd working hours, working in shifts and the social stigma of working in the hotels may curtail many females in joining the industry. As a result, employers in the hospitality favour male employees more than their female counterparts (Taylor, 2002).

Recruiting and retaining women in scientific and technical fields is seen as a key to success. However, a number of studies and reports have stressed the acute problem of women‘s under-representation in science and in the business enterprise sector. Thus, equal participation of men and women is essential in exploiting the full potential of innovative strengths – not only for demographic reasons, but also in case of innovation processes and results. There is a need to clarify policy related measures that can support the process to get more women involved in the

innovation process in business fields (Inger & Jennie, 2011).

Pettersson (2007) in a study of innovation strategies, states that science, innovation and technology are connected to masculinity. The co-production of gender and science, technology and innovation results in an interpretation of men as technically or scientifically skilled and women as unskilled in these areas.

Significance of the Book

This book presents the findings of a previous study done to establish the relationship between innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour in hospitality industry, through examining the endogenous and exogenous barriers to innovation and exploring the differences in proactive work behaviour between the male and female gender. The book therefore documents additional information on this specific area after which any interested reader and researcher can conveniently access and use.

Summary

This chapter gives an overview of proactive work behaviour, innovation, endogenous and exogenous factors barring innovation in the hospitality section. Proactive work behaviour includes voice, personal initiative, issue selling and taking charge. These behaviours have been known to provide solutions to problems emanating from the job environment when used innovatively by the employees. However, both endogenous and exogenous barriers highlighted in this chapter have been known to curtail such innovativeness in the hospitality industry.

CHAPTER 2
CONCEPT OF INNOVATION

A lot of people get confused when they hear the word innovation. They do not know what exactly the word means and what the main characteristics of it are. The two words invention and innovation often get mixed up; sometimes they are even used as synonyms. The beginning of the process of transformation is called invention. It is used as an effective idea. Invention is part of innovation or the innovation process (Otterbacher, 2008).

Tidd and Hull (2003) had an idea that innovation came from the word *'innovare'*. It is a Latin word meaning to create or make something new. Tidd and Hull said that innovation was a new way of doing things better i.e. unique combinations of production factors (Otterbacher, 2008). As they wrote, innovation is making new opportunities for additional value added, it does not involve just the typical product/process innovation of manufacturing but also the market, organizational and resource input innovations, (Martínez-Ros & Sintes, 2009).

According to the American Management Association report (2006), the term innovation is used to describe how organizations create value by developing new knowledge and/or using existing knowledge in new ways. The term is often used to mean the development of new products or services, but organizations can also innovate in other ways, such as through new business models, management techniques and organizational structures. Service innovation is defined as the development of novel and useful ideas for improving service

effectiveness (Chen, 2001). Therefore, service innovation strategies are most likely an ability of firms to drive business change methods of new management to achieve business success (Hu & Yu, 2008) through searching for new ways to develop products and services (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003).

As a result, innovation strategies can make unique market and market niches to occur (Hua & Wemmerlov, 2006) and seemingly, they appear to be the only means for an organization to convert change into opportunities and thus success (Huse et al., 2005). Companies can introduce the innovation process in five areas namely generation of new or improved products, introduction of new production processes, development of new sales markets, development of new supply markets and reorganization or restructuring of the company (Otterbacher, 2008). Innovation should be looked at as an opportunity. The result of these opportunities is the creation of a new product or service or changing a previous one. Innovation cannot only be an idea/philosophy, but innovation can also be thought of as a practice, a process or a product. The point is that the individual perceives the thing as something new. Individuals are very important in innovation, because they transform a new problem-solving idea into an application (Otterbacher, 2008).

In the American Management Association report (2006), the President and Chief Executive Officer said that innovation drives growth and opportunity in new markets, and breathes life into a mature industry. Executives at all levels have a responsibility to lead and stimulate innovative thinking across the entire enterprise. Stockholders, employees and customers count on executives to create a healthy, innovative work environment.

The AMA/HRI report (2006) points out that in today‘s fast-paced business environment, innovation is a prerequisite for success—and perhaps even for survival. That‘s why innovation has found its way to the top of the agenda at organizations around the world. Once considered primarily an output of Research and Development (R & D) lab, innovation has become a corporate priority that touches every facet of, and, indeed, every employee in, an organization. External constituents, too—customers, academia, the government, vendors, even competitors are playing a growing role in companies’ creative processes.

The Survey (2006) found that more than two-thirds of the 1,356 global respondents considered innovation either —extremely important —or —highly important to their organizations today. About half of respondents thought innovation will be —extremely important to their organizations in 10 years, and 35% say it will be —highly important (American Management Association report, 2006).

According to the American Management Association report (2006), whoever originally said that the customer always comes first could have been looking at the results of its survey. When survey participants were asked about their reasons for pursuing innovation in their own organizations, their top reason was the need to respond to customer demands. In fact, when looking at the importance that respondents attached to this customer demand via the Likert-type scale used in this survey question, it‘s clear that customer demands will become even more important over the next decade. Service innovation can improve predictability of sales and cash flow for industries like hotel

sectors which suffer from cyclical variations, e.g. seasonality. In addition, many product categories are becoming more saturated with tough competitors competing for market share, this lowers profitability. Global supply chains, with their increased purchasing power, are also forcing lower prices, and meeting these demands by improving productivity has nearly run its course. Innovation can result in increased customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Endogenous Barriers to Innovation

In Loewe (2004), a survey of innovation practices of more than 550 large companies found out that an overwhelming majority of respondents in every industry rated innovation as critical and said that the importance of innovation would grow in future. However, most respondents were critical of their companies' innovation effectiveness – for example, only 19% said their companies walked the talk on innovation, and a majority rated their company's innovation effectiveness below average. The top six obstacles to innovation identified by respondents were consistent across industries. They included short-term focus; inadequate time, resources or staff; leadership expecting payoff sooner than is realistic; management incentives not structured to reward innovation, lack of a systematic innovation process; and belief that innovation is inherently risky.

In a specific study of barriers to innovation in Swedish SMEs (Ylinenpää, 1996), two groups of small firms were identified: one group of micro firms revealing low market performance and a low degree of innovation, and another group of small and medium-sized firms revealing a better market performance and a higher degree of innovation. These two groups perceived

barriers to innovation differently: the low-performing or low-innovative group of micro firms generally perceived higher barriers to innovation, and specifically perceived lack of external venture capital as their most significant barrier to innovation.

A complementary picture of barriers to innovation was revealed by case-studies of 30 small manufacturing firms in Ireland, Sweden and Finland (Vesalainen et al., 1997). Addressing both innovations and potential innovations, and specifically focusing on barriers to innovation during different stages of the innovation process in small manufacturing firms, a more developed picture of how small firms perceive barriers to innovation evolved. By using a computer-based text-analysis software package to analyze the results from 30 semi-structured interviews, three main clusters of obstacles were identified as: general conditions for innovations, resourcing of innovative work and competition (marketing factors related to innovations).

The resource-cluster of barriers includes lack of money, time and competencies. Limited in-house resources are a specific feature of small firms. Shortage of resources also relates to competence and personnel factors. The level and range of competencies in a small firm can be expected to have a crucial impact on the firm‘s ability and capability to innovate, both regarding available time and regarding the level of employee‘s capacity to discover new solutions. Besides, inadequate time is moreover often fertilized by an ambition to perform most or all work-tasks in-house, thus contributing to a capacity overload. This common orientation towards in-house resources, short-termed and cash-generating jobs, often contributes to form

vicious circles in small manufacturing firms, where financial barriers cause time or capacity barriers that in turn has negative implications for the firm‘s ability to generate more sustainable and long-term revenues (Freel, 2000).

Another area of innovation obstacles is related to a weak management commitment, which does not support innovation culture. Innovation process involves changes in working practices and social organization that challenges established hierarchies and working disciplines. There are occasions when innovations bring about resistance that may threaten the project and even lead to it being abandoned (Smith, 2007). Firms need an ability to innovate continuously; they must have a set of beliefs and understanding. Acceptance of innovation requires commitment from the employees. Both management and employees are essentially agents to causing effective innovation when viewed in connection with change management, as it disrupts established routines and schedules. This is because both the management and the employees are change managers in any organization without which there may be no change at all.

Some organizational cultures like specialization can hamper innovation: the more highly specialized an organization is, the less likely it is to make successful innovations. This is because as the technology and organization of a company become increasingly focused and complex, the patterns of corporate behaviour to increase efficiency, reduce cost, and avoid errors become more and more established (Seth & Ram, 1987). This can be a problem in established firms that want to innovate. Organizational culture and established patterns are difficult to break, and the temptation to market innovations simply because

they are compatible with the current company technologies can be overwhelming.

Houston, Walker, Beth, Hutt, and Reingen (2001) point out that over time, organizational cultures that touch on structures and intra-firm communication patterns develop inertia, making it difficult for the organization to resist all but incremental change (Houston et al., 2001). These forces can become a barrier for successful innovations when the market changes radically due to technological advances and/or rapidly evolving consumer preferences.

Also the firm‘s timing of market entry can be important. An early market entry has several important effects in a technology battle. For instance, it helps to build a larger market share and creates reputation effects (Carpenter & Nakamoto, 1990). However, the study of Christensen et al. (1988) suggest that very early entrants often fail, while somewhat later entrants are more likely to survive. The first product in the market is often too expensive for the mass market and is therefore aimed at the high-end of the market (Suarez, 2004).

The value barrier occurs in two types, the first type is true value for the customer, which is explained in the first part of this section. The second type is the costs that a customer does have to make when he switches from one to another product. Most of the radically new technologies introduced on the market outperform existing technologies on one or two dimensions but initially perform far worse on other dimensions (Bower & Christensen, 1995).

