The impact of motivational and cultural factors on employee turnover intention and service-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour in the New Zealand hospitality industry

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Attestation of authorship

"I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no previous published contents from other academic writers. No material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of high learning."

Signed by Minghao Zheng

Abstract

The hospitality industry is recognised as an important contributor to the New Zealand economy. The hospitality industry contributes \$22.7 billion of New Zealand's total GDP. Additionally, the hospitality industry provides significant job opportunities in New Zealand. This suggests that the New Zealand hospitality industry plays a prominent role in New Zealand's economic wellbeing. However, the New Zealand hospitality industry has a high level of employee turnover. This could decrease the competitiveness of the New Zealand hospitality industry with negative consequences for New Zealand's economic wellbeing.

To understand the impact of motivating factors on front-line employees' turnover intentions and service-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour along with the potential moderating effects of power distance as a cultural dimension, this study conducted a quantitative online survey of 203 hospitality employees from Auckland, New Zealand.

Findings revealed that employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have more significant impacts on employee turnover intention and employees' perceptions of motivating factors have significant impacts on employees' exhibitions of SOCB. The moderating role of power distance in the impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention was significantly positive. The moderating role of power distance on the impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB was significantly negative.

This study provides several theoretical and practical implications for researchers, and hospitality practitioners, especially with regard to how managers could work to reduce employee turnover and encourage more SOCB.

Chapter 1:Introduction

1.1 Background to the study

The hospitality industry is recognised as an important contributor to the New Zealand economy. According to the New Zealand Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment (MBIE) (2017), the hospitality industry contributes \$22.7 billion (or 9.9%) of New Zealand's total GDP. The revenue of hospitality industry in 2016 was up 7.2% from 2015 (Williamson, 2017). According to Tourism Industry Association New Zealand (TIA) (2014), the tourism industry surpassed the dairy industry as biggest export earner in New Zealand. To be specific, the New Zealand hospitality industry earned \$11.8 billion dollars in terms of the export earnings in 2015 (TIA, 2014). Additionally, the hospitality industry provides significant job opportunities in New Zealand. The primary employer in the hospitality industry is food and beverage sector. According to TIA (2014), the food and beverage sector provided more than 22,000 job opportunities in 2014. This suggests that the New Zealand hospitality industry plays a prominent role in New Zealand's economic wellbeing.

However, the New Zealand hospitality industry has a high level of employee turnover (TIA, 2014). According to TIA (2014), the turnover rates of the New Zealand hospitality industry were as high as 30% in 2014. This is due to the fact that the hospitality industry has been considered as an industry with low wages, poor productivity and poor career pathways (Stuff, 2016b). According to TIA (2014), the New Zealand hospitality industry has been marked as having a "acute labour shortage" industry. As a result of high employee turnover rates, the New Zealand hospitality industry depends on temporary overseas labour (TIA, 2014). High employee turnover rates decrease the competitiveness of the New Zealand hospitality industry, diminishing New Zealand's economic wellbeing. One of the purposes of this study is to adopt both motivating factors and cultural factors in analysing employee turnover intention in the New Zealand hospitality industry.

Additionally, it is important to analyse service-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour (SOCB) to maintain the competitiveness of the New Zealand hospitality industry. SOCB is a type of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). OCB can be defined as employee behaviour that influences the functioning of the organisation in a positive way, but is discretionary rather than required (i.e., not part of the employee's job role), and not directly or explicitly recognised by a formal reward system (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005). SOCB refers to acts of courtesy and enthusiasm displayed by frontline service employees in order to meet customers' needs of OCB (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001). SOCB can bring several benefits to hospitality organisations, such as high-quality service, employee loyalty and customer satisfaction (Ibrahim & Aslinda, 2015).

1.2 Problem statement

As mentioned in section 1.1, the New Zealand hospitality industry plays a prominent role in the New Zealand's economic wellbeing. Moreover, based on the Tourism Industry Association's goals and forecast for 2025, New Zealand could be receiving more than 4.5 million international visitors a year by 2025 (TIA, 2014). TIA also forecasts that the revenue of total tourism industry will be increased to \$41 billion by 2025. Therefore, it is fair to say that the New Zealand hospitality industry is crucial New Zealand's current and future economic wellbeing.

However, a large body of literature suggests that the high level of employee turnover in the New Zealand hospitality industry may be due to industry characteristics, such as low wages, poor working conditions, low social status and irregular shifts (TIA, 2015; The Ministry of Business, Innovation & Employment, 2013). There are several negative consequences of high employee turnover rates, such as labour force shortages, high turnover costs, low productivity and poor customer service (Davidson & Wang, 2011). Moreover, high levels of labour shortage could result in the New Zealand hospitality industry relying significantly on temporary overseas workers (TIA, 2014). As previously stated, these negative consequences could diminish the competitiveness of New Zealand's hospitality industry and decrease New Zealand's economic wellbeing.

Previous research suggests that the employee turnover intention is closely correlated with employees' unmet expectations of motivating factors in their workplace (Berger

& Brownell, 2009). Therefore, this study adopts employee motivating factors as the lens to analyse the employee turnover intention.

Employee loyalty, customer satisfaction and service quality are also important in considering maintaining the competitiveness of New Zealand's hospitality industry, as literature suggests that these three elements are key components for improving the financial performance of the hospitality industry (Chi & Gursoy, 2009). Motivating employees to perform more extra-role behaviours such as SOCB is top priority in order to successfully achieve these three key elements (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001; Liao & Wu, 2016). This is due to the fact that SOCB contains three dimensions (loyalty behaviour, service-delivery behaviour and participation behaviour), which closely correspondd with the three key elements of financial performance (Tang & Tang, 2012; Yang, 2012).

The New Zealand hospitality industry is multicultural and additionally relies highly on temporary migrant workers. This situation requires New Zealand hospitality managers to have more capability of understanding and adjusting in diverse culture contexts (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). Therefore, this study also adopts a cultural dimension as the lens to analyse the employee turnover intention and employees' exhibitions of SOCB. Given that the cultural dimension of power distance is a popular one for analysing organisational behaviour, this study will adopt power distance as the lens to analyse the moderating roles of cultural differences (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007).

Employee turnover intention and employees' exhibitions of SOCB are closely correlated with employees' job motivation (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001; Herzberg, 2003; Liao & Wu, 2016; Poulston, 2008; Tang & Tang, 2012; Yang, 2012). Moreover, as previously mentioned the New Zealand hospitality industry is a multicultural environment with multicultural employees. In order to successfully analyse employee turnover intention and SOCB in the New Zealand hospitality industry, top priority is to use both employee motivation and cultural values to examine the employee turnover intention and SOCB. Therefore, it is important to adopt both employee motivation and cultural values to analyse employee turnover intention and SOCB.

Although various academic articles have analysed turnover intention and SOCB in the hospitality industry using job satisfaction, organisational commitment and social exchange theory, fewer academic articles have examined employee SOCB and turnover intention along with culture and employee motivation in the current hospitality industry (Rodriguez, 2010). This research will address this gap by linking employee motivation and cultural differences (power distance) in investigating the impact of employee motivation and culture on employee turnover intention and SOCB in New Zealand.

1.3 Research objectives

To understand the impact of motivating factors on front-line employees' work outcomes (turnover intention, SOCB) and how these impacts are moderated by one cultural dimension (power distance), the following research hypotheses were developed:

Hypothesis 1(a): Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a negative impact on turnover intention.

Hypothesis 1(b): Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a negative impact on turnover intention.

Hypothesis 2: Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a stronger impact on turnover intention than motivating factors.

Hypothesis 3(a): Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a positive impact on SOCB.

Hypothesis 3(b): Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a positive impact on SOCB.

Hypothesis 4: Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a stronger impact on SOCB than hygiene factors.

Hypothesis 5(a): Power distance moderates the negative impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention. The negative impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention is stronger in high power distance.

Hypothesis 5(b): Power distance moderates the negative impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention. The negative impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention is stronger in high power distance.

Hypothesis 6(a): Power distance moderates the positive impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB. The positive impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB is stronger in high power distance.

Hypothesis 6(b): Power distance moderates the positive impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on SOCB. The positive impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on SOCB is stronger in high power distance.

1.4 Significance of the dissertation

Firstly, the New Zealand hospitality industry has suffered from a high level of turnover (TIA, 2014). This high level of turnover could decrease the competitiveness of the New Zealand hospitality industry. Therefore, employee turnover intention needs to be analysed in the New Zealand hospitality industry. Employee motivating factors can be defined as the main predictors of employee turnover intention (Wahyu Ariani, 2012). Hence, motivating factors could be used as a lens to analyse employee turnover intention in the New Zealand hospitality industry. Secondly, because of the multicultural environment (multicultural employees from overseas, such as Chinese, British, Indian and Korean employees), this study also considers the moderating role of cultural differences on the relationship between motivating factors and turnover intention (MBIE, 2016).

Additionally, it is important to use both culture and motivation to analyse hospitality employee SOCB. According to Magnini, Hyun, Kim and Uysal (2013), if multicultural hospitality organisations can understand cultural differences, they will perform better. Secondly, employee motivating factors have been directly correlated with employee performance (Wahyu Ariani, 2012). SOCB can be seen as individual employees' extrarole behaviours in the workplace (Liao & Wu, 2016). Employee motivating factors can be recognised as the main predictor of employee SOCB (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001).

Finally, although in general, SOCB needs motivating factors consistently all over the world, specific motivating factors for SOCB motivating factors can be different in various contexts, such as with organisational commitment, organisational reward, organisational policy and organisational culture (Ibrahim & Aslinda, 2015). Hence,

using both cultural differences and motivating factors as a lens to analyse employee turnover intention and SOCB is crucial for the current New Zealand hospitality industry.

1.5 Definition of key terms

Employee Motivation

Employee motivation can be seen as the positive force or reasons that drive employees to perform well in their own workplace (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Herzberg's motivating factors

According to Berger and Brownell (2009), Herzberg's two-factor theory can be categorised into two types of motivating factors: motivating factors and hygiene factors.

Turnover intention

Turnover intention can be defined as the employee's psychological process of quitting a current job (Suleiman & Mat, 2013).

Service-oriented Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (SOCB)

SOCB refers to acts of courtesy and enthusiasm displayed by frontline service employees in order to meet customers' needs of OCB (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001).

Power distance

Power distance refers to the degree that lower status individuals agree with the unequal distribution of power (Hofstede, Minkov & Hofstede, 2010).