An example of failed innovative products, because there was not enough extra value in comparison to other products, is the various internet firms who charged customers for access to certain types of information or services that are truly valuable for customers. The reason these products/services failed is the availability of other web sources with the same content at no financial cost and very little search cost (Bond & Houston, 2003). So it is very important that the value of the innovation is clear for the potential customer. Without this sense of value on the consumer side of the market, it becomes very hard to successfully introduce a new innovative product. Switching costs are the costs for any single participant in the market when he/she wants to change from one to another product. The existence of switching costs can also have an effect on a firm‘s ability to attract customers and build or retain its installed customer base. Switching costs can have different causes. They can become higher if the market is more interconnected, because the participants in the market are dependent on other players (Chakravorti, 2004).

Customer risks have a great role to play in the failure or success of innovative products. Seth and Ram (1987), distinguish two types of customer risks. The first type of risk, and most obvious, is the economic risk for potential customers. The higher the costs, the higher the perceived economic risk will be. The second type of customer risk is the performance uncertainty. The technology may not be fully tested and tried which could mean that the innovation may not function properly and/or is not reliable (Seth & Ram, 1987).

This risk will become higher when the innovation is totally new (and not proven) to the market and is influenced by other factors such as the degree of dependability of the customers on each other. Lastly, innovations acquire a certain identity at the beginning of the market introduction solely from their origins: product class, industry, and country. If these associations are unfavourable as a result of stereotyped thinking, they create barriers to adoption (Sheth & Ram, 1987). The image of a competitor can also be an entry barrier for the market. The image of a firm or product is difficult to alter. An example of this is Philips, a firm which has changed their company slogan several times to create a better image.

Exogenous Barriers to Innovation

The government, its policies and regulations, is a frequent source of barriers to innovation. Here, we view barriers as a component of a national innovation climate in the country. Government taxation is by many small firms perceived to have negative implications for these firms' willingness and capability to invest in innovations. As demonstrated by Henrekson (1996), most governmental regulations favour large-scale firms by their tax policies, credit policies and labour laws. Lack of government support for small business as compared to those with security, besides an education system that influences people to get a job instead of starting a business, are the other de-motivating factors.

Regulations can take several forms, and most industries are subject to at least one of them. Every business that wants to operate on a regulated market is in most cases obliged to follow these regulations. Seth and Ram (1987) categorized the several

forms of regulation into four types. The first type of regulation is industry self –regulation, which is normally limited to codes of business practice and business ethics as expressed by an industry, trade or professional association. A good example of self-regulation is the codes and rules that exist in the Hotel and Restaurant Act (1972) that influence prices, ratings and general operations. An organization is obliged to follow these codes or else it may not operate on the same market as the other organizations. The second type is government regulation of both company‘s internal operations and its market operations. Government regulators are concerned with product safety, occupational safety, anti-trust violations, and trade practices.

An example is the United States Federal Aviation Administration, which regulates the aviation industry by certifying aircraft, setting maintenance standards, controlling air space, and overseeing the commercial aviation business. Their primary mission is product safety and passenger safety (Seth & Ram, 1987).

Katz (2003) notes that governmental requirements and regulations can also be used to enhance the attractiveness of domestic producers over foreign competitors. The role of governments is not restricted to regulation: for example government purchases of a product in the early stages of the market development around an innovative product may tilt the balance in favour of the firm producing it, and make this product more likely to become successful (Suarez, 2004).

The third type is limited to certain government controlled services, such as water and energy supply. These markets are monopolies, where the fundamental thrust is rate regulation:

prices and products are approved by the government (Seth & Ram, 1987).

The fourth type of regulation relates to patents and trademarks. New technologies or processes can be patented and brand names can be protected by trademarks. The idea of patents and trademarks is that the inventor is protected from imitators who might exploit the innovation and deny the innovator the commercial opportunity. Patents are a major regulatory barrier to firms in especially the chemical and pharmaceutical industry because imitations of a patented product cannot be brought on the market until the patent is expired (Seth & Ram, 1987).

Bureaucracies and formal procedures point to frustration with approval processes, which can be so embedded and cumbersome that they can stifle creativity and flexibility in the workplace. Public sector policies and rules (and how they are interpreted) can be used to block innovative options. For example, concerns about the legal and operational issues with innovative platforms can prevent or delay firms to accessing potential service delivery options. These policies may be related to confidentiality, e.g. intellectual property rights. This can impact on access to information, whereas freeing up information and actively encouraging exchange and collaboration across organizations will promote innovation (Australian Public Service Commission, 2012).

Just as external public pressure can serve as a source and driver of innovation, it can also constitute a barrier. Inherent resistance to change can mean that the innovation process may barely be underway before opposition is expressed and mobilized. Existing stakeholders who feel they have a stake in the current

system may resist change despite its inherent benefits. In some quarters, a suspicion that government-sponsored changes are usually aimed at saving money and cutting services will provoke resistance. In this context, innovation can be perceived as a code for removing something we like. Some issues may be seen as inappropriate for government involvement, or the exploration of an idea may be misinterpreted as a government endorsement of a controversial position. Also, the process may be at fault. The innovation might not have been well explained beforehand or the transition might have been poorly managed, becoming an unwelcome and/or misunderstood surprise. In addition, support for an innovation may be rattled by early problems or setbacks during the implementation phase. In each of these circumstances, negative public or stakeholder reaction can cause an innovation to be scrapped. This is not to say that responding to external feedback is bad—there is always the possibility that the new idea or system may be an inferior solution—but overreaction to limited or poorly informed feedback can stop a new idea dead in its tracks. It can also stifle the desire to innovate by giving support to the perception that good ideas will not be defended from unfair criticism. External reaction needs to be considered and carefully balanced against the strength of the case for innovation. Unless the pressure for innovation is very strong, the risk side highlighted by external criticism often seems weightier than an uncertain innovative outcome (Australian Public Service Commission, 2012).

Public servants are regarded as risk-averse. This is not surprising, given the potential for political and media criticism of the government if programs or policies are seen to fail. It is easier to avoid criticism by not taking risks, particularly as the

consequences of risk-taking in the public sector can be severe and can include political damage to the government, public criticism, possible legal consequences, diminished career prospects, and damage to personal reputation. As well as the obvious risk of failure, a range of other risks may be involved in introducing innovation. They may include the risk that the innovation may render the skills of the staff or service manager of the organization obsolete, the risk that the innovation will cost more than was intended, the risk that the innovation will have unintended consequences, and the risk that the innovation might be successful but that the Public Sector Organization (PSO) could not cope with the subsequent increased level of demand for the service (Australian Public Service Commission, 2012).

According to the Commission, parliamentary formal processes for scrutiny, such as the budgeting process or the reports of the Auditor-General, tend to focus on risks, shortcomings and failures. It is not the vast majority of agency activities being performed successfully that claim attention, but the small minority experiencing problems. A disproportionate focus on those activities can lead to broad claims and perceptions of public sector incompetence and ineptitude. Such exposure to parliamentary and public criticism can act as a powerful disincentive for experiment or risk taking and again emphasizes the need to carefully manage public sector innovation. Legal frameworks also emphasize risk. Legal advice will detail risks, many of which will not have equal weight but must still be considered. Poor legal advice will often set out all possible risks without advising on likelihood, consequences or ways of minimizing the risks. Above all, however, the problem is that

most elected chief executives perceive bureaucratic innovation as very risky. Challengers, legislators, and the media concentrate almost exclusively on failure. Failure is news; it generates controversy, particularly about who was responsible, and can be portrayed as scandalous (Australian Public Service Commission, 2012).

The public sector supports the government of the day by implementing its policies. While this does not prevent organizations from putting forward innovative ideas that may be different from existing government policy, it makes it harder to sell the merits of those ideas. Senior executives and ministers may recognize the value of a proposal, but if it would force the government to withdraw an established policy position- this is much less likely to be accepted. Innovations can also occur at the wrong time in a political cycle and be caught up in a change of priorities. Innovations that feed into the government‘s priorities, particularly those that hold the promise of addressing problems facing the government, will have a good prospect of support. In some instances, an innovative idea will need to wait for the right time and climate to attract the support it may deserve (Australian Public Service Commission, 2012).

According to the Commission, social factors like religion and local traditions discourage consumers from accepting modern foods, clothing, and lifestyles in general. Successful products in one culture can fail in another because they cannot break the tradition barriers. An example is that many people in Catholic countries do not want to use condoms, because this is against the fundamental tenets of the church. Another example in the hospitality sector is the consumption of certain foods which are

deemed as a taboo in some communities. In addition, the resistance of modern medicines in some Asian countries where they have always relied on herbal remedies and other alternative means to treat diseases. Just as with the organizational culture barrier, established patterns or mindsets of customers are hard to influence by a firm.

An innovation is resisted when it requires making changes in the traditions established by the societal culture; the greater the change, the greater the resistance. An example of a tradition barrier is the eating and drinking habits of (groups of) persons. Drinking beer was considered blue collar, and gin and tonic was a sissy drink that no real man would prefer over a shot of whisky. This barrier of tradition is probably the biggest obstacle to product innovation in many developing countries. Perhaps the most common reason for customer resistance to an innovation is that it is not compatible with existing workflows, practices, and/or habits of the user (Seth & Ram, 1987).

Summary

With the intensive discussion on the endogenous and exogenous barriers to innovation, this chapter has brought to light their possible causes. Endogenous innovation barriers arise from the internal business environment. They include inadequate time, resources or staff; leadership expecting payoff sooner than is realistic; management incentives not structured to reward innovation, lack of a systematic innovation process; and belief that innovation is inherently risky. On the other hand, exogenous innovation barriers arise from external business environments and may include bureaucracies and formal

procedures, Government policies and regulations and external procedures just to mention a few.

CHAPTER 3
PROACTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR

Proactive work behaviour is typically described as anticipatory behaviour with the aim to influence either oneself or the work environment (Grant et al., 2009). As proactive work behaviour is related to increased individual and organizational performance, such as overall performance, career-related outcomes, sales, and organizational success (Fay & Frese, 2001), it is beneficial for organizations. Especially in today‘s jobs that are characterized by decentralized management, increased teamwork, and rapid organizational changes including the introduction of innovations and new technologies and increased job stress (Thatcher & Zhu, 2006).