1.6 Structure of the dissertation

There are five chapters in this dissertation. Chapter One presents background information, identifies the objectives, and explains the significance of the dissertation Chapter Two reviews the existing literature related to key concepts. It provides a conceptual foundation of the constructs of this study (employee motivation, turnover intention, SOCB, and power distance) as well critically discussing relevant research. It also systematically develops the hypotheses based on previous research on the relationships between these constructs. Chapter Three explains the research paradigm, instrument development, measurements, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures and ethical considerations of the research. Chapter Four presents findings and data analysis results as well the outcomes of the hypothesis tests. Chapter Five

summarises the key findings, discusses the theoretical and practical implications, discusses the limitations of the study and provides suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2:Literature Review

This chapter firstly introduces background information about the New Zealand hospitality industry. Then, the definition of motivation and Herzberg's two-factor theory will be presented. After illustrating the motivation, the two outcomes of employee motivation, turnover intention and Service-Oriented Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (SOCB), will be discussed. Finally, the moderating factor of one cultural dimension (power distance) will be considered in the last section.

2.1 The New Zealand hospitality industry

2.1.1 Revenue

The hospitality industry is recognised as an important contributor to the New Zealand economy. One of the sub-sectors of the hospitality industry is the tourism industry (Pullman, & Rodgers, 2010). According to New Zealand Tourism Industry
Association (TIA), New Zealand's tourism industry has become the largest export revenue earner for New Zealand (TIA, 2014), and in 2013 it brought in approximately \$11.8 billion dollars in export earnings (TIA, 2014). According to the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment (MBIE), the tourism industry contributes \$22.7 billion (or 9.9%) to New Zealand's total GDP (MBIE, 2017). Moreover, TIA forecasts that in 2022 the New Zealand tourism industry will contribute a total of \$41 billion in revenue and 4.5 million visitors (TIA, 2016). Therefore, the New Zealand hospitality industry plays a prominent role in New Zealand's economic wellbeing by contributing significantly to New Zealand's total GDP and by providing numerous job opportunities.

2.1.2 Labour force

The New Zealand hospitality industry directly generates 188,136 jobs comprising 7.5% of New Zealand's total employment market (New Zealand Tourism, 2016). Besides providing jobs for most local people, the hospitality industry also provides jobs for many overseas people, such as, for instance, international students and migrants (MBIE, 2016). The majority of foreign hospitality employees are Indian and Chinese, while other foreign hospitality employees are British, Japanese, Korean,

Brazilian and Filipino (MBIE, 2015). New Zealand's hospitality employees come from many different cultures, and therefore, the New Zealand hospitality industry is a very multicultural environment (MBIE, 2015). Although the New Zealand hospitality industry generates a plethora of job opportunities, it still suffers from high employee turnover rates. Research suggests this is due to the fact that working conditions in the hospitality industry have much in common with the service industry, including long hours, low wages, irregular shifts, low status and poor training (Poulston, 2008).

2.1.3 Service industry

The hospitality industry is a service industry, as hospitality businesses not only offer customers tangible products, but also create special experiences (e.g., buying experiences or meal experiences) during "face-to-face" service encounters (Hemmington, 2007). The service industry contains a wide range of sub-sectors, such as food and beverage, accommodation, travel and entertainment (Morrison, 1998). Research has shown that financial performance in these service sub-sectors is affected by three key factors: employee loyalty, customer satisfaction and service quality (Chi & Gursoy, 2009). Research has also employee motivation to be closely correlated with these three key factors (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser & Schlesinger, 1994); therefore, it is appropriate to analyse employee motivation.

The service industry can be considered as an "emotional labour industry" (Korczynski, 2002). This is because the employees in the service industry must engage in more service-oriented emotional labour than employees in other industries such as the manufacturing industry. And as previously mentioned in section 2.1.2, the nature of the industry's working conditions (i.e., long hours, low wages, irregular shifts, low status and poor training) contributes to high employee turnover rates and situations that lead to employee turnover.

2.1.4 Importance of motivation

According to TIA (2014), the turnover rates of the New Zealand hospitality industry were as high as 30%. The high-level of turnover can bring several negative effects, such as a shortage of labour force, high turnover costs, low productivity and low customer service (Davidson & Wang, 2011). These effects could diminish the

competitiveness of the industry, so it is important to analyse employee motivating factors because employee motivation levels can directly affect their work (Ineson, Benke & László, 2013). Employee motivating factors can profoundly affect their job performance, such as the customer service (Ahmad, Wasay & Jhandir, 2012). As a result, customer service can directly affect customer satisfaction. Finally, the financial performance of the service organisations will be influenced by customer satisfaction. Therefore, this suggests that service workers' motivation towards their job plays a prominent role in maintaining the competitiveness of the New Zealand hospitality industry.

2.2 Employee motivation

Employee motivation can be defined as the positive force, or the reasons, that drive employees to perform well in the workplace (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Employee motivating factors can profoundly affect job performance in key areas such as customer service (Ahmad, Wasay & Jhandir, 2012). This is important as customer service performance directly affects customer satisfaction levels, and customer satisfaction levels influence an organisation's financial performance. Therefore, hospitality employee motivation plays a prominent role in maintaining the competitiveness of the New Zealand hospitality industry.

In addition, the turnover rates of the New Zealand hospitality industry have been as high as 30% (TIA, 2014). This high level of turnover can have negative effects, such as labour force shortages, high turnover costs, low productivity and poor customer service (Davidson & Wang, 2011). These effects could diminish the competitiveness of the industry, so it is important to analyse employee motivating factors because employees' motivation levels can directly affect their work (Ineson, Benke & László, 2013) as well as employee turnover intentions.

2.3 Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation

Various theories of motivation, including Herzberg's two-factor theory, McClelland's needs theory and Maslow's hierarchy theory, have been utilised in academic research. Herzberg's two-factor theory of employee motivation is most suitable for this study

topic. Compared with other motivational theories, it contains more specific factors. Herzberg's two-factor theory breaks down into a number of useful specific components. This can provide academic researchers with more detailed analysis (Sledge, Miles, & Coppage, 2008).

According to Berger and Brownell (2009), Herzberg's two-factor theory of employee motivation includes two types of factors: motivating factors and hygiene factors. Motivating factors include the work itself, acknowledgement from leaders, personal advancement (in career and work skills), a sense of responsibility or empowerment and a sense of achievement (Hancer & George, 2003). Hygiene factors are working conditions, job security, work-life balance, wages, company policy, financial rewards and relationships with co-workers (Chuang, Yin & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2009). There is a distinct gap between motivating factors and hygiene factors in Herzberg's two-factor theory. Motivating factors not only motivate employees and improve employee job performance, but also improve employee job satisfaction; however, hygiene factors can only prevent employees from being dissatisfied with their work (Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009). In addition, if hygiene factors are deficient, the motivating factors will have limited or no effect (Poulston, 2009).

Table 2. 1- Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Motivating factors	Hygiene factors
Work it-self	◆ Working conditions
Acknowledgement	◆ Work-life balance
Personal advancement	◆ Payment
 Responsibility 	Company policy
Achievement	◆ Rewards
	◆ Job security
	◆ Interrelationships

(Herzberg et al., 1959)

2.4 Controversial issues of Herzberg's two-factor theory

In developing the two-factor theory of employee motivation, Herzberg and his assistants interviewed 203 professional engineering and financial employees in Pittsburg using a semi-structured interview approach. Although many researchers have utilised Herzberg's two-factor theory in conducting primary research (e.g. Lundberg, Gudmundson, & Andersson, 2009; Poulston, 2009; Sledge, Miles, & Coppage, 2008), the theory has been criticised. Smerek and Peterson (2006) argue that because Herzberg's two-factor theory was developed and tested using such a narrow range of job occupations (i.e., limited to professional financial employees and professional engineers), Herzberg's two-factory theory may not be suitable for analysing employee motivating factors in other industry sectors. Characteristics such as working environments, average salaries, work content and work tasks differ across industries, and these differences can shape employees' perspectives of employee motivating factors. Hence, the generalisability of Herzberg's two-factor theory is decreased.

However, it should be noted that the Herzberg's two-factor theory is content theory. This means the theory breaks down employee motivation into specific motivating factors, thereby providing researchers with a platform to analyse employee motivation.

Additionally, Poulston (2009) justified the generalisability of Herzberg's two-factor theory in the New Zealand hospitality industry. Therefore, Herzberg's two-factor theory was deemed acceptable for analysing employees' outcomes in this study.

2.5 Outcomes of employee motivating factors

There are two outcomes of employee motivating factors: employee turnover intention and organisational citizenship behaviours. Literature suggests that employee job satisfaction and performance is affected by motivating factors, as research has found that employee motivating factors are closely correlated with their turnover intentions and organisational citizenship behaviour (Chuang, Yin & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2009; Ghiselli, 2001). This suggests that hospitality managers can influence employees' turnover intentions and organisational citizenship behaviours with motivating factors.

2.5.1 Motivating factors and turnover intention

Turnover intention can be defined as the employee's psychological process of quitting a current job (Suleiman & Mat, 2013). Robinson and Beesley (2010) claim that the employee goes through this psychological process internally before actual turnover occurs (i.e., before the employee actually quits). After considering thoughts of turnover, the employee will inevitably decide to stay or leave the current job, either voluntarily or involuntarily (MacIntosh, & Doherty, 2010).

Literature suggests that employees' turnover intentions can be triggered by hygiene factors, such as wages, working conditions, or job security, that do not meet employees' expectations. These hygiene factors can also be referred to as dissatisfiers (Nanayakkara & Dayarathna, 2016). Dissatisfiers are the essential factors that prevent employees from being satisfied in the workplace (Herzberg, 2003). Dissatisfiers can be a cause of employee turnover intention unless organisations pay attention to reducing dissatisfiers appropriately (Nanayakkara & Dayarathna, 2016). Therefore, organisations need to provide hygiene factors in a way that ensures a reasonable level of employee satisfaction (Herzberg, 2003).

Poulston (2009) investigated the relationships between employee turnover intention and employee motivating factors in a sample of 534 New Zealand hospitality

employees. She found that there are three common reasons behind employee turnover intention: low wages, poor relationships with co-workers and intensive workload. Moreover, she also verified that sufficient hygiene factors are the prime requirement for accessing the effects of motivating factors on employees. These findings were consistent with the two-factor theory defined by Herzberg.

However, it should be noted that motivating factors and hygiene factors in Herzberg's two-factor theory are discrete. In other words, there is a distinct line between the functions of motivating factors and hygiene factors in this theory (Berger & Brownell, 2009), meaning a factor cannot be both a motivating factor and a hygiene factor. However, there are obvious casual relationships between several motivating factors and hygiene factors. For instance, if an employee gets an advancement (motivating factor), then the employee's salary (hygiene factor) may be automatically increased. This situation indicates that the salary (a hygiene factor) can also be seen as an indirect motivating factor. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1(a): Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a negative impact on turnover intention.

Hypothesis 1(b): Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a negative impact on turnover intention.

As mentioned in section 2.2, employee motivating factors can motivate them to work harder and improve job performance. These motivating factors can also be referred to as satisfiers (Herzberg, 2003). Satisfiers are the factors that can significantly contribute to employee satisfaction in the workplace (Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009). Hence, by meeting and considering satisfiers, organisations can create conditions that will help improve employee satisfaction. However, it should be noted that in Herzberg's two-factor theory, the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction, but rather "no dissatisfaction" (Berger & Brownell, 2009). Hence, employee turnover intention is not significantly correlated with satisfiers (motivating factors). Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a stronger impact on turnover intention than motivating factors.

2.5.2 Motivating factors and SOCB

Organisational citizenship behaviour, also called extra-role behaviour, is another outcome of employee motivating factors. For example, Chiang and Birtch (2008) adopted a semi-structured interview approach to investigate hospitality employees' extra-role behaviour among 284 front-line service workers in Hong Kong. Their findings showed that non-financial reward motivating factors, such as career development, work interest and praise from colleagues play a prominent role in terms of performing extra-role behaviours.

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) can be defined as employee behaviour that influences the functioning of the organisation in a positive way, but is discretionary rather than required (i.e., not part of the employee's job role), and not directly or explicitly recognised by a formal reward system (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005). OCB has five dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). Although OCB has made great contributions to the study of organisational behaviour, many researchers still criticise it. This is because the boundaries between each of the five dimensions are not clear enough (Organ, 1997). For instance, the behaviour of helping other employees without being required to can be recognised as both conscientious behaviour and altruistic behaviour. Owing to the scarcity of theoretical boundaries, researchers have further broadened the knowledge of OCB.

Service-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour (SOCB) is another type of OCB. SOCB can be defined as acts of courtesy and enthusiasm displayed by front-line service employees in order to meet customers' needs of OCB (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001). SOCB can also be seen as the typical citizenship behaviour performed by customer contact employees (Liao & Wu, 2016). SOCB can be seen as front-line service employees' extra-role behaviours in the hospitality industry. Therefore, this study mainly examines these extra-role behaviours.

The concept of SOCB can be initially traced back to the concept OCB, as Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter (2001) theorised SOCB based on the original OCB theory. In contrast to the five dimensions of OCB, SOCB contains three dimensions of behaviour: loyalty, service-delivery and participation (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001). Figure 2.1 shows the three dimensions of SOCB.

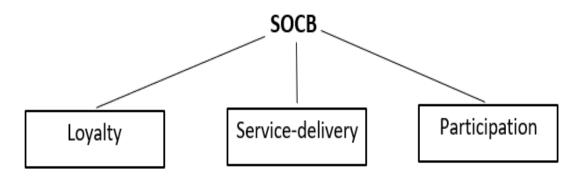


Figure 2.1: Three Dimensions of SOCB (Bettencourt et al., 2001)

Loyalty behaviour refers to actively promoting the organisation's products, services and images to the outside world (Tang & Tang, 2012). Service-delivery behaviour refers to front-line service employees delivering flexible, polite and conscientious services to customers (Yang, 2012). Service-delivery behaviour is the only type of SOCB behaviour that can directly impact customers (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001). Participation behaviour refers front-line service employees contributing to improvements in service quality by suggesting valuable advice through the external environment (customers' requirements) and internal operations (operating process) (Chen, Hu & King, 2018; Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001). Due to the participation behaviour need to be performed by employees through external environment and internal process, this research will mainly focus on this behaviour. Therefore, SOCB can be recognised as service employees' extra-role behaviours which are beyond the fundamental requirements of duty. Employee SOCB can be affected by several different factors such as job satisfaction, motivating factors and job commitment (Donavan, Brown & Mowen, 2004; Lapierre & Hackett, 2007; Rodriguez, 2010).

Individuals who are intrinsically motivated engage in activities solely for the pleasure that they derive from the activity, such as deriving a sense of responsibility, empowerment or achievement, rather than engaging simply because the activity leads to some external benefit, such as financial reward or job advancement (Rodriguez, 2010). Employees with intrinsic motivating factors (e.g., a sense of responsibility, empowerment or achievement or enjoyment of the work itself) are more willing to accept more challenges and display more extra-role behaviours and will devote increased effort to the organisation compared with employees with no motivating factors (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Employees with intrinsic motivating factors (e.g., a sense of responsibility, empowerment or achievement or enjoyment of the work itself) are more willing to accept more challenges and display more extra-role behaviours and will devote increased effort to the organisation compared with employees with no motivating factors (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In line with this, Malik (2011) compared the effects of motivating factors on employees' organisational behaviour in a sample of 120 respondents from the University of Balochistan, revealing that the "work itself" was the most influential factor motivating employees to perform organisational citizenbship behaviours (Malik, 2011). Conversely, the least influential factor affecting employees' organisational citizenship behaviour behaviour was "working conditions," which would be considered a hygiene factor (Malik, 2011).

As mentioned in section 2.2., Herzberg's two-factor theory includes motivating factors and hygiene factors, and, as previously mentioned SOCB includes loyalty behaviour, service-delivery behaviour, and participation behaviour. Kim and Lee (2013) investigated the impacts of motivating factors and hygiene factors on employees' participation behaviour in a sample of 418 five-star hotel employees in Busan. They found that "personal work skill advancement" (a motivating factor) was the most common reason for employees "sharing own valuable opinions" (a participation behaviour) (Kim & Lee, 2013). Similary, through surveying 375 employees in Taipai, Liu and Fang (2010) found that motivating factors were positively correlated with employees' participation behaviour and that employees perform more participation behaviour through motivating factors than through hygiene factors (Liu & Fang, 2010). Not surprisingly, these findings can be explained by the social interaction culture, which indicates that the process of knowledge sharing only occurs when employees are willing to mutually learn and exchange their knowledge with their co-workers. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3(a): Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a positive impact on SOCB.

Hypothesis 3(b): Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a positive impact on SOCB.

Compared with motivating factors, hygiene factors only have influence when there are punishments or rewards involved (Ryan & Deci, 1996). Hygiene factors are only temporary fixes and do not lead to long-term positive behaviour changes (Rodriguez, 2010). For instance, a rewards system can be seen as a hygiene factor which is included in a company's policy. It suggests that if the company cannot give people opportunities to earn rewards, then the hygiene factor (reward) will disappear. Another study investigated the impacts of motivating factors on the work performance of 301 United States employees through structural equation modelling, and findings showed that when service employees have sufficient motivating factors, their work performance may be negatively affected by hygiene factors (Chiang & Jang, (2008). According to Chiang and Jang (2008), this is because employees might not obtain equal hygiene factors (e.g., bonuses and financial rewards) that correspond to motivating factors (e.g., acknowledgement). This situation results in reducing hospitality employees' enthusiasm for working, further reducing their extra-role behaviours. Therefore, based this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a stronger impact on SOCB than hygiene factors.

2.6 Cultural differences

The relationship between employee motivating factors and employee SOCB can also be affected by the moderating factor of culture (Farh, Hackett & Liang, 2007; Hu, Horng & Sun, 2009). Increasingly, researchers have turned their focus to analysing employees' cultural intelligence, or cultural quotient (CQ), at the organisational level (Lee & Sukoco, 2010). As with the intelligence quotient (IQ) and the emotional quotient (EQ), the CQ refers to an individual's capability of understanding and adjusting in

diverse culture contexts (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). This indicates that individuals who have a high CQ may effectively interact with others in a multicultural environment (Lee & Sukoco, 2010). As mentioned in section 2.1.2, the New Zealand hospitality industry is a multicultural environment comprised of multicultural employees. Therefore, it is significant to adopt cultural differences as the lens through which to analyse the moderating impacts of cultural values in the relationship between employee motivating factors, employee turnover intention, and employee SOCB in the New Zealand hospitality industry.

Worchel (2005) states that different cultures shape different individual attitudes and values. This leads to different employee performances. Increasingly, international business research has focussed on analysing cultural effects on employee performance (Black, 2005). The vast majority of these researchers have adopted Hofstede's cultural dimensions as the lens with which to analyse the impact of culture on employee performance. The Hofstede cultural dimension contains five dimensions: power distance, individualism versus collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity and long-term orientation (Hofstede & Bond, 1984).

Although Hofstede claims that cultural dimensions are only meaningful when researchers analyse at the societal level, researchers have identified that each cultural dimension value varies significantly from individual to individual (Farh, Hackett & Liang, 2007). These variations could directly lead to differences in individual performance at the organisational level (Farh, Hackett & Liang, 2007). Based on reviewing cross-cultural organisational behaviour, literature suggests that there are a number of academic articles analysing the effects of cultural values on the employees' behaviour by using power distance (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007). Therefore, this study will adopt one of Hofstede's cultural dimensions (power distance) to analyse the relationship between employee motivating factors, employee turnover intention and employee SOCB.

2.6.1 Power distance

Power distance refers to the degree that lower status individuals agree with the unequal distribution of power (Hofstede, Minkov & Hofstede, 2010). Due to different

individuals' perspectives of power distance, individual behaviour might vary from individual to individual. Shahwan (2016) claims that people are not sensitive to hierarchy in low power distance countries. Conversely, in high power distance nations individuals tend to be more respectful and fearful of high-positioned officers. This situation indicates that low-status individuals are more likely to challenge formal authority in low power distance nations (Khatri, 2009). However, employees are more afraid to challenge their leaders in high power distance countries.

Additionally, power distance can affect empowerment, which can be defined as the process by which high-positioned officers share their power with their subordinates (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). According to Koc (2013), low-level employees are less likely to be empowered by their leaders in high power distance nations. Owing to the scarcity of empowerment, low-level employees might not have much power to work in the way they would think to. In other words, low-positioned workers might only follow the operating guidelines or the way their leader thinks the work should be done. This situation results in scarcity of creativity in organisations (Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers & Stam, 2010).