Organizations might achieve a competitive advantage if they were able to motivate their employees to behave in a proactive manner. More specifically, employees need to become more flexible and active and they need to attack occurring problems in a proactive way instead of just fulfilling their jobs and reacting passively to new situations (Parker, 2000). As an example, personal initiative is a form of proactive behaviour that involves going beyond assigned tasks, developing one‘s own goals, and attempting to solve problems that have not yet occurred (Frese & Fay, 2001). Taking charge is also an example of proactive behaviour, referring to active efforts to bring about change on work methods (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Further examples include an individual proactively shaping his/her own work environment as a newcomer (Black, 2006), actively building networks (Morrison, 1999), and persistently

persuading leaders to take notice of important strategic issues (Dutton & Ashford, 2001). All of these behaviours have in common an emphasis on taking control of a situation by looking ahead and initiating change. They are also all behaviours that are partially determined by disposition, and partially influenced by situational forces, such as job design and leadership.

Traditionally, researchers as well as practitioners supposed that employees would rather be passive but faithfully follow instructions of their supervisors. This would be sufficient to grant good performance and organizational success (Frese, 2008). However, due to changes in the work environment, these traditional views have changed towards a more proactive point of view. In the 90s of the 20th century, scientists started to explore proactive work behaviour and related concepts (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Since then, literature in this field has grown immensely and suggested a variety of proactive approaches, ranging from rather stable conceptualizations such as proactive personality to approaches that focus on specific behavioural patterns like personal initiative (Frese et al., 1996); taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and general proactive behaviour at work (Grant et al., 2009; Parker, 2006).

After the initial approach of studying pro-activity in a general way, a flurry of narrowly specified concepts emerged (e.g. individual innovation, issue selling, proactive feedback seeking, career initiative etc). This refers to the extent to which organizations attempt to lead rather than follow competitors in such key business areas as the introduction of new products or services, operating technologies, and administrative techniques.

These features are found at the individual level too. Theorists in organizational behaviour have stressed various employee behaviours related to pro-activity, resulting in a range of behaviours which are to some extent similar, but in other respects slightly different from individuals' behaviours. This discussion will focus on the following types of proactive work behaviour: personal initiative, taking charge, issue selling and voice.

Personal Initiative (P. I.)

This is a work behaviour defined as self-starting and proactive that overcomes barriers to achieve a goal (Frese & Fay, 2001). One consequence of such an active approach is that the (work) environment is changed. This distinguishes it from passive approaches which are more usual in organizational behaviour studies, and which are characterized by behaviours such as doing what one is told, giving up in the face of difficulties, not developing plans to deal with future difficulties, and passively responding to environmental demands. High personal initiative enables people to deal with job difficulties more actively, for example, with stressors or becoming an entrepreneur (Frese & Fay, 2001).

According to Frese and Fay (2001), personal initiative means to be self-starting, proactive, and persistent. Self-starting implies that a person does something without being told, without getting an explicit instruction, or without requiring an explicit role. An example would be a hotel employee who attempts to fix a broken machine even though this is not part of his or her job description, and also a middle manager who initiates a quality control program, even if he is not supposed to do so. Initiative in

high-level jobs is difficult to define, because high-level managers are often required to show initiative as an external task; yet, personal initiative can still be found when behaviours are proactive and self-starting (Frese & Fay, 2001).

P. I is particularly important in the idea implementation phase of the innovation process. Frese and Day (2001), regard proactive behaviour as a second dimension of personal initiative, clearly demonstrating that their construct is strongly related with pro-activity. Their definition of pro-activity stresses employees' having a long-term focus, not waiting until they must respond to a demand. Such a long-term focus on work enables individuals to consider things to come (new demands, new or reoccurring problems, and emerging opportunities) and to do something proactively about them. Thus, problems and opportunities are anticipated, and the person prepares to deal with them immediately. The third dimension of personal initiative is persistence. Individuals need to overcome barriers in order to reach their self-started and proactive goals. Generally, personal initiative implies that something is changed: A process, procedure or task is added or modified. Changes usually do not work out perfectly from the very beginning; they often involve setbacks and failures. People affected by the changes may not like having to adapt to something new and being forced to abandon their routines (Frese & Day, 2001).

Taking Charge

Morrison and Phelps (1999) introduced the 'taking charge' construct to capture the idea that organizations need employees who are willing to challenge the status quo to bring about constructive change. Taking charge is defined as voluntary and

constructive efforts by individual employees to effect organizationally functional changes with respect to how work is executed within the context of their jobs, work units or organizations. In contrast with confronting behaviours such as whistle blowing and complaining, taking charge is aimed at implementing something positive.

Issue Selling

Issue selling was introduced by Dutton and Ashford (1993) as a construct that indicates if managers strive to influence the strategy formulation process in their organizations. It is defined as a voluntary, discretionary set of behaviours by which organizational members attempt to influence the organizational agenda by getting those above them to pay attention to issues. Managers who want to have a say in the strategies a firm follows can do so via proactive behaviours. Issue selling is voluntary and discretionary, and is presumed to take place early in the decision-making process. Dutton and Ashford (1993) presented a model of the timing, process, and success of issue selling attempts, noting that issue selling behaviours intent to exert upward influence, put down claims and impress others simultaneously.

Voice

Voice is defined as making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). It is a promotional behaviour that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to realize improvements rather than to just criticize how things are done. Voice is particularly important when an organization‘s environment is dynamic and

is faced with new ideas like innovation or continuous improvement.

Van Dyne and LePine (1998) categorize voice as a proactive behaviour as it promotes, encourages or causes things which are not part of the individual‘s daily work role to happen. They note that voice is not always a proactive behaviour as some jobs require voice by default (e.g. auditors and devil‘s advocates). This form of initiative which involves challenging the status quo is viewed as a behaviour which may play an important role in enabling the implementation of creative ideas.

Reluctance to share information, speak up, and provide feedback has the potential to negatively affect employees’ trust, morale and motivation. Also, information and ideas withholding can undermine organizational decision-making, error correction and development and innovation processes (Beer & Eisenstat, 2000). Speaking up is positively acceptable and highly praised from a lot of organizations, especially those involved in major organizational restructuring requiring employees’ input in order to elicit successful organizational change. Employees’ suggestions can be very valuable during these times of change (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003).

Summary

Personal initiative, taking charge, voice and issue selling are the four main work behaviours that are deemed proactive and have been discussed in-depth in this chapter. Intensive literature have been reviewed by the author with the aim of making a greater understanding of what they are, what they entail and what other scholars have said about them. This is important in

understanding the relationship between the innovative barriers discussed earlier in the previous chapter and proactive work behaviour which is the main focus of this book.

CHAPTER 4

PROACTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR AND GENDER DIFFERENCES[1]

Introduction

This chapter is motivated by the need to demystify the conflicting views and the inadequacy of concrete information on gender differences and proactive work behaviour in Kenyan hotel industry. It seeks to establish the difference in proactive work behaviour between the male and female employees working in the Kenyan hotel industry.

Proactive Work Behaviour and Gender Differences

Until today, social science research has shown that gender discrimination is an institutional problem. Without exploring their own biases, managers tend to see men as being more competent at some types of work relative to women, especially when it comes to leadership and management roles. When this is related to issue selling propensity, women feel as if their ideas are not heard at work. Men don't see this because their ideas are always heard, even if not adopted (Zevallos, 2013).

Davidson and Cooper (1988) assert that different role expectations influence the extent to which male and female managers are innovative. The study points out that male employees are facilitated to be innovative while female employees are constrained to be adaptive. According to Lynn,

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Millward and Freeman (2002), there are a number of reasons to believe that this might be the case. The scholars posit that women in management experience greater levels of stress, which in part, is attributed to lack of confidence, particularly in putting their own views across, especially due to fear of ridicule or criticism.

Consequently, women play safe by working within the system, adhering to existing ways of doing things and in this way female employees become more inclined to adaptive rather than innovative behaviours. Lynn, *et al* (2002) outlines another possible reason why women have been thought to be less proactive and innovative than male as the difference in risk-taking propensity. Women generally have been observed to be more risk averse than men.

Since the development and implementation of innovative ideas is usually construed to be risky, male employees have been thought to be more responsive towards risk-taking, consequently innovative. Thus, gender roles may interact with the role of the manager to inhibit (in the case of women) or facilitate (in the case of men) the likelihood of innovative behaviour.

Gender Differences and Employment in the Kenyan Hotel Industry

There is a tendency of hiring more men than women in the Kenyan accommodation and food sector (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics report, 2016). There are many factors that may have led to the occurrence of this phenomenon for instance, odd working hours, working in shifts and the social stigma of working in the hotels curtailing many females from joining the

industry (Taylor, 2002). In Kenya, the hotel industry is still characterized by the manual nature of tasks which tend to be more favourable to male employees than their female counterparts.

Petterson, Kerrin and Gatto-Roissard (2009) recommend that that gender, culture, race, and geography bring immense variation in life experiences, as do employee skill sets. Recruiting and retaining women in scientific and technical fields is seen as a key to success. However, drawing from the Kenyan scenario, there seems to be an acute problem of under-representation of women in business enterprise sector. Despite the robust Kenyan constitution promulgated in 2010 which seeks to achieve equal gender representation in all positions, the Kenyan public and private employment sector is still male dominated. This disparity extends to women in national decision-making category like in the national assemblies.

This problem may be partly embedded into the systemic and selected Kenyan retrogressive cultural practices. For instance, at an early stage of career development, few women are enrolled in schools and eventually institutions of higher learning since some Kenyan cultures view women as care givers who need informal education. This systemic vice constrains women career growth and progression to higher levels of decision making in the society.

Besides, of the few that manage to rise above these entanglements, most often the system denies them a legitimate chance to access professional support and equal opportunities for career advancement. The systemic challenges and the retrogressive cultural practices have resulted to development of

affirmative actions, such as 'the two thirds gender rule' of which have attempted to level the playground. The emergence of the affirmative actions, has brought about newer challenges of its implementation. The Kenyan government is yet to find out the suitable approaches of enforcing the gender rule especially in the appointive positions in the private sector and the public elective positions.