2.6.2 Moderating role of power distance

Motivating factors, power distance, and turnover intention

As mentioned in Herzberg's two-factor theory, hygiene factors are closely correlated with employee turnover intention (Herzberg, 2003). Cultural differences could also affect employees' perceptions of hygiene factors, and employees' degree of turnover intention. Sledge, Miles and Coppage (2008) investigated the effects of culture on the link between employees' selections of motivating factors and employee turnover intention in Brazil, which was considered by Hofstede to a high power distance nation, They analysed 81 responses from five different Brazilian hotels with a qualitative approach, and found the effect of "salary" (a hygiene factor) on employee turnover intention to be significant (high power distance context) (Sledge, Miles & Coppage, 2008). This significance is because vast wealth inequalities prevail in high power distance nations (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Employee turnover intention is more significantly affected by the high level of salary inequalities in high power distance nations (Sledge, Miles & Coppage, 2008).

The moderating role of power distance on the relationship between employee motivating factors and employee turnover intention could also be interpreted by the empowering perspective. According to Rizwan and Mukhtar (2014), empowerment is closely related to employees' communication skills. This is because subordinates who have strong communication skills with their leaders might have more chances to be empowered by their leaders. In other words, empowerment is a reflection of "highquality relationships" (a hygiene factor). This could also be explained by leadership theory, or leader-member exchange theory, which suggests that leaders who treat might members differentially foster more psychological empowerment (Sparrowe, 1994).

Sparrowe (1994) investigated the effect of empowerment on employee turnover intention by analysing 182 responses from 33 hotels and motels. This study showed that employees who are more empowered by their leaders are less likely to formulate plans to quit their jobs. This is because empowered employees could feel a greater sense of achievement (a motivating factor) when they participate in decision-making processes in their work. Moreover, these empowered employees might also have more high-quality relationships with leaders in their workplaces than unempowered employees.

According to Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010), there is a big communication gap between leaders and subordinates in high power distance nations. Additionally, the power is significantly centralised at top level in high power distance nations. These situations might decrease the chance of empowerment in high power distance nations. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5(a): Power distance moderates the negative impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention. The negative impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention is stronger in high power distance.

Hypothesis 5(b): Power distance moderates the negative impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention. The negative impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention is stronger in high power distance.

Motivating factors, power distance, and SOCB

Based on Herzberg's two-factor theory, "relationships" and "payment" are crucial components of hygiene factors (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959). Employees' "promotion in title" is also closely correlated with the hygiene factor component of "payment" (Bassett & Lloyd, 2005). This suggests that "relationships," "payment" and "promotion in title" are closely associated with the employee's self-impression management (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). This is due to the fact that the employees can build good relationships with their colleagues through personal impression management (Meydan, Basim & Basar, 2014). Employees can also get promotion in title and further increase their payments through personal impression management (Meydan, Basim & Basar, 2014). Therefore, it is safe to say that "relationships," "payment" and "promotion in title" can be seen as the predictors of self-impression management.

Meydan, Basim and Basar (2014) investigated the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between employees' impression management and employees' citizenship behaviour by analysing 178 responses in Turkey. Findings revealed that high power distance culture significantly and positively affects the relationship between impression management and citizenship behaviour. Vast wealth, social status and power inequalities prevail in high power distance nations (Hauff & Richter, 2015). This situation indicates that employees are more eager to get promotions in title in a high power distance society (Hauff & Richter, 2015). In order to successfully promote in title, employees are more willing to impress their leaders by performing more extrarole behaviours in high power distance countries (Bolino, 1999).

According to Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010), there is a greater distance of power and payment in high power distance nations than there is in low power distance nations. Compared with high-level positioned officers in low power distance nations, high-level positioned officers in high power distance nations are able to gain more

power and payment. It is believed that high-positioned officers might also hold the power to determine their subordinates' promotions in title in high power distance nations (Meydan, Basim & Basar, 2014). Therefore, this suggests that in high power distance nations, employees are eager to access more power and payment through personal promotion (Hauff & Richter, 2015). Additionally, employees in high power distance nations will perform more extra-role behaviours in order to successfully gain promotion. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6(a): Power distance moderates the positive impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB. The positive impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB is stronger in high power distance.

Hypothesis 6(b): Power distance moderates the positive impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on SOCB. The positive impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on SOCB is stronger in high power distance.

Figure 2.2 provides a diagram of the proposed conceptual model.

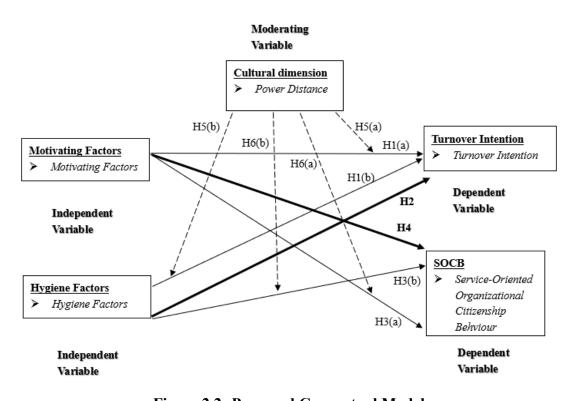


Figure 2.2: Proposed Conceptual Model

Chapter 3:Methodology

The primary purpose of this chapter is to present the method of this study. Firstly, it illustrates the research methods for this study based on the philosophical stances of research epistemology and theoretical perspective. Secondly, it explains instrument development and measurement of constructs as well as describing the data collection and data analysis procedures. Finally, it presents the ethical considerations of this study.

3.1 Research paradigm/design

According to Kuhn (1962), a research paradigm, or philosophical perspective of research, is "a set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed" (p. 45). Grant and Giddings (2002) state that epistemology and ontology can be viewed as the two main components of a paradigm. Epistemology can be defined as "a branch of philosophy that investigates the origin, nature, methods, and limits of human knowledge" (Essine, 2015, p.76). Compared with the epistemology, the main purpose of ontology is to analyse the nature of being. In other words, ontology is concerned with the study of being or existence.

Grant and Giddings (2002) state that epistemology can be categorised into two main branches: positivism (or the objectivist view) and interpretivism. Researchers' different beliefs of epistemology could be demonstrated by these two types of epistemological ideologies. Crotty (1998) states that the positivist researchers view reality as objective and utilise the scientific method as the tool to test the rules and regulations (Crotty, 1998). The primary purpose of this study is to analyse how front-line hospitality employees' extra-role behaviours and turnover intentions are affected by motivating factors, and how those impacts are moderated by culture. In order to successfully identify the interrelationships between these variables, an online questionnaire was developed to collect the quantitative data. Therefore, this study adopted positivism (objectivism) as its epistemological ideology.

3.2 Instrument development

This study adopted an online questionnaire as the research method. Online questionnaires can be utilised for collecting the data from the respondents in the real world. Wright (2006) claims that the online survey has been widely employed as a study method for research in the social sciences. The online questionnaires were divided into six parts: screening questions, employee motivating factors, employee frequency of SOCB, employee turnover intention, cultural dimension (power distance) and demographic questions.

Wang, Abdelzaher, Kaplan and Aggarwal (2011) state that screening questions can improve the reliability of the survey by eliminating ineligible respondents. Therefore, the questionnaire for this study included three screening questions placed at the beginning stage of the questionnaire. This ensured that any ineligible respondents could be automatically excluded from the survey. For example, one of the screening questions was: Are you currently working in a hospitality organisation? This question ensured the survey respondents were currently working in the hospitality industry. The section on employee motivating factors asked participants to evaluate their perceptions of motivating factors based on their current hospitality job. The section on frequency of SOCB asked participants to self-evaluate how often they performed SOCBs at their current jobs. The section on employee turnover intentions asked participants about their turnover intentions at their current jobs. The section on cultural dimension (power distance) was designed to identify participants' degrees of power distance. It also included section collect another dimension, data cultural (individualism/collectivism). However, due to low reliability, individualism/collectivism was not used in further analysis (see section 4.3). The section on demographics collected demographic data.

3.3 Measurements

Employee motivation was measured motivating factors and hygiene factors derived from Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation (Herzberg et al., 1959). SOCB was measured by items representing the three dimensions of SOCB proposed by Bettencourt et al. (2001): loyalty, service-delivery and participation. Turnover intention was measured using three indicators of turnover intention derived from the work of Hom

and Griffeth (1991). Power distance was measured using indicators derived from Hofstede's cultural dimensions and power distance model (Hofstede, 1983).

3.3.1 Employee motivation

The questionnaire included items designed to measure five motivating factors and seven hygiene factors (Herzberg et al., 1959). The five motivating factors were 1) whether the job itself was interesting, 2) whether employee efforts are acknowledged, 3) whether there are opportunities for career advancement, 4) whether employees feel a sense of responsibility and 5) whether employees feel a sense of achievement. During data analysis, motivating factor 2 – whether employee efforts are acknowledged – was dropped due to low reliability. The seven hygiene factors were 1) whether working conditions are comfortable, 2) whether there is work-life balance, 3) whether payment is good, 4) whether company policy is people-oriented, 5) whether there opportunities for rewards exist, 6) whether there is job security and 7) whether interrelationships with co-workers are good. Responses were measured using a five-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.

Table 3.1: Employee Motivation Measurement Items

Motivating Factors	Strongly Disagree / Strongly Agree					
Item 1: Job is interesting	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 2: Efforts are acknowledged	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 3: Career advancement opportunities exist	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 4: Feel a sense of responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 5: Feel a sense of achievement	1	2	3	4	5	
Hygiene Factors	Strongly Disagree / Strongly Agree					
Item 1: Working conditions comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 2: Work-life balance	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 3: Payment is good	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 4: Company policy is people-oriented	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 5: Rewards opportunities exist	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 6: Job security exists	1	2	3	4	5	
Item 7: Interrelationships with co-workers are good	1	2	3	4	5	

(Herzberg et al., 1959)

3.3.2 **SOCB**

When compared with measuring SOCB frequency through respondents' colleagues, measuring SOCB frequency through respondents' self-reports and self-evaluations is more evident. (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001). Therefore, this study adopted the self-report method of measuring SOCB. SOCB was measured using three dimensions of SOCB proposed by Bettencourt et al. (2001): loyalty, service-delivery and participation behaviour. Items were based on Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter's (2001) SOCB scale and asked participants to rate how frequently they performed specific behaviours relating to each dimension on a five-point Likert scale where 1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = about half the time, 4 = most of the time and 5 = always. Table 3.2 presents 3 of the items for the participation behaviour dimension of SOCB as an example. For all SOCB items, see Appendix A.