CHAPTER 5

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

To derive the relationships between innovation and proactive work behaviour, the role theory and social cognitive theory as propounded by Katz and Kahn in 1978 and Bandura as reviewed in 2005 respectively are adopted by the book.

Role Theory

Precursors to role theory include studies of labour division, complying with rules, status, social forces, interaction, and various theories of self (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). More recently, Owens and Valesky (2007) stated that role theory has been used extensively by observers and researchers in many kinds of organizations to better understand and predict organizational behaviour.

Biddle and Thomas (1966) and Murillo (2013) state that the origin of this theory dates back to use of scripts memorized by stage actors. Using the stage analogy , they explained role theory as used in today's life as individuals in a society occupy positions, and their role performance in these positions is determined by social norms, demands, and rules; by the role performances of others in their respective positions; by those who observe and react to the performance; and by the individual's particular capabilities and personality. They classify role-play into two: formal roles and informal roles.

Bess and Dee (2008) also explain that there are both benefits and shortcomings to having precise formal roles in organizations. In the context of proactive work behaviour, formal roles can enhance a sense of responsibility by motivating

employees to sell issues and voice their opinions so as to bring about constructive change. This role may manifest for example, when a hotel establishment with a decentralized leadership and management encourages its employees to make suggestions and implement those suggestions from employees as part of the organization's product line.

Murillo (2013) posits that formal roles can be detrimental because they may inhibit flexibility. Strict role definitions can stifle voice and issue selling behaviours. For instance, in a hotel where employees feel as if they cannot make a move or a decision without prior approval from the managers in the organization, an oppressive environment is created where employees dare not challenge the status quo. Clear role definitions without rigidity are necessary within any organization.

Under the assumptions of role theory - specifically self-role definition - some organizations are as successful as the leaders the business has to motivate to lead others. Role theory as it relates to organizational leadership is how the leaders (management) and followers (employees) in an organization define their own roles, define the roles of others, act in their roles and expect others to act in their roles within the organization. Leaders often define their own roles within an organization based on how the employees see the leader's role.

For instance, a front office employee may have an unsatisfied customer, but rather than making a decision on how to resolve the conflict with the customer, the employee may see this as the role of the manager (or leader). While the employee may take on the role of gathering the information on what the customer's

problem is, the employee leaves the resolution to that of the leader. Because this is the case, the manager sees his role, according to role theory, as if he is to resolve customer problems. Consequently, this habit eventually creates an oppressive organizational culture that does not empower employees to take charge or even challenge the status quo. If the leadership leaves the resolution to the employee, then the employee will understand that part of his roles is to handle customer complaints and resolve them.

According to Eagly and Chin (2010), the potential for prejudice is present when social perceivers hold a stereotype about a social group that is incongruent with the attributes that they believe are within the roles of that social group. This less favourable attitude may result in discriminatory behaviours in role identities. For instance, the influence of role identities has historically affected women negatively in regard to pursuing leadership positions (Murillo, 2013) and other disciplines that relate to science and technology. The negative influence of traditional role identities continues to keep marginalized groups such as women out of disciplines such as leadership, science and technology. This is evident in the hospitality industry where women are less represented in the top levels of management. While this could be attributed to many other factors, partly it can be attributed to the traditional role identity.

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)

The social cognitive theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioural patterns, while also providing the basis for intervention strategies (Bandura, 2005). Evaluating behavioural change depends on such factors as environment,

people and behaviour. SCT provides a framework for designing, implementing and evaluating programs.

Environment refers to the factors that can affect a person's behaviour. Social environment include family members, friends and colleagues. Physical environment is the size of a room, the ambient temperature or the availability of certain foods, machines and tools. Environment and situation provide the framework for understanding behaviour. The situation refers to the cognitive or mental representations of the environment that may affect a person's behaviour. The situation is a person's perception of time, physical features and activity (Glanz, Rimer & Lewis, 2002). According to the authors, environment, people and behaviour constantly influence each other. Behaviour is not simply the result of the environment and the person, just as the environment is not simply the result of the person and behaviour. The environment provides models for behaviour. For instance the organizational culture may influence the employee behaviour; employees may become passive to the culture of playing by rules which could curtail proactive behaviour.

Observational learning occurs when a person watches the actions of another person and the reinforcements that the person receives (Bandura, 2005). The concept of behaviour can be viewed in many ways. Behavioural capability means that if a person is to perform a behaviour, he must know what the behaviour is and have the skills to perform it. This can imply that proactive behaviour can thrive at a work place; but this requires employees to be ready to learn and adopt. Learning may be done either formally during trainings or informally through daily experiences. Besides, this ability can be promoted

or hampered by both social factors like the level of friendliness of colleagues and physical environmental factors like available resources and time. Adoption of proactive work behaviour will also be influenced by expectations from both the employees and the management. Likewise, proactive work behaviour could also be determined by the expectations (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Expectancies (the values placed on a given outcome, incentives) may promote or hamper learning, for instance; in a situation where the organization has incorporated proactive work behaviour in its performance appraisal process, employees will strive to adopt this behaviour. Both positive and negative reinforcement may boost employee's self-control and self-efficacy in learning and adopting the desired behaviour.

However, the reoccurrence of the learned behaviour may be determined by the dynamic interactions and the environment in which the behaviour is performed; with a consideration of multiple avenues to behavioural change, including environmental, skill, and personal change. For instance, as the employee scales up the ladder of ranks from supervisor to top level management, the scope of learning will change and as expected, the employee may become more proactive. From the theories, it is reasonable to assume that there is an existing relationship between innovation and proactive work behaviour and this relationship may affect the performance relating to group and organization.

CHAPTER 6

STUDY OF SELECTED HOSPITALITY ESTABLISHMENTS IN NAIROBI CITY

Proactive work behaviour and innovation in hotels may bring about positive changes in work environment that may include improved quality products, increased efficiency, a cut on costs and a greater market share. Despite these benefits, hotels struggle to be proactive and innovative; but fail because of challenges brought about in particular by innovation barriers including governmental constraints, lack of competences, time and risks of failure. These innovation barriers may lessen employees' personal initiative, ability to take charge, sell their issues and voice their views in the organization.

In order to survive, organizations need people who are responsive to the challenges of the environment, are not afraid to share information and knowledge, and can stand up for their own and their team beliefs. Proactive behaviours are related to increased individual and organizational performance, such as overall performance, career-related outcomes, sales, and organizational success (Fay & Frese, 2001; Parker et al., 2006).

However, these proactive work behaviours may be restrained by barriers to innovation. For instance management and leadership resisting innovation, beliefs and assumptions that cloud openness to new ideas, associated risks to innovation, policies and procedures, inflexible and rigid organizational structures, a culture of playing by the rules, and lack of competences and time may diminish employees' personal initiative to take charge, sell their issues and have a voice in the organization's new idea

implementation processes. Not only can barriers stifle employee work pro-activity they can also keep the organization as a whole from moving forward by stopping employees from becoming involved in innovation. For these reasons, it is crucial to study the relationships that exist between the highlighted innovation barriers.

Innovation barriers may have an unconstructive relationship with proactive work behaviour and innovative possibilities in the Kenyan hospitality industry and therefore identifying and removing them is vital.

The main objective of undertaking the study was therefore to determine the relationship between innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour in selected hotels located in Nairobi city. Specifically, the study tested the relationship between endogenous and exogenous innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour in the hotel industry. The study also tested the difference in proactive work behaviour between the male and female employees. The study employed a co-relational research design and was conducted in Nairobi city. From a target population of 190 permanent front line employees, 127 formed the sample size for the study. Purposive sampling was used to select three five-star rated hotels in Nairobi (Hilton, Intercontinental and Safari Park Hotel), then employees in the hotels were stratified into primary and support departments, and systematic sampling was used to select the respondents. Primary data was gathered from employees by use of administered questionnaires while secondary data was gathered from relevant books, hotel records, journals, publications and the internet. Reliability of data was tested using Cronbach's

Alpha resulting in a value above 0.7. Factor analysis was used for data reduction while multiple regression was used to analyze relationships between innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour. ANOVA test was conducted to test the differences in proactive work behaviour between male employees and their female counterparts.

The study targeted 127 respondents from the three hospitality establishments i.e. Hilton, Intercontinental and Safari Park Hotel, but 77 managed to fill the questionnaires leaving 50 questionnaires without a response. Therefore the response rate yielded 60.63% which was appropriate to yield reliable results (Fosnacht, Sarraf, Howe & Peck, 2013). The response rate attained could have been attributed to the fact that most of the respondents were literate and understood the questions.

Personal Information of Respondents

Descriptive statistics was used in this study to summarize data relating to the personal information of the respondents, measures of proactive work behaviour and measures of the endogenous and exogenous barriers.

The respondents' profile was generated from the personal information collected through the questionnaires which specifically focused on their age, gender, level of education, marital status, years of experience and the departments in which the employee worked. The outcome from the analysis is as shown in Table 1.

From the table, the descriptive results indicate that majority of the respondents were male 75.3% (n=58) while 24.7% (n=19) were female. From the sample population, 61% (n=47) were

married followed by 27.3% (n= 21) who were single. Those divorced were 10.4% (n=8) while the widowed were 1.3% (n=1).

With regard to age, majority of the respondents belonged to the age group between 28 and 37 years represented by 53.2% (n=41,) followed by an age group of between 38 and 47 years 24.7% (n=19). Age group of between 48 and 57 were 11.7% (n=9) with the least being above 58 years 2.6% (n=2).

Concerning the level of education, majority of the respondents had college level education 64.9% (n=50) followed by a bachelors' degree holders by 27.3 % (n=21). Only 7.8% (n=6) had secondary education as their highest level of education while none had primary education as their highest level of education.

Regarding their departments, those employed in front office department were 33.8%, (n=26), followed very closely by 32.5% (n=25) who were employed in food and beverage department. Those who worked in other (secondary) departments were 18.2% (n=14) and those who worked in housekeeping department were 15.6% (n=12).