Table 3.2: SOCB Measurement Items

How often do you perform the following participation behaviours	Never/ Always				
Item 2: Contributes many ideas for customer promotions and communications.	1	2	3	4	5
Item 3: Makes constructive suggestions for service improvement.	1	2	3	4	5
Item 4: Frequently presents to others creative solutions to customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5

(Bettencourt et al., 2001)

3.3.3 Turnover intention

Turnover intention was measured using items derived from Hom and Griffeth's (1991) turnover intention scale. Respondents were asked to rate how much they agreed with three statements on a five-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly agree and 5 = strongly disagree, as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Turnover Intention Measurement Items

Please assess the extent of your agreement with the following statements	Strongly Agree/ Strongly Disagree				
Item 1: I will probably look for a new job in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5
Item 2: I have already started looking for a new job.	1	2	3	4	5
Item 3: I often think about quitting.	1	2	3	4	5

(Hom & Griffeth, 1991)

3.3.4 Power distance

Degree of power distance was measured in accordance with Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory (1983). Participants were presented with power distance statements derived from Hofstede (1983) and prompted to rate on a five-point Likert scale, where 1 = extremely uncharacteristic of me and 5 = extremely characteristic of me, the extent to which they felt the statements were uncharacteristic or characteristic of them. Table 3.4 shows the power distance items.

Table 3.4: Power Distance Measurement Items

	Uncharacteristic / Characteristic of Me				
Item 1: I think the employees should be expected follow their leaders without the questions in the organisations.	1	2	3	4	5
Item 2: I think the leaders should be expected to make decisions on their own without explaining these decisions to subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
Item 3: I think the power should be concentrated on the top of organisations.	1	2	3	4	5

(Hofstede, 1983)

3.4 Data collection

This study required respondents with predefined characteristics, particularly customer contact employees with basic working experience and knowledge of the New Zealand hospitality industry. Therefore, this study adopted a purposive sampling method, which is suitable for research requiring respondents to have predefined characteristics (Burns, Duffett, Kho, Meade, Adhikari & Sinuff, 2008). According to Burns, Duffett, Kho,

Meade, Adhikari and Sinuff (2008) purposive sampling refers to the researcher recruiting data based on specific characteristics of the objective of the study. In order to successfully test the relationships between motivation, turnover intention and SOCB among front-line employees, this study will completely recruit front-line employees as participants. Besides, this study requires the participants have a basic knowledge of the hospitality industry. Hence, this study requires participants to have at least one month's hospitality working experience. Generally, previous research on employees' organisational citizenship behaviour used samples ranging from 100 to 220 respondents. Due to time and budget limitations, this study aimed to get a sample of 120 usable responses.

A pilot survey was carried out prior to distributing the final questionnaire. The primary purpose of the pilot survey was to check that respondents could fully understand the content and purpose of the questionnaire and to seek suggestions for improvement. The pilot survey was administered to 13 Auckland local hospitality front-line workers. Constructive suggestions were collected.

The questionnaire was distributed through social media platforms, such as Facebook and Twitter, to front-line hospitality workers, such as restaurant and accommodation employees, in Auckland, New Zealand. As a result, there are significant numbers of international students participating in this survey. This is due to the fact that the primary researcher's friends on Facebook are international students in New Zealand. Therefore, the majority of participants are part time hospitality employees. In order to successfully recruit the respondents through Facebook and Twitter, the researcher posted the Qualtrics questionnaire link and relevant information on these two social networks. The hospitality industry has a wide range of workplaces, such as restaurants, cafés, hotels, motels, events and travelling agencies. The questionnaire was administered, and data was collected using Qualtrics online questionnaire software, which allows researchers to effectively and economically collect survey data.

Data collection lasted for five week (14-March-2018 to 8-April-2018) and yielded a total of 287 survey responses, of which 203 (71%) of the surveys were completed fully

and considered valid. The average time the respondents spent completing the survey was about eight minutes.

3.5 Data analysis

Survey data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Firstly, the data was screened to identify any missing data. Dummy codes were assigned to gender (0 for male and 1 for female) and this was entered into SPSS along with data from other questionnaire items. A frequency analysis was then conducted to present the demographic characteristics of respondents. Consistency and reliability of the instrument was tested using reliability tests and factor analysis before testing the ten hypotheses using the multiple regression technique in SPSS.

3.5.1 Frequency analysis

Lavrakas (2008) claims that frequency analysis is a useful tool for calculating the frequencies and percentages of a sample's demographic characteristics. The primary purpose of using frequency analysis is to summarise and compress the data. For instance, the percentage of respondents having attained a certain educational level can be calculated and presented using frequency statistics. Similarly, the percentage of respondents representing certain ethnicities could be presented in tabular format, thereby compressing the statistics and providing an overall view of the ethnic makeup of the sample.

3.5.2 Hierarchical multiple regression analysis

There are four primary variables in this study: motivating factors, hygiene factors, turnover intention and SOCB. Means for the four primary variables were calculated using SPSS so that the first two hypotheses could be examined using multiple regression analysis. The strength of interrelationships amongst motivating factors, hygiene factors, turnover intention and SOCB were then analysed using multiple regression analysis. Means for the three dimensions of SOCB were also calculated using SPSS to enable measuring the strength of interrelationships amongst the three dimensions of SOCB, motivating factors and hygiene factors. Within all the regression analyses, the three demographic variables: age, gender and tenure were controlled. This is due to the fact that the respondents' demographic variables might also affect outcome

variables, such as employee turnover intention or employee behaviour in organisations (Tsui & O'reilly, 1989). Therefore, this research will firstly control several demographic variables.

The moderating effects of cultural dimension (power distance) were examined for hypotheses 5(a), 5(b), 6(a) and 6(b) using multiple regression analysis. Figure 3.1 shows the moderator model.

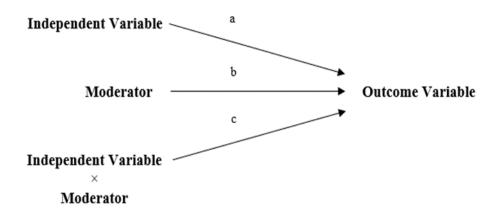


Figure 3.1: The Moderator Model (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1174)

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), if path c is significant, it means the factor has a moderating effect. Path c can be seen as the impact of interaction effects (between independent variable and moderator) on the dependent variable. To examine moderating effects of power distance for the relationships amongst the variables in the model, motivating factors, turnover intention, SOCB and one cultural dimension were initially mean centred. Then, interactive effects variables were created using mean centred motivating factors multiplied by mean centred power distance. Then the study adopted liner regression analysis in SPSS.

3.6 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was required for this study as it collected primary data. The EA1 form was submitted to the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC). The primary purpose of submitting the EA1 form was to ensure participants were fully protected in the research process. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2018), there are three factors should be considered when protecting respondents: minimisation of risk, informed consent and privacy protection. The EA1 form contained information on the

study's purpose, content and process with regard to how personal information would be recorded and stored as well as information on the potential risks of participating the and the benefits. Ethical approval was granted by AUTEC on 28 March 2018 (AUTEC reference number 18/116).

All survey questions were general and not related to sensitive issues and did not pose a risk of causing participants discomfort. A participant information sheet was placed at the beginning of each questionnaire to ensure respondents were completely informed about the purpose of the study, the participation requirements and the time involved. Privacy was ensured using anonymous data. Participants' names, addresses, mobile phone numbers and other personally identifiable information could not be accessed by others. Digital data was stored on a password-protected external hard drive that could only be accessed by the primary researcher and his supervisors.

Chapter 4:Findings

The primary purpose of this chapter is to present the main findings of this study. The profile of respondents is presented first. Factor analysis results are presented next, followed by measurement reliability results. The final section presents the hypotheses tests.

4.1 Profile of respondents

The final section of the questionnaire asked respondents about their gender, age, ethnicity, education level, legal status, and hospitality sub-sector. Table 4.1 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of respondents.

Table 4.1: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

Respondent profile (N=2	03)	
	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	86	42.4
Female	117	57.6
Age		
Less than 25	53	26.1
25~31	108	53.2
32~38	38	18.7
Above 38	4	2
Ethnicity		
China	75	36.9
India	60	29.6
Republic of Korea	31	15.3
Other Asian Countries	26	12.8
Western Countries	11	5.4
Education		
None	2	1
Undergraduate	52	25.6
Bachelor	121	59.6
Postgraduate	28	13.8
Legal Status		
Citizenship	13	6.4%
Resident visa	15	7.4%
Student visa	81	39.9%
Work visa	76	37.4%
Working holiday visa	18	8.9%
Hospitality sub-sector		
Accommodation	36	17.7%
Foodservice	150	73.9%
Tourism	17	8.4%

Gender and age

As shown in Table 4.1, the majority of respondents in this study were female (N=117/57.6%) and 86 (42.4%) were male (42.4%). Participants' ages ranged from 21 to 44, with the average age being 27. Most respondents were between 25 and 31 years old (N=108/53.5%), while 53 were younger than 25 (26.1%) and 38 were between 32 and 38 years old (18.7%). These results are consistent with the statistics from Mooney (2014), which showed that the majority of hospitality workers are female workers (65%) and from Generation Y.

Ethnicity

The majority of respondents were Asian (N=192/94.6%), with 75 Chinese (36.9%), 60 Indian (29.6%), 31 Korean (15.3%), and 26 from other Asian countries (12.8%). The non-Asian respondents (N=11/5.4%) were from Western countries (Oceania and Europe). These findings are consistent with previously published hospitality industry statistics highlighting multiculturalism in New Zealand's hospitality industry employees (MBIE, 2016).

Education and legal status

More than half of the respondents (N=121/59.6%) had already completed a bachelor's degree and a further 28 (13.8%) had postgraduate degrees. Nearly one-quarter of respondents (N=52/25.6%) had just finished high school or had an undergraduate certificate/diploma. Most respondents had student visas (N=81/39.9%), a significant number of respondents had work visas (N=76/37.4%), and a smaller number had legal status (N=46/22.7%).