Pertaining to their work experience, majority had worked for a period of 1 to 4 years 42.9% (n=33), followed by 5 to 10 years 22.1% (n=17) then closely followed by those over 10 years by 18.2 % (n=14), and finally the minority had worked for less than a year 16.9% (n=13).

Table 1: Personal Information of Hotel Front-Line Employees

Name of the Variable	Indicator	Count	Percent (N %)
	Male	58	75.3
Gender	Female	19	24.7
Marital status	Single	21	27.3
	Married	47	61.0
	Divorced	8	10.4
	Widowed	1	1.3
	18-27	6	7.8
	28-37	41	53.2
Age	38-47	19	24.7
	48-57	9	11.7
	Above 58	2	2.6
	Primary	-	-
Level of Education	Secondary	6	7.8
	College	50	64.9
	University	21	27.3
	Food and	25	32.5
	Beverage	26	33.8
Department	Front Office	12	15.6
	Housekeeping	14	18.2
	Others		
	Less Than a	13	16.9
	Year	33	42.9
Work Experience	1-4 years	17	22.1
	5-10 years	14	18.2
	Over 10 Years	-	-

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Proactive Work Behaviour

The respondents were asked to rate their thoughts concerning a range of statements in relation to proactive work behaviour. To establish the level of agreement, the attributes were measured and analyzed based on the following 5-point Likert scale; **(1)-Strongly Disagree, (2)-Disagree, (3)-Neither, (4)- Agree** and **(5) -Strongly agree;** with point (5) - strongly agree being the highest of them all. The outcome from the analysis is as shown in

the Table 2.

Of the measures rated, a minority of 1.3% strongly disagreed that they handle problems at work place; none disagreed while 2.6% were neutral. Those who agreed were 48.1% with the same margin strongly agreeing. This statistics generated a mean value of 4.42; this mean was slightly beyond the 4-point Likert scale value set for 'Agree'. Thus a majority of the respondents handle problems at their work place.

In reference to problem solving skills, a margin of 1.3% strongly disagreed that they have problem solving skills and none disagreed, 2.6% remained neutral. 50.6% indicated that they agreed, 45.5% strongly agreed. The mean value (4.39) tended towards the 4-point Likert scale 'agree' indicating that majority of the respondents agreed that they solve problems.

From the sample, none strongly disagreed that they perform tasks, 2.6% disagreed and 11.7% were neutral. 42.9% agreed with the same margin representing those who strongly agreed. The mean of 4.26 gave an indication that majority of the respondents agreed that they perform assigned tasks.

When asked whether respondents take initiative even when others do not, a margin of 1.3% strongly disagreed with the same margin disagreeing. 9.1% were neutral on this while a margin of 54.5% agreed, 33.8% strongly agreed. This was with a mean of 4.18; thus majority of the respondents agreed that they take initiative even when others do not.

No respondent strongly disagreed using opportunities to attain goals. Only 3.9% disagreed, while 6.5% were neutral. 62.3% of respondents agreed that they take every available opportunity to attain their goals with a margin of 27.3% strongly agreeing to this. The mean result was 4.13 indicating that a majority of the respondents agreed that they use opportunities to attain goals.

Pertaining to whether respondents discover new ideas at work place, none strongly disagreed. A minority of 1.3% disagreed while 7.8% of the respondents were neutral. A majority of 61% agreed with 29.9% strongly agreeing that they discover new ideas at work place. This gave a mean of 4.19; implying that a majority of the respondents agreed that they discover new ideas at the work place.

In a summary Table 2 shows that employee problem handling skills; performing tasks; taking initiative; using opportunities in order to attain goals and discovering new ideas at the work place are key measures of proactive work behaviour. This conclusion is based on all the means of the measures that lie slightly above 4 (Agree) on the Likert scale.

Table 2: Measures of Proactive Work Behaviour

Item		Count	Percent (N)	Mean
I handle problems at my work place.	Strongly Disagree	1	1.3	4.42
	Disagree	-	-	
	Neutral	2	2.6	
	Agree	37	48.1	
	Strongly Agree	37	48.1	
Whenever something goes wrong, I search for a solution.	Strongly Disagree	1	1.3	4.39
	Disagree	-	-	
	Neutral	2	2.6	
	Agree	39	50.6	
	Strongly Agree	35	45.5	
Whenever there is a chance to perform a task, I take it.	Strongly Disagree	-	-	4.26
	Disagree	2	2.6	
	Neutral	9	11.7	
	Agree	33	42.9	
	Strongly Agree	33	42.9	
I take initiative even when others don't.	Strongly Disagree	1	1.3	4.18
	Disagree	1	1.3	
	Neutral	7	9.1	
	Agree	42	54.5	
	Strongly Agree	26	33.8	
I use opportunities in order to attain my goals.	Strongly Disagree	-	-	4.13
	Disagree	3	3.9	
	Neutral	5	6.5	
	Agree	48	62.3	
	Strongly Agree	21	27.3	
I discover new ideas at work place	Strongly Disagree	-	-	4.19
	Disagree		1.3	
	Neutral		7.8	
	Agree		61	
	Strongly Agree		29.9	

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Endogenous Innovation Barriers

The views of employees were collected on their level of agreement with endogenous indicators which were availability of competencies, adequate employees and finance. The

responses were measured and analyzed based on the following 5 –point Likert scale: **(5)– Strongly Agree;(4)-Agree; (3)– Neither; (2)-Disagree** and **(1)-Strongly Disagree;** with point (5) - Strongly agree being the highest of them all. The results from the analysis were as shown in the Table 3. The study found that 11.7% strongly agreed that the hotel lacked financial capacity to be innovative, 31.2% of the respondents agreed while 16.9% were neutral with the same margin disagreeing. Only 23.4% strongly disagreed. The mean result of the measures (3.09) lied within 3-points on a Likert scale implying that most of the respondents did not know whether the hotel has financial capacity to be innovative.

With regard to availability of adequate employees, a margin of 5.3% strongly agreed that they were not enough while 21.1% agreed. Only 6.6% remained neutral, 35.5% disagreed that they are not enough while 31.6% strongly disagreed hence a mean of 3.67. This mean was fairly within; (4)-Agree and (3)–Neither; implying that most of the respondents were not sure whether they were adequate to be innovative.

When asked whether the hotel lacked sufficient competencies to be innovative, a measure of 9.1% strongly agreed that the hotel lacked sufficient competencies while 31.2% agreed. Only 5.2% were neutral, 31.2% disagreed and 23.4% strongly disagreed. This in general gave a mean of 3.29. With the mean lying within 3-points on a Likert scale, it was concluded that majority of the respondents were not sure whether the hotel had enough competencies to be innovative. In summary, Table 3 shows that inadequate resources like financial capacity, employees and competencies are endogenous innovation barriers that exist in

hotels. However, many employees are not aware whether these resources are adequately provided by hotels. This is shown in Table 3 by mean results of all the measures that lie within 4(Agree) and 3 (Neutral) on the Likert scale.

Table 3: Descriptive Results on Endogenous Innovation Barriers

Item		Count	Percent	Mean
The hotel lacks adequate financial capacity to be innovative	strongly agree	9	11.7	3.09
	agree	24	31.2	
	neutral	13	16.9	
	disagree	13	16.9	
	strongly disagree	18	23.4	
The hotel lacks enough employees to be innovative	strongly agree	4	5.3	3.67
	agree	16	21.1	
	neutral	5	6.6	
	disagree	27	35.5	
	strongly disagree	24	31.6	
The hotel lacks sufficient competencies to be innovative	strongly agree	7	9.1	3.29
	agree	24	31.2	
	neutral	4	5.2	
	disagree	24	31.2	
	strongly disagree	18	23.4	

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Exogenous Innovation Barriers

To evaluate the views of the respondents on the extent to which employees agreed with the statements on exogenous innovation barriers, which were government support and government regulations; the following 5 – point Likert scale was used; **(1) - Strongly Agree (2)-Agree (3) - Neither (4) Disagree (5) Strongly Disagree;** with point (1) - Strongly agree being the highest of them all. A summary of the results from the analysis were as shown in the Table 4.

The study established that 22.1% strongly agreed that the government does not give enough innovative support to the hotel with 28.6% agreeing. 7.8% were neutral, 27.3% disagreed to this view while 14.3% strongly disagreed. In summary, the statistics gave a mean of 2.83 that was fairly within (2)–Agree; implying that most of the respondents agreed that the government does not give enough support to the hotels so as to be innovative.

Concerning governmental regulations on innovation for instance; industry self-regulation codes e.g. Hotel and Restaurant Act (1972) that influence prices, ratings and general operations a majority of 19.5% strongly agreed that they are barriers and that they do not offer support to hotel innovativeness 28.6% agreed with only 14.3% being neutral. Those who disagreed were 19.5% while 18.2% strongly disagreed, hence a mean result of 2.88 that slightly fall within (2) – Agree; implying that most of the respondents agreed that hotels face stringent governmental regulations on innovation.

In a summary Table 4 shows lack of government support and regulations are exogenous innovation barriers that exist in hotels. This conclusion is based on the mean results of all the measures that are within 2 (Agree) on the Likert scale pointers.

Table 4: Descriptive Results on Exogenous Innovation Barriers

Item		Count	Percent	Mean	Std. dev
The government does not offer enough innovative support to the hotel	strongly agree	17	22.1	2.83	1.418
	agree	22	28.6		
	neutral	6	7.8		
	disagree	21	27.3		
	strongly disagree	11	14.3		
The hotel faces governmental stringent regulations on innovation.	strongly agree	15	19.5	2.88	1.414
	agree	22	28.6		
	neutral	11	14.3		
	disagree	15	19.5		
	strongly disagree	14	18.2		

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Reliability Tests

All reliability tests were captured through statements on a 5-point Likert scale. The reliability test results in Table 5 showed that Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the endogenous barriers and exogenous barriers were 0.792 and 0.703 respectively, hence a good internal consistency of the factors used to measure. Regarding proactive work behaviour, the results showed that Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.804. Generally the entire variables used in the study had acceptable internal consistency as indicated by the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.810. This value is much above the minimum value of 0.7 considered acceptable (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006).

Table 5: Reliability Results

Reliability Statistics	No of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on standardized items
Endogenous innovation barriers (X1)	10	0.792	0.792
Exogenous innovation barriers (X2)	8	0.703	0.701
Proactive Work Behaviour (Y)	23	0.804	0.794
All variables (X1), (X2) and (Y)	41	0.810	0.802

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was carried out for each of the variables to reduce the number of items on each of the variables for ease of presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion of the most significant factors.

Proactive Work Behaviour

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.610 as shown in Table 6. Kaiser (1974) recommends that values greater than 0.5 are acceptable. This therefore implies that the sample size was adequate to yield results. Bartlett's test of *sphericity* was done to test whether the correlation matrix was an identity matrix, which would indicate that the factor model was inappropriate. For this data, Bartlett's test was highly significant ($p < 0.001$), implying that factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 6: KMO and Bartlett's Test of Proactive Work Behaviour

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.610
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	519.781
	Df	253
	Sig.	.000

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

The total variance explained in Table 7 presents the number of common factors compounded, the Eigen values associated with these factors, the percentage of total variance accounted for by each factor and the accumulative percentage of the total variance accounted for by the factors. Although twenty three factors were computed, not all the factors were useful in representing the list of variables. Using the criterion of retaining only factors with reasonable percentages of variance Eigen values, the first 6 factors were retained for rotation. As indicated in Table 7 the first component accounted for 19.952% of variance and was designated voice while the second component had 10.821% variance and was designated personal initiative. Component 3 accounted for 8.031% variance and was labelled result-oriented while the fourth had a variance of 6.544% and was named creative behaviour. The fifth component had a variance of 6.037% and was designated adaptive and the last had 5.643% and was labelled inventive.

These 6 factors accounted for a total cumulative variance of 57.028% and thus, they were adequate to represent the data.

Table 7: Total Variance of Proactive Work Behaviour Explained

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1.Voice	4.589	19.952	19.952	4.589	19.952	19.952	2.657	11.551	11.551
2.Personal initiatives	2.489	10.821	30.773	2.489	10.821	30.773	2.496	10.851	22.402
3.Result-oriented	1.847	8.031	38.804	1.847	8.031	38.804	2.237	9.726	32.127
4.Creativity	1.505	6.544	45.349	1.505	6.544	45.349	2.206	9.589	41.717
5.Adaptive	1.388	6.037	51.385	1.388	6.037	51.385	1.965	8.542	50.259
6. Invention	1.298	5.643	57.028	1.298	5.643	57.028	1.557	6.770	57.028

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Table 8 shows the rotated component matrix that presents 6 factors of proactive work behaviour after Varimax rotation. The clustering of the items in each factor and their wording offer the best clue as to the meaning of the factors. The 6 components explain a total of variables grouped into each of the 6 principal components (factors). The interactions converged in 14 iterations. The components were rotated using Varimax Criterion to reduce the multi-co-linearity and hence account for 100% of the variance.

Table 8: Rotated Component Matrix (a) of Proactive Work Behaviour

Rotated Component Matrix[a]	Component					
	Voice	Initiative taking	Result-oriented	Creative	Adaptive	Inventive
Handle problems			.620			
Implement solutions			.555			
Improve efficiency			.510			
Impress seniors			.584			
I search for solutions whenever something goes wrong						
Perform tasks						
Take personal initiative		.683				
Implement ideas		.625				
Influence my seniors		.591				
Sell my ideas		.650				
Utilize opportunities to achieve goals						.650
Discover new ideas						.795
Make suggestions						
Discover new ideas						
Adopt work procedures					.755	
Keep informed of current issues					.551	
Improve work procedures						
Find new work methods				.655		
Change counter- productive policies				.512		
Speak up in groups				.668		
Make recommendations	.839					
Encourage other employees	.808					
Communicate my opinions	.767					

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 14 iterations.

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Endogenous Innovation Barriers

The KMO measure of sampling accuracy indicates a KMO=0.788 which is above the minimum 0.5. This implies the sample size was adequate for the variables entered into analysis. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity that was used to test the adequacy of the correlation matrix yielded a value of 246.193 and an associated level of significance smaller than 0.001, therefore the findings

implies that the factor analysis was appropriate for the study.

Table 9: KMO and Bartlett's Test of Endogenous Innovation Barriers

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.788
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	246.193
	Df	45
	Sig.	.000

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

The total variance results of endogenous innovation barriers factors indicates that of the 10 factors computed; only 2 were useful in representing the list of variables. Using the criterion of retaining only factors with Eigen values of 1 or greater, the first 2 factors were retained for rotation. Component 1 accounted for 37.421% of variance and was designated organizational technicalities while the second component accounted for 17.262% of variance and was designated resource inadequacies. These retained factors accounted for a total cumulative variance of 54.684 %, thus, adequate to represent the data.

Table 10: Total Variance of Endogenous Innovation Barriers Explained

Total Variance Explained									
Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Organisational technicalities	3.742	37.421	37.421	3.742	37.421	37.421	3.528	35.278	35.278
Resource Inadequacies	1.726	17.262	54.684	1.726	17.262	54.684	1.941	19.405	54.684
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Table 11 shows rotated component matrix that presents 2 factors used to measure endogenous innovation barriers after Varimax rotation. The clustering of the items in each factor and

their wording offer the best clue as to the meaning of the factors. The 2 components explain a total of variables grouped into each of the 2 principal components. The interactions converged in 5 iterations. The components were rotated using Varimax Criterion to reduce the multi-co-linearity and hence account for 100% of the variance.

Table 11: Rotated Component Matrix (a) of Endogenous Innovation Barriers

Rotated Component Matrix[a]		
	Component	
	Organisational technicalities	Resource inadequacies
Poor timing of market entry for innovative products	.802	
Focus on daily work tasks that generate short term revenues	.761	
Organizational constraints e.g. too much management control	.747	
Inadequate management support	.736	
Public pressures from internal stakeholders who resist change	.665	
Low value of innovative products.	.663	
Customers perceive innovative products as risky	.490	
Insufficient competencies to innovate		.835
Insufficient employees to be innovative		.834
Inadequate financial support to be innovative		.592
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Exogenous Innovation Barriers

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.721, which is above a recommended acceptable value of 0.5. Therefore the sample size was adequate. Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that the factor model was inappropriate because it was significant ($p < 0.001$), implying that factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 12: KMO and Bartlett's Test of Exogenous Innovation Barriers

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.721
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	92.748
	Df	28
	Sig.	.000

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Although 8 factors were computed for exogenous innovation barriers, not all the factors were useful in representing the list of variables. Using the criterion of retaining only factors with reasonable percentages of variance Eigen values, the first 3 factors were retained for rotation. These 3 factors accounted for 33.055%, 14.138% and 13.711% of the total variance respectively. These factors were designated social, economic, governmental and attitudinal barriers respectively. This gave a cumulative percentage of 60.904% of the total variance attributed to the three factors. Thus, a model with three factors was adequate to represent the data.

Table 13: Total Variance of Exogenous Innovation Barriers Explained

Total Variance Explained									
Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1.Socio economic	2.644	33.055	33.055	2.644	33.055	33.055	2.079	25.992	25.992
2. Governmental	1.131	14.138	47.193	1.131	14.138	47.193	1.659	20.739	46.731
3 Attitudinal	1.097	13.711	60.904	1.097	13.711	60.904	1.134	14.173	60.904
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Table 14 shows the rotated component matrix that presents 3 factors after Varimax rotation. These three components explain a total of variables grouped into each of the two principal components namely: government support, government regulations and attitudinal barriers respectively. The interactions converged in 5 iterations. The components were rotated using Varimax Criterion to reduce the multi-co-linearity and hence account for 100% of the variance.

Table 14: Rotated Component Matrix (a) of Exogenous Innovation Barriers

Rotated Component Matrix[a]			
	Component		
	Socio-economic constraints	Governmental regulations	Attitudinal barriers
Innovation occurs at wrong time which changes priorities	.773		
External stakeholders resist change	.745		
Some social factors discourage the use of new products	.652		
Government does not offer enough innovative support		.767	
Governmental stringent regulations on innovation		.836	
Focuses on the risks of failure of the new products			.823
Governmental bureaucracies on innovative products			.602
Governmental procedures e.g. In registration of new products			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.			
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.			

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Inferential Statistics

This study employed both multiple regressions and ANOVA analysis. Multiple regression analysis was used to test the relationship between a dependent variable (Y) and independent

variable (X) while ANOVA-one way analysis was carried out to determine the extent to which proactive work behaviour differs between the male and female employees.

To analyze the relationship between innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour two multiple regression equations were estimated for the dependent variable against each of the independent variables. Proactive work behaviour which was the dependent variable was denoted as Y and was made up of six behaviour indicators that were designated; communication, taking initiative, result-oriented, creativity, adaptive and invention behaviours. These indicators were summed up and averaged to obtain proactive work behaviour.

The independent variables for the study were: endogenous innovation barriers (X1), and exogenous innovation barriers (X2). Each of these independent variables was made up of sub-variables which were averaged autonomously to derive the main independent variables. To derive (X_1) endogenous innovation barriers, the sub-variables averaged were organizational technicalities and resource inadequacies. Pertaining to (X_2) exogenous innovation barriers, three components that were designated; socio-economic constraints, governmental regulations and governmental policies were averaged.

Proactive Work Behaviour and Endogenous Innovation Barriers

A regression analysis of Y (proactive work behaviour) against X1; (endogenous innovation barriers) and X2; (exogenous innovation barriers) was done and the regression model was as follows:

$Yi = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \mu$

$Yi = 4.610 - 0.243X_1 + 0.166X2 + \mu$

Where Yi = Proactive work behaviour

X_1 = endogenous innovation barriers,

X_2= exogenous innovation barriers.