Hospitality working area

The vast majority of participants (N=150, 73.9%) worked in the foodservice sub-sector, with 59 (29.1%) working in casual dining restaurants, 51 (25.1%) working in cafés, 22 (10.8%) working in fine dining restaurants, 14 (6.9%) working in bars and the remainder working in nightclubs and for event companies. Only 17.7% and 8.4% of respondents were employed by the accommodation and tourism sub-sectors, respectively. These findings are consistent with statistics from Westpac New Zealand

(2016) which showed that more than 50% of hospitality jobs are foodservices jobs. Moreover, cafés and restaurants contribute the most jobs in the hospitality industry.

Power distance

[China; India; Korea; Other Asian countries; Western countries]

The ANOVA Tukey post hoc test results showed that in terms of the power distance means, there were statistically significant differences amongst China, India, Korea and Western countries. Table 4.2 presents the power distance means according to nation.

Table 4.2: Means Comparison: Power Distance Index Amongst Participants' Ethnic Groups

Nations	Nations	Power	F Value (p)
		distance	
		Mean	
Western	China	3.13***	.014
Countries	India	3.13***	.015
(M=2.4)	Korea	3.42***	.002

Note: *** significance level 0.0 (p<0.001); table shows **factors with significant difference only**

As shown in Table 4.2, in terms of power distance means, participants who come from Western countries (M=2.36) were significantly lower than participants who come from China (M=3.13), India (M=3.13) and Korea (M=3.42). These findings are consistent with the work of Hofstede, Minkov and Hofstede (2010) which reflected that most Asian nations have a higher power distance index than Western nations.

4.2 Factor analysis

Principal component analysis with an eigenvalue of greater than 1 for extraction was conducted on the all variables: motivating factors, hygiene factors, turnover intention, SOCB and power distance. The three factors' eigenvalues were greater than 1 (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Eigenvalues and Total Variance

		Initial eigenvalues	
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.956	25.763	25.763
2	2.601	9.634	35.397
3	2.094	7.754	43.152
4	1.674	6.201	49.353
5	1.396	5.170	54.523
6	1.272	4.713	59.236
7	1.174	4.348	63.548
8	.944	3.496	67.080
9	.839	3.106	70.186
10	.779	2.884	73.070
11	.746	2.763	75.833
12	.379	1.402	91.487
13	.369	1.365	92.853
14	.348	1.288	94.141
15	.323	1.197	95.338
16	.294	1.088	96.426
17	.278	1.028	97.454
18	.263	.974	98.428
19	.231	.856	99.284
20	.193	.716	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

A scree plot was then generated for all factors and is presented in Figure 4.1.

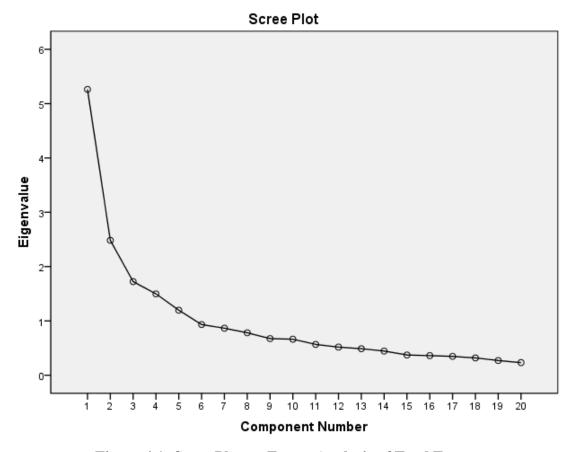


Figure 4.1: Scree Plot on Factor Analysis of Total Factors

As shown in Figure 4.1, there is a sharp slope representing one to seven distinct factors of total factors. This shows that the measurements of three main factors had a high level of internal consistency.

The rotated component matrix of all 20 components (Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation) is presented in Table 4. 4.

Table 4.4: Rotated Component Matrix

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Motivating1	.137	.573	080	015	.396	.148	.271
Motivating2	.171	.787	.153	023	.114	043	.004
Motivating3	.212	.581	.260	.044	.055	061	.036
Motivating4	.238	.636	.118	.092	.094	.064	.219
Hygiene1	.585	.296	.002	030	.101	162	108
Hygiene2	.719	.243	059	.004	.218	183	.044
Hygiene3	.580	.335	067	.091	.074	052	.240
Hygiene4	.594	070	.177	.171	.062	067	.348
Hygiene5	.648	.077	.131	.103	019	183	.302
Hygiene6	.741	.251	.038	.064	025	.031	.201
Hygiene7	.520	140	.255	187	.402	141	141
SOCB1	003	.076	.084	.043	.763	065	.276
SOCB2	.080	.201	.124	.162	.736	057	.048
SOCB3	.270	.168	.369	054	.605	.047	.058
Turnover1	218	070	026	.107	026	.818	252
Turnover2	173	103	.017	048	199	.808	079
Turnover3	069	.045	251	.146	.086	.793	.108
Power	.061	.036	.078	.832	.003	.014	118
distance1							
Power	.071	006	112	.823	.044	.111	.193
distance2							
Power	.036	.053	.009	.819	.057	.035	.090
distance3							

Rotated Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

4.3 Reliability of measurements

4.3.1 Reliability

Table 4.5 shows the Cronbach's alpha figures for the measures of all five constructs. All alpha figures were above the threshold of reflecting consistently high internal reliability.

Table 4.5: Reliability (Cronbach's alpha)

	Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Motivating Factors	.72
2	Hygiene Factors	.81
3	SOCB	.72
4	Turnover Intention	.80
5	Power Distance	.80

As previously mentioned in sections 3.2 and 4.3, however, individualism/collectivism was dropped. Cronbach's alpha for individualism/collectiveism was .35, lower than .06, which reflected low reliability, consistent with previous studies. Therefore, the measurement of individualism/collectivism dropped and not used in further analysis.

4.3.2 Normality

Table 4.6 presents the item correlation statistics and normality scores.

Table 4.6: Item Correlations Statistics and Normality Scores

	Component	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis
			Deviation		
1	Motivating 1	3.59	.824	65	.80
2	Motivating 2	3.90	.808	72	.97
3	Motivating 3	3.92	.898	55	02
4	Motivating 4	3.75	.889	35	36
5	Hygiene 1	3.58	.916	36	17
6	Hygiene 2	3.55	.955	39	26
7	Hygiene 3	3.21	.970	14	20
8	Hygiene 4	3.51	1.05	49	37
9	Hygiene 5	3.46	1.01	39	44
10	Hygiene 6	3.58	.922	36	38
11	Hygiene 7	3.81	.892	72	.50
12	SOCB 1	3.66	1.028	60	07
13	SOCB 2	3.52	.930	29	33
14	SOCB 3	3.37	1.003	47	04
15	Turnover 1	2.56	1.086	.37	58
16	Turnover 2	3.08	1.123	11	84
17	Turnover 3	2.55	1.227	.50	66
18	Power distance 1	3.20	1.072	08	83
19	Power distance 2	2.81	1.218	.29	88
20	Power distance 3	3.30	1.161	18	97

As shown in Table 4.6, all the factors for each construct are relatively similar with other factors. This suggests that all the factors for each construct measurement are highly correlated with each other and are therefore reliable. The skewness and kurtosis of all 20 components were closed to one table, indicating normal univariate distribution of the components used. Skewness and kurtosis of all the 20 components was between -2 and 2 which reflects univariate distribution consistent with previous studies.

4.3.3 Correlations

Table 4.7 presents the correlations of major variables.

Table 4.7: Correlations of Major Variables

Variables	Mean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	(SD)								
1. Age	27.946	1							
	(4.163)								
2. Gender	.576	136	1						
	(.495)								
3. Tenure	11.33	.293**	064	1					
	(8.023)								
4. Motivating	3.791	.030	040	.023	1				
	(.632)								
5. Hygiene	3.529	047	135	049	.502**	1			
	(.656)								
6. Turnover	2.729	.607	.038	.003	194**	339**	1		
	(.969)								
7. SOCB	3.714	040	049	.011	.562**	.504**	276**	1	
	(.588)								
8. Power	3.101	006	028	210**	.103	.120	.116	.120	1
distance	(.971)								

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

As shown in Table 4.7, the relationship between power distance and tenure is significantly negative (r=-.21, p<.01). The relationship between tenure and age is significantly positive (r.29, p<.01). The relationship between SOCB and motivating factors is significantly positive (r=.56, p<.01). The relationship between SOCB and hygiene factors is also significantly positive (r=.50, p<.01). The relationship between turnover intention and motivating factors is significantly negative (r=-.19, p<.01). The relationship between turnover intention and hygiene factors is also significantly negative (r=-.34, p<.01). Based on these results, the measurements of power distance, tenure, age, motivating, hygiene, turnover intention and SOCB have high validity.

4.4 Hypothesis tests

4.4.1 Motivating factors and turnover intention

Hypothesis 1(a): Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a negative impact on turnover intention.

Table 4.8 presents the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention after controlling for demographic variables.

Table 4.8: Impact of Motivating Factors on Turnover Intention

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	2.190		
	Age	0.018	0.078	1.049
	Gender	0.093	0.048	0.669
	Tenure	-0.002	-0.017	-0.228
Step 2	(Constant)	3.299		
	Age	0.019	0.082	1.121
	Gender	0.080	0.041	0.580
	Tenure	-0.002	-0.014	-0.191
	Motivating factors	-0.298	-0.195**	-2.798

Note: $R^2 = 0.007$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.045$ for step 2 (p=0.006)

controlled for demographic variables (age, gender, tenure)

As shown in Table 4.8, the impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention is significantly negative (β =-.195, p=.006). Therefore, hypothesis 1(a) is supported.

Hypothesis 1(b): Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a negative impact on turnover intention.

Table 4.9 presents the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention after controlling for demographic variables.

^{**}significance level 0.01 (p<0.01)

Table 4.9: Impact of Hygiene Factors on Turnover Intention

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	2.190		
	Age	0.018	0.078	1.049
	Gender	0.093	0.048	0.669
	Tenure	-0.002	-0.017	-0.228
Step 2	(Constant)	4.238		
	Age	0.014	0.060	0.847
	Gender	-0.002	-0.001	-0.017
	Tenure	-0.004	-0.031	-0.447
	Hygiene factors	-0.498	-0.338***	-4.997

Note: $R^2 = 0.007$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.119$ for step 2 (p=0.000)

controlled for demographic variables (age, gender, tenure)

As shown in Table 4.9, the impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention is significant / not significant (β =-0.338), p=.001. Therefore, hypothesis 1(b) is supported.

Hypothesis 2: Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a stronger impact on turnover intention than motivating factors.

In order to compare the difference between the strength of impact on turnover intention for hygiene factors and motivating factors, employee motivation factors were categorised into two groups according to Herzberg's two-factor theory. Table 4.10 presents the hierarchical multiple regression analysis of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors and motivating factors on turnover intention after controlling for demographic variables.

^{***} significance level 0.0 (p<0.001)

Table 4.10: Impact of Hygiene Factors/Motivating Factors on Turnover Intention

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	2.190		
	Age	0.018	0.078	1.049
	Gender	0.093	0.048	0.669
	Tenure	-0.002	-0.017	-0.228
Step 2	(Constant)	4.238		
	Age	0.014	0.061	0.868
	Gender	0.000	0.000	0.003
	Tenure	-0.004	-0.030	-0.427
	Motivating factors	-0.053	-0.034	-0.444
	Hygiene factors	-0.472	-0.320***	-4.076

Note: $R^2 = 0.007$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.119$ for step 2 (p=0.000)

controlled for demographic variables (age, gender, tenure)

As shown in Table 4.10, the impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention is significant (β =-.320, p=.000). However, there is no effect of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on the employee turnover intention (β =-.034, p=.658). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported.

Table 4.11 shows the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for impact of employees' perceptions of individual hygiene factors on turnover intention after controlling for demographic variables.

^{***} significance level 0.0 (p<0.001)

Table 4.11: Impact of Individual Hygiene Factors on Turnover Intention

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	2.190		
	Age	0.018	0.078	1.049
	Gender	0.093	0.048	0.669
	Tenure	-0.002	-0.017	-0.228
Step 2	(Constant)	4.533		
	Age	0.006	0.028	0.379
	Gender	-0.021	-0.011	-0.156
	Tenure	-0.002	-0.019	-0.271
	Working conditions	-0.119	-0.112	-1.411
	Work-life balance	-0.108	-0.107	-1.146
	Pay	-0.046	-0.046	-0.545
	Company policy	-0.033	-0.036	-0.434
	Rewards	-0.172	-0.180*	-2.013
	Job security	0.126	0.120	1.327
	Relationships	-0.190	-0.175*	-2.359

Note: $R^2 = 0.007$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.155$ for step 2 (p=0.000)

Controlled for demographic variables (age, gender, tenure)

As shown in Table 4.11, amongst the various hygiene factors, two predictor variables had a statistically significant inverse relationship with turnover intention: rewards ($\beta = -0.180$, p=.05) and relationships ($\beta = -0.175$, p=.05), which is consistent with the findings derived from the correlation analysis (see Table 4.11) That is, the dissatisfaction with rewards and relationships would correlate relatively highly with turnover intention.

4.4.2 Motivating factors and SOCB

Hypothesis 3(a): Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a positive impact on SOCB.

^{*}significance level 0.05 (p<0.05)

Table 4.12 presents the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB after controlling for demographic variables.

Table 4.12: Impact of Motivating Factors on SOCB

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	3.945		
	Age	-0.008	-0.054	-0.721
	Gender	-0.066	-0.055	-0.775
	Tenure	0.002	0.023	0.308
Step 2	(Constant)	2.000		
	Age	-0.009	-0.065	-1.053
	Gender	-0.042	-0.035	-0.594
	Tenure	0.001	0.014	0.232
	Motivating factors	0.523	0.562***	9.581

Note: $R^2 = 0.005$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.320$ for step 2 (p=0.000)

controlled for demographic variables (age, gender, tenure)

As shown in Table 4.12, the impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB is significantly positive (β =.562, p=.000). Therefore, Hypothesis 3(a) is supported.

Hypothesis 3(b): Employees' perceptions of hygiene factors have a positive impact on SOCB.

Table 4.13 shows the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on SOCB after controlling for demographic variables.

^{***} significance level 0.0 (p<0.001)

Table 4.13: Impact of Hygiene Factors on SOCB

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	3.945		
	Age	-0.008	-0.054	-0.721
	Gender	-0.066	-0.055	-0.775
	Tenure	0.002	0.023	0.308
Step 2	(Constant)	2.164		
	Age	-0.044	-0.026	-0.402
	Gender	0.021	0.018	0.288
	Tenure	0.003	0.044	0.691
	Hygiene factors	0.455	0.507***	8.170

Note: $R^2 = 0.005$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.383$ for step 2 (p=0.000)

controlled for demographic variables (age, gender, tenure)

As shown in Table 4.13, the impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on SOCB is also significantly positive (β =.295, p=.000). Therefore, Hypothesis 3(b) is supported.

Hypothesis 4: Employees' perceptions of motivating factors have a stronger impact on SOCB than hygiene factors.

In order to compare the difference between the strength of impact on SOCB for hygiene factors and motivating factors, employee motivation factors were categorised into two groups according to Herzberg's two-factor theory. Table 4.14 presents the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors and hygiene factors on SOCB after controlling for demographic variables.

^{***} significance level 0.0 (p<0.001)

Table 4.14: Impact of Motivating Factors/Hygiene Factors on SOCB

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	3.945		
	Age	-0.008	-0.054	-0.721
	Gender	-0.006	-0.055	-0.775
	Tenure	0.002	0.023	0.308
Step 2	(Constant)	1.475		
	Age	-0.006	-0.046	-0.777
	Gender	0.003	0.002	0.038
	Tenure	0.002	0.029	0.495
	Motivating factors	0.386	0.414***	6.381
	Hygiene factors	0.264	0.295***	4.492

Note: $R^2 = 0.005$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.383$ for step 2 (p=0.000)

As shown in Table 4.14, the impact of hygiene factors on SOCB is significant (β =.295, p=.000), while the impact of motivating factors on SOCB (β =.414, p=.000) is more significant than that of hygiene factors. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is supported.

Table 4.15 shows the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the impact of individual motivating factors on SOCB after controlling for demographic variables. Table 4.16 shows the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the impact of individual hygiene Factors on SOCB after controlling for demographic variables.

^{***} significance level 0.0 (p<0.001) controlled for demographic variables

Table 4.15: Impact of Individual Motivating Factors on SOCB

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	3.945		
	Age	-0.008	-0.054	-0.721
	Gender	-0.066	-0.055	-0.775
	Tenure	0.002	0.023	0.308
Step 2	(Constant)	2.060		
	Age	-0.011	-0.078	-1.253
	Gender	-0.044	-0.037	-0.625
	Tenure	0.001	0.011	0.187
	Job interesting	0.211	0.295***	4.323
	Advancement	0.080	0.109	1.515
	Responsibility	0.119	0.182**	2.736
	Achievement	0.119	0.180*	2.559

Note: $R^2 = 0.005$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.331$ for step 2 (p=0.000) *significance level 0.05 (p<0.05) **significance level 0.01 (p<0.01) *** significance level 0.00 (p<0.001) controlled for demographic variables

Table 4.16: Impact of Individual Hygiene Factors on SOCB

Model		В	β	t
Step 1	(Constant)	3.945		
	Age	-0.008	-0.054	-0.721
	Gender	-0.066	-0.055	-0.775
	Tenure	0.002	0.023	0.308
Step 2	(Constant)	1.923		
	Age	0.001	0.009	0.130
	Gender	0.054	0.045	0.704
	Tenure	0.002	0.027	0.418
	Working conditions	0.027	0.042	0.568
	Work-life balance	0.021	0.034	0.396
	Pay	0.123	0.204**	2.593
	Company policy	0.123	0.219**	2.883
	Rewards	0.068	0.117	1.431
	Job security	-0.025	-0.039	-0.472
	Relationships	0.147	0.223***	3.260

Note: $R^2 = 0.005$ for step 1, $R^2 = 0.286$ for step 2 (p=0.000)

controlled for demographic variables (age, gender, tenure)

As shown in Tables 4.15 and 4.16, amongst the individual hygiene factors and motivating factors, six predictor variables had a statistically significant inverse relationship with employees' exhibition of SOCB: job interesting ($\beta = 0.295$), responsibility ($\beta = 0.182$), achievement ($\beta = 0.180$), pay ($\beta = 0.204$), company policy ($\beta = 0.219$) and relationships ($\beta = 0.223$). This is consistent with the findings derived from the correlation analysis (see Table 7). That is, these six motivating factors would correlate relatively highly with extra-role behaviours or SOCB.

4.4.3 Moderating effects

Hypothesis 5(a): Power distance moderates the negative impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention. The negative impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on turnover intention is stronger in high power distance.

^{**}significance level 0.01 (p<0.01)

^{***} significance level 0.00 (p<0.001)

To determine whether power distance played a moderating role between motivating factors and turnover intention, a multiple regression model was analysed as follows:

Model 1: Regress the outcome variable on the control variables: age, gender, tenure.

Model 2: Regress the outcome variable (turnover intention) on the mean centred predictor variable (motivating factors) and the mean centred moderator variable (power distance).

Model 3: Regress outcome variable (turnover intention) on the mean centred predictor variable (motivating factors) multiplied by the mean centred moderator variable (power distance).

Age, gender and tenure were used as control variables, but all three coefficients were not significant (Age, β =.078, p=.295; Gender, β =.048, p=.504; Tenure, β =-.017, p=.820). Table 4.17 presents the results.

Table 4.17: Regression Coefficients of Power Distance between Motivating Factors and Turnover Intention

Model		Model 1	Model 2 β	Model 3 β
	Age	0.078	0.074	0.127
	Gender	0.048	0.045	0.071
	Tenure	-0.017	0.019	0.039
	Motivating factors		-0.210**	-0.218**
	Power distance		0.143*	0.146*
	Motivating			0.239**
	factors*Power distance			
	R square	0.007	0.064	0.117
	R square change	0.007	0.057	0.053
	F change	0.466	5.994*	11.750**

Note: *significance level 0.05 (p<0.05)

As shown in Table 4.17, the R square of Model 2 is 0.064 and the R square of Model 3 is 0.117, which is 0.053 higher than Model 1 (R square change=.007, p=.001).

^{**}significance level 0.01 (p<0.01)

^{***} significance level 0.0 (p<0.001)

Regression of turnover intention on the interaction variable motivating factors*power distance was of great significance which supported the moderator hypothesis of power distance between motivating factors and turnover intentions. In Model 2, there is a significantly negative relationship between motivating factors and turnover intention (β =-.210, p=.003). In Model 3, the effect of power distance on turnover intention is significantly positive (β =.146, p=.037). The relationship between the interaction variable (motivating factors*power distance) and the outcome variable (turnover intention) is also significant (β =.239, p=.001). Therefore, it suggests that the moderating role of power distance on the relationship between motivating factors and turnover intention is significantly positive. Therefore, hypothesis 5(a) is supported.

Hypothesis 5(b): Power distance moderates the negative impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention. The negative impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on turnover intention is stronger in high power distance.

To determine whether power distance played a positive or negative moderating role on the relationship between hygiene factors and turnover intention, a multiple regression model was analysed as follows:

Model 1: Regress the outcome variable on the control variables: age, gender, tenure.

Model 2: Regress the outcome variable (turnover intention) on the mean centred predictor variable (hygiene factors) and the mean centred moderator variable (power distance).

Model 3: Regress outcome variable (turnover intention) on the mean centred predictor variable (hygiene factors) multiplied by the mean centred moderator variable (power distance).

Age, gender and tenure were used as control variables, but all three coefficients were not significant (Age, β =.078, p=.295; Gender, β =.048, p=.504; Tenure, β =-.017, p=.820). Table 4.18 presents the results.

Table 4.18: Regression Coefficients of Power Distance between Hygiene Factors and Turnover Intention

Model		Model 1	Model 2 β	Model 3 β
	Age	0.078	0.050	0.089
	Gender	0.048	0.002	0.048
	Tenure	-0.017	0.005	0.018
	Hygiene factors		-0.355***	-0.357***
	Power distance		0.160	0.136*
	Hygiene factors*Power			0.343***
	distance			
	R square	0.007	0.142	0.255
	R square change	0.007	0.135***	0.113***
	F change	0.466	15.510***	29.766***

Note: *significance level 0.05 (p<0.05); *** significance level 0.0 (p<0.001)

As shown in Table 4.18, the R square of Model 2 is 0.142 and the R square of Model 3 is 0.255, which is 0.113 higher than Model 1 (R square change=.007, p=.00). In Model 1, there is a significantly negative relationship between hygiene factors and turnover intention (β =-.355, p=.00). In Model 3, the effect of power distance on turnover intention is significantly positive (β =.136, p=.03). Additionally, the relationship between the interaction variable (hygiene factors*power distance) and the outcome variable (turnover intention) is also significant (β =.343, p=.00). This suggests that the moderating role of power distance on the relationship between hygiene factors and turnover intention is significantly positive. Therefore, hypothesis 5(b) is supported.

These findings indicate that the correlation of motivating factors and hygiene factors on turnover intention is higher for the high power distance group and lower for the low power distance group. Employees from high power distance nations generated higher levels of turnover intention when they perceived that lower levels of motivating factors and hygiene factors.

Hypothesis 6(a): Power distance moderates the positive impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB. The positive impact of employees' perceptions of motivating factors on SOCB is stronger in high power distance.

To determine whether power distance played a positive or negative moderating role on the relationship between motivating factors and SOCB, a multiple regression model was analysed as follows:

Model 1: Regress the outcome variable on the control variables: age, gender, tenure.

Model 2: Regress the outcome variable (SOCB) on the mean centred predictor variable (motivating factors) and the mean centred moderator variable (power distance).

Model 3: Regress the outcome variable (SOCB) on the mean centred predictor variable (motivating factors) multiplied by the mean centred moderator variable (power distance).

Age, gender and tenure were used as control variables, but all three coefficients were not significant (Age, β =-.045, p=.548; Gender, β =-.09, p=.216; Tenure, β =.004, p=.960). Table 4.19 presents the results.

Table 4.19: Regression Coefficients of Power Distance between Motivating Factors and SOCB

Model		Model 1	Model 2 β	Model 3 β
	Age	-0.045	-0.044	-0.061
	Gender	-0.088	-0.047	-0.046
	Tenure	0.004	0.015	0.008
	Motivating factors		0.353***	0.342***
	Power distance		0.036	0.026
	Motivating			-0.151×
	factors*Power distance			
	R square	0.009	0.239	0.251
	R square change	0.009	0.230	0.012
	F change	0.583	19.746	1.593

Note: *significance level 0.09 (p<0.10)

As shown in Table 4.19, in Model 2, there is a significantly positive relationship between motivating factors and SOCB (β =.353, p=.00). In Model 3, the effect of power distance on SOCB is positive (β =.026). However, the relationship between power

^{***} significance level 0.0 (p<0.001)

distance and SOCB is not significant (p=.687). Additionally, the relationship between the interaction variable (motivating factors*power distance) and the outcome variable (SOCB) is significant (β =-.151, p=.08). This suggests that the moderating role of power distance on the relationship between motivating factors and SOCB is significantly positive. Therefore, hypothesis 6(a) is partially supported.

Hypothesis 6(b): Power distance moderates the positive impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on SOCB. The positive impact of employees' perceptions of hygiene factors on SOCB is stronger in high power distance.

To determine whether power distance played a positive or negative moderating role between hygiene factors and SOCB, a multiple regression model was analysed as follows:

Model 1: Regress the outcome variable on the control variables: age, gender, tenure.

Model 2: Regress the outcome variable (SOCB) on the mean centred predictor variable (hygiene factors) and the mean centred moderator variable (power distance).

Model 3: Regress outcome variable (SOCB) on mean-centred predictor variable (hygiene factors) multiplied by the mean centred moderator variable (power distance).

Age, gender and tenure were used as control variables, but all three coefficients were not significant (Age, β =-.045, p=.548; Gender, β =-.09, p=.216; Tenure, β =.004, p=.960). Table 4.20 presents the results.

Table 4.20: Regression Coefficients of Power Distance between Hygiene Factors and SOCB

Model		Model 1	Model 2 β	Model 3 β
	Age	-0.045	-0.028	-0.022
	Gender	-0.088	-0.034	-0.027
	Tenure	0.004	0.032	0.034
	Hygiene factors		0.366***	0.366***
	Power distance		0.055	0.052
	Hygiene factors*Power			0.052
	distance			
	R square	0.009	0.147	0.149
	R square change	0.009	0.138	0.003
	F change	0.583	15.941	0.608

Note: *** significance level 0.0 (p<0.001)

As shown in Table 4.20, in Model 2, there is a significantly positive relationship between hygiene factors and SOCB (β =.366, p=.000). In Model 3, the effect of power distance on SOCB is positive (β =.052). However, the relationship between power distance and SOCB is not significant (p=.449). Additionally, the relationship between the interaction variable (hygiene factors*power distance) and the outcome variable (SOCB) is not significant (β =.052, p=.436). This suggests that there is no moderating role of power distance on the relationship between hygiene factors and SOCB. Therefore, hypothesis 6(b) was not supported. Table 4.21 provides a summary of the hypothesis test results.

Table 4.21: Hypothesis Test Results Summary

Hypothesis	Supported	Unsupported	Table Number
H1 (a): $MF \rightarrow TI$	√		Table 4.8
H1 (b): HF \rightarrow TI	$\sqrt{}$		Table 4.9
H2: H1 (a) < H1 (b)	V		Table 4.10
H3 (a): MF \rightarrow SOCB	$\sqrt{}$		Table 4.12
H3 (b): HF \rightarrow SOCB	$\sqrt{}$		Table 4.13
H4: H3 (a) > H3 (b)	V		Table 4.14
H5 (a): MF \rightarrow PD $\uparrow \rightarrow$ TI \uparrow	$\sqrt{}$		Table 4.17
H5 (b): HF \rightarrow PD $\uparrow \rightarrow$ TI \uparrow	$\sqrt{}$		Table 4.18
- (): 1	√×		Table 4.19
H6 (a): MF \rightarrow PD $\uparrow \rightarrow$ SOCB \uparrow H6 (b): HF \rightarrow PD $\uparrow \rightarrow$ SOCB \uparrow	\^^	√	Table 4.19

Note: Motivating Factors(MF); Hygiene Factors(HF); Power Distance(PD); Turnover Intention(TI); Service-oriented Organizational Citizenship Behaviour(SOCB); $\sqrt{\times}$ (Partially Supported)

Chapter 5:Discussion

The primary purpose of this study was to understand the impact of motivating factors on frontline hospitality employees' work outcomes (turnover intention, SOCB) and to examine how these impacts are moderated by one cultural dimension (power distance). This chapter summarises and refines the core findings. It also outlines the theoretical and practical implications of the findings by discussing them in relation to the data analysis results and previous literature. It concludes with some limitations of the study and some recommendations for future research.

5.1 Summary of key findings

Of the 203 respondents, 57.6% were female and 42.4% were male. Additionally, 53.5% of the respondents were between 25 and 31 years old. These findings are consistent with data from Mooney (2014), which showed that the majority of New Zealand's hospitality workers are Generation Y females. More than 70% of respondents were from the foodservice sub-sector and the remaining respondents were from other hospitality industry sub-sectors such as accommodation and tourism. This is consistent with the hospitality industry report provided by Westpac New Zealand (2016), which reported that the foodservice sub-sector contributes the most jobs within the hospitality industry, as approximately 50% of jobs are related to food service. In addition, the Anova analysis results of this study indicated that compared with respondents from Western nations, respondents who were Chinese, Korean and Indian had significantly high mean power distance scores (see Table 4.3). These findings are consistent with Hofstede's power distance index.

Results showed that hygiene factors had a significantly negative impact on turnover intention. The most influential hygiene factors were rewards (β =-.180, p=.045) and relationships (β =-.175, p=.019). These findings indicate that employee turnover intention is relatively highly correlated with employees' perceptions of rewards and relationships in the workplace. However, compared with hygiene factors, motivating factors had no impact on employee turnover. This was not the case for SOCB, as compared with hygiene factors, motivating factors had significantly positive effects on employees' SOCB.

Results also showed power distance played a moderating role on relationships between employee motivation and turnover intention. Multiple regression analysis showed the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between hygiene factors and turnover intention was significantly positive. Additionally, the moderating role of power distance on the relationship between motivating factors and turnover intention was also significantly positive.

Multiple regression analysis revealed the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between motivating factors and participation behaviour to be significantly negative, while the moderating role of power distance on the relationship between motivating factors and participation behaviour was not significant.

5.2 Research and practical implications

The primary purpose of this section is to provide academic researchers and hospitality practitioners with theoretical and practical implications of the results according to one of the question "Who cares?" proposed by Whetten (1989).

5.2.1 Research implications

From a theoretical perspective, the data from this study was collected from the New Zealand hospitality industry. Although the study's sample size was limited, this research successfully explained the different effects of motivating factors and hygiene