β0= Constant term.

β1 and β2, = Coefficients of the Regression

μ = Error term.

The beta (β) values coefficients for the model indicates the level of contribution of the individual variable to model. The beta values indicate the extent the values of the dependent variable changes when the independent variable was to increase by a factor of one when the other variables were held at a constant.

From the model, it is clear that there exist a negative relationship between Yi (proactive work behaviour) and endogenous innovation barriers (X_1), based on the negative coefficient of the variable β - 0.243. From these results, it is clear that there exist a negative relationship between Yi (proactive work behaviour) and endogenous innovation barriers (X1), based on the negative coefficient of the variable -0.243. This shows that when endogenous innovation barriers are reduced by one unit percentage, proactive work behaviour improves by 24.3%. It follows then that reduction in endogenous innovation barriers improves proactive work behaviour barriers.

As concerns the relationship between Y_i (proactive work behaviour) and exogenous innovation barriers (X_2), there exists a positive correlation as indicated by coefficient of the variable β 0.166. From these results, it is clear that there exist a positive

relationship between Yi (proactive work behaviour) and endogenous innovation barriers (X1). This is based on the positive coefficient of the variable 0.166. This shows that when exogenous innovation barriers increase by one unit percentage, proactive work behaviour improves by 16.6%. It follows then that increase in exogenous innovation barriers motivates proactive work behaviour barriers.

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is by definition the proportion of total variation in the dependent variable (Y) explained by the regression of Y on X (Koutsoyiannis & Foufoula-Georgiou, 1993). R^2 was found to be 0.306. Thus, we can deduce that the regression of Y_i on X_1 and X_2, explains 30.6% of the variations in the dependent variable. This means that proactive work behaviour was explained by 30.6% of endogenous innovation barriers and endogenous innovation barriers.

At the same time, the data yielded a Durbin-Watson value of 2.112. This means that there was correlation amongst the variables that were brought out in the study.

Table 15: Model Summary of Y_i on X_1 and X_2

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.553[a]	.306	.287	.412	.306	16.320	2	74	.000	2.112

a. Predictors: (Constant), X_2, X_1
b. Dependent Variable: Y_i

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Table 16: Coefficients (Y_i against X_1 and X_2)

Coefficients[a]

Model		Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.610	.248		18.574	.000	4.116	5.105					
	X1	-.243	.048	-.495	-5.036	.000	-.340	-.147	-.437	-.505	-.488	.972	1.029
	X2	.166	.047	.344	3.503	.001	.072	.261	.261	.377	.339	.972	1.029

a. Dependent Variable:Y_i

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

ANOVA

The samples were randomly selected. As shown in the Table 1, the sample of male employees had a mean of 4.26 while the female samples mean was 4.42. The 95% confidence interval for the mean ranged between a total of 4.19 and 4.41 for the lower and upper bound respectively. The standard error difference of the sample stood at 0.56.

Table 17: Descriptive Results of ANOVA

Descriptives								
Proactive Work Behaviour (Y)								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Male	58	4.26	.480	.063	4.13	4.38	3	5
Female	19	4.42	.507	.116	4.18	4.67	4	5
Total	77	4.30	.488	.056	4.19	4.41	3	5

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

ANOVA test was conducted to explore the difference in proactive work behaviour between male and female gender.

As indicated from Table 18, the ANOVA results indicated a p value > 0.05 hence the assumption that samples variances were equal. The mean difference between groups (0.378) resulted in no significant difference F (1, 75) =1.595; p> 0.05.

Table 18: ANOVA Test

ANOVA					
Proactive work behaviour					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.378	1	.378	1.595	.210
Within Groups	17.752	75	.237		
Total	18.130	76			

Source: Data Analysis (2014)

Summary

This chapter has discussed the endogenous and exogenous innovation barriers in relation to the proactive work behaviours exhibited by the employees in the three five-star rated hospitality establishments in Nairobi. Findings have indicated that there is a strong relationship. Exogenous innovation barriers and gender do not significantly affect proactive work behaviour. However, endogenous innovation barriers were found to stifle proactive work behaviour.

CHAPTER 7

INNOVATION BARRIERS RELATED TO PROACTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR[2]

This chapter presents a discussion of findings of the study carried out in the previous chapter. The main focus of the discussion is Endogenous and Exogenous Innovation Barriers

Endogenous Innovation Barriers

Endogenous innovation barriers (X1) consisted of ten sub-components which were: poor timing of market entry for innovative products, focus on daily work tasks that generate short term revenues, organizational constraints e.g. too much management control, inadequate management support, public pressures from internal stakeholders who resist change, low value of innovative products, customers perception of innovative products as risky, insufficient competencies, insufficient employees and inadequate financial support to be innovative. The ten components were subjected to factor analysis and were statistically reduced to two components which the researcher named organizational technicalities and resource inadequacies. The researcher deducted that endogenous innovation barriers can adequately be represented by the two factors.

The study found out that inadequate resources like financial capacity, employees and competencies are endogenous innovation barriers which exist in hotels. This phenomenon can

[2] This chapter is under review by: Shirandula, Duncan; and Korir, J. (2017). Endogenous Innovation Barriers and Proactive Work Behaviour in Selected Hotels in Nairobi, Kenya. To be published as a research paper.

hamper innovation process especially of highly risky products. According to the knowledge based view, knowledge, skills and abilities of the employees in a company facilitate expertise and innovation in the organization. Without skills, an organization can rarely generate and explore innovative ideas.

When regression analysis was done to find out the relationship between endogenous innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour, it was found out that at 95% confidence level, the t-value was -5.036 and was well above the critical value of $t\alpha=2.96$.

Sampled employees agreed that organizational technicalities like too much management control, public pressures from internal stakeholders who resist change, high perceived risks of innovative products and resource inadequacies like insufficient employee's finances and competencies like relevant job experiences and skills can limit employees' ability to be proactive.

These findings are consistent with Frese and Fray (2001) study which pointed out that if people know that they have resources to deal with a situation, they also know that the outcome is controllable. When few resources are available (control is low), people give up their aspirations.

This can imply that if employees are provided with adequate resources like finances and skilled labour; they are necessary to contribute to innovation proactively; the likelihood that they will actually carry out this behaviour and strive for extraordinary goals increases regardless of the impediments that may be brought about by the external environment.

Therefore endogenous innovation barriers have a significant contribution to proactive work behaviour. The regression results showed a correlation at the level of $p<0.05$.

In summary, this study corresponds to previous other studies that found out that proactive work behaviour may be considered as a personal disposition akin to personality that may be triggered by situational cues like resources and competencies. The situation cues may generate high levels of intrinsic motivation, which, in turn spurs proactive work behaviour (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000; Marisa & Wilmar, 2004; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker, 2000).

Since proactive behaviour is essential during times of uncertainty and change (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007), the researcher was interested in finding out the relationship between exogenous innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour.

Exogenous Innovation Barriers

Exogenous innovation barriers (X_2) consisted of eight sub components which were; government support, government regulations, wrong political timing, social factors, high competition, formal procedures, government bureaucracies and government focus on failure. The eight components were subjected to factor analysis and were statistically reduced to two components which the researcher named socio-economic constraints, and governmental regulations and policies. Results of this study show lack of government support and existence of stringent regulations which may stifle the innovation process.

Regression analysis was done to find out the relationship between endogenous innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour, it was found out that at 95% confidence level, the t-value was 3.503. This figure is above the critical value of $t\alpha=2.96$. The regression results showed a positive correlation at the level of $p<0.05$.

These findings are consistent with Fritz and Sonnentag's (2009) who found a linear positive relationship between situational constraints and proactive behaviour.

However, these results may be contradictory and unexpected since previous studies (Jarvis, 2009) indicated that bureaucracies, formal processes and lack of government support do not breed proactive work behaviour. It may be a dilemma why employees may still engage in extra proactive efforts when being confronted with these stressors at work. Certainly, one might rather think that if employees are confronted with constraints, fulfilling the required tasks should be more demanding since proactive behaviour aims at changing and improving the internal organizational environment (Grant et al., 2009).

External constraint may stimulate proactive behaviour. Constraints like governmental regulations, high competition and customer resistance to new products may point to aspects that need to be improved. The occurrence of these constraints makes it obvious for an employee that it is necessary to take action and bring about change.

In summary the study coincides with Frese and Fay (2001) study which pointed out that a highly proactive personality is

one who is relatively unconstrained by external situational forces but one who effects environmental change. This concept assumes proactive individuals are proactive across multiple contexts and over time, regardless of the contingencies of a situation. Proactive work behaviour is partially determined by situational forces and disposition. However, the most fundamental antecedents to proactive behaviour are not situational (exogenous) but personal motivations (endogenous).

Proactive Work Behaviour between Male and Female Employees

The researcher conducted a factor analysis on twenty three components of proactive work behavior and the variables in the study were reduced to six behaviour factors namely voice, initiative taking, result-oriented, creative, adaptive and inventive. These indicators were summed up and averaged. Upon subjection to regression ANOVA analysis, results indicated a p value > 0.05, hence the assumption that samples variances were equal. The mean difference between groups was 0.378 resulting in no significant difference $F(1, 75) = 1.595$; $p > 0.05$.

Therefore, there is no difference in proactive work behaviour between the male and female employees. This implies that no specific gender is associated with proactive work behaviour. These finding corresponds to Griffin's et al., (2007) study which pointed out that there is no relationship between gender and proactive work behaviour.

Since no specific gender is associated with proactive work behaviour, this study asserts that it is vital to embrace gender diversity at workplace in order to expand the search base for

proactive work behaviour. These findings are also consistent with Inger and Jennie (2011) study whose findings stated that enterprises with a balanced workforce (50-60% of same gender) are almost twice as likely to bring about change in their work environment compared to those with the most segregated workforce (90-100% of same gender).

A balanced gender distribution may have a strong effect on the likelihood to innovate. Employee diversity is often considered positive since it might create a broader search base for proactive and innovative behaviour and make the firm more creative and more open towards new ideas.

Latent Variables

Factor analysis is often used in data reduction to identify a small number of factors that explain most of the variance observed in a much larger number of manifest variables (DeCoster, 1998). Factor analyses are performed by examining the pattern of correlations (or co-variances) between the observed measures. Measures that are highly correlated (either positively or negatively) are likely influenced by the same factors, while those that are relatively uncorrelated are likely influenced by different factors.

Although twenty three factors of dependent variables (proactive work behaviour) were computed, six factors were adequate to represent the data. The resultant components explain a total of the twenty three variables grouped into each of the principal components (factors). The principal components were designated as voice behaviour; taking initiative; result-oriented; creativity; adaptive and inventive behaviours.

Voice behaviour includes speaking up ideas and influencing other employees especially seniors to take up those ideas. Besides, it includes encouraging other employees to speak up their opinions. Taking initiative entails behaviours like taking personal initiative to perform tasks even without explicit instructions. It endeavours persistent selling of ideas to seniors to implement them so as to bring about the desired change. A result oriented personality endeavours to handle problems and find impressive solutions to those problems. Creative behaviour entails developing new methods of achieving the best results and standing up for the creative ideas that can change counter-productive methods. Adaptive behaviour seeks to adapt these creative ideas and bring about constructive change. Lastly inventive behaviour is concerned with discovering 'new to the world' ideas and implementing them. This can be achieved through seizing every opportunity and utilizing it to invent solutions.

Concerning independent variable, ten endogenous innovation barriers were computed; but only 2 principal components were useful in representing the list of variables. The principal components were denoted as organizational technicalities and resource inadequacies. Organizational technicalities include barriers like poor research and development for the innovative products; too much focus on daily work tasks that generate short term revenues; practising too much management control; inadequate management support; internal stakeholders like customers and suppliers resisting change; low perceived value of innovative products and customers perceiving innovative products as risky. On the other hand, insufficient resources like

employees, finances and competencies may curtail innovation process.

The Resultant Conceptual Framework

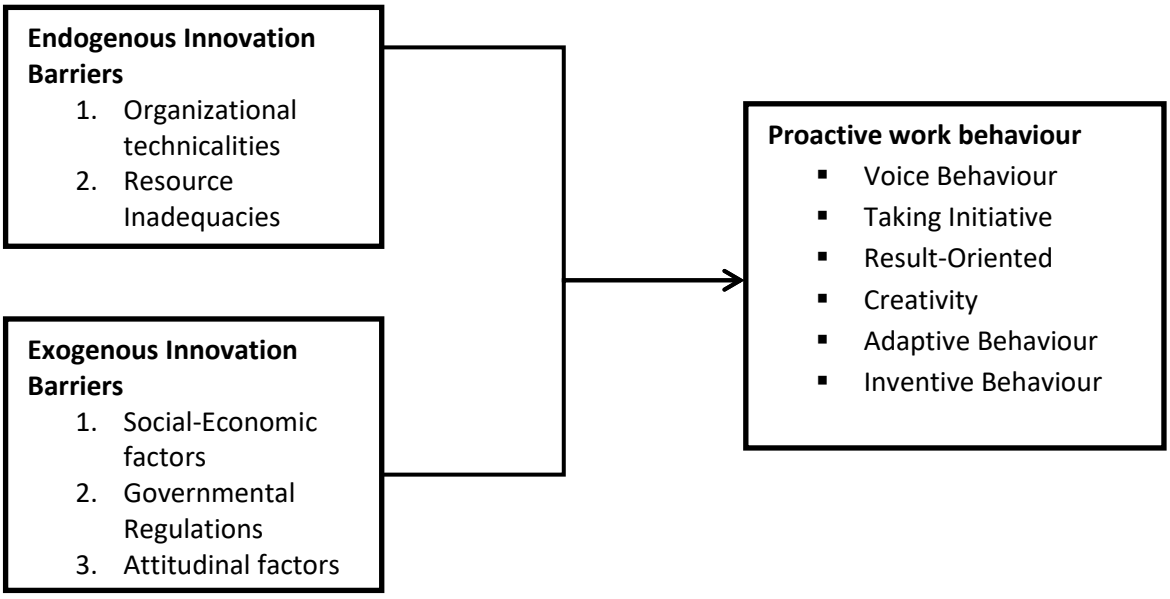

Figure 1: The Resultant Conceptual Framework

Summary

To summarize, it is clear that endogenous innovation barriers have a significant contribution to proactive work behaviour. For exogenous innovation barriers 8 factors were computed but 3 principal components were retained and were designated social-economic, governmental regulations and policy barriers respectively. Social economic barriers include factors like wrong timing for innovation process; negative attitudes towards innovation like too much emphasis on the risks of failure of the new products; and external stakeholders resisting change and social factors like cultures and beliefs which discourage the use of new products. Stringent governmental regulations and policies of licensing, product registration and taxation may also stifle the innovation process. Lastly, embedded bureaucracies are unhealthy for innovative process.

CHAPTER 8
CONCLUSION AND WAY FORWARD

Conclusion

There exists unconstructive relationship between innovation barriers and proactive work behaviour in the Kenyan hospitality industry. Exogenous innovation barriers and gender do not significantly affect proactive work behaviour. However, endogenous innovation barriers may stifle proactive work behaviour.

Exogenous innovation barriers have a positive relationship with proactive work behaviour. Proactive employees do not become passive of their work environment; rather, they make conscious decisions to succeed in adverse and uncertain conditions. This conclusion was drawn from the fact that majority of the respondents felt that aspects like government support, unfavourable legislations and bureaucracies may trigger an active role to take charge and initiative, voice their opinions and sell issues.

Finally, there is no significant difference in proactive work behaviour between male and female employees. Both genders have an equal ability to take charge, take initiative, voice their opinions and sell issues at the work place and change their work environment. Thus, no specific gender is associated with proactive work behaviour.

Recommendations

Based on the results and findings of the study presented in this book, hospitality organizations should embrace the following recommendations so as to promote proactive work behaviour

and enhance innovativeness in the work environment.

Job Resources

Endeavour to eliminate all innovation barriers to promote proactive work behaviour through provision of necessary job resources. Job resources creates a greater job autonomy that might make one feel more receptive to change because one feels less threatened by change if one has some influence over it; job resources may trigger the confidence to explore innovations deemed to be risky. Besides, an organization which allocates adequate resources like finances to its R&D activities indicates a high level of its commitment towards innovation. Such an organization will have a competitive advantage to venture into new markets; timely launch new products; and beat competition by creating a high barrier of entry. Besides, an organization can only increase their innovative capacity by widening their employee search base for proactive work behaviour.

Integrate Strategy

Innovation and proactive changes pursued merely for the sake of change are more likely to be counterproductive than those that are assessed realistically against the company's mission and purpose, so they should be aligned to a strategic perspective. Enhancing the proactive work and innovation behaviour of employees will require an integrated strategy, incorporating elements of recruitment, selection, training, task and work redesign, organizational culture management, human resource systems and organizational redesign.

Managers who want to inspire proactive behaviour will highlight its importance in the context of the broad organizational mission and agenda. The goal should be to have people throughout the

firm committed to the strategic agenda and believing that proactive behaviour is an essential ingredient of success. Managers can take action consistent with their words, granting some freedom within the broader strategic parameters, and not punishing well-intended proactive efforts that don't work out. They will be proactive themselves, modelling the way for others.

Gender Diversity

It is important to embrace gender diversity at workplace since it can create a broader search base and make the organization more creative and more open towards new ideas. Equal participation of men and women is essential in exploiting the full potential of innovative strengths. However, while both genders are equally innovative, their gender role within the context of an organization can affect how they are perceived and how they behave when innovating and sharing ideas. For instance, men are perceived as risk-taking, and women are perceived as more adaptive and risk-adverse. "Thus, gender roles may interact with the role of the manager to inhibit (in the case of women) or facilitate (in the case of men) the likelihood of innovative behaviour."

A consideration of this factor in job design and specification may promote innovation behaviour between these genders; for instance, both working in pairs may do a better job of expressing jointly-developed new ideas that may help overcome risks that women may be feeling. Workshop processes that pair men and women up to take advantage of this can be more fruitful.

Besides, the Kenyan government has a major role to play in mainstreaming gender parity in private and public bodies. The government may achieve workforce gender diversity through

strengthening the coordination between the tourism regulatory authority and the industry. Strong coordination may inform national policy formulation which promotes workforce diversity in sectorial employment. To enhance implementation of such policies, the regulatory authority incorporate gender parity criterion in the grading of hospitality facilities.

Incorporate PWB into Performance Review Systems

To maintain people's motivation to work in proactive mode, such behaviour can be incorporated into performance review systems. Bonuses, promotions, and special awards can be based on this criterion. Two key issues in motivating proactive behaviour entail how managers handle people's ideas and mistakes. When people propose ideas of uncertain merit, managers have response options of greatly varying impact. They can squash the ideas (and the people) on the spot, or they can ask questions to explore possibilities. Similarly, how managers respond to mistakes and failures will motivate-or fail to motivate-new initiatives. The blame culture, of course, discourages proactive efforts, while the learning culture encourages them.

Reduce Risks

The politics of change is complex, and worthy of in-depth study. Effective proactive behaviour requires adequate attention to politics. For instance, the proactive individual, or unit, can be viewed by others as being driven by personal ambition more than by a desire to benefit the firm. Therefore, it is prudent to assess whether to pursue a new initiative or not. It is important to evaluate whether the idea will create (powerful) enemies; what the costs of failure will be and which ideas have a high (or

low) probability of success. Part of the reckoning here includes an assessment of people's reputation, power, and skills as they attempt to implement their ideas. Effective proactive change requires operating with independence but also with the firm's best interests in mind. Tackle proactive initiatives that do not merely improve your own productivity in your own job, but that which benefit others-the more the better. In deciding which initiatives to pursue, think from a system perspective: Which actions will provide benefits to the highest level, with the broadest leverage, and for the greatest numbers of people.

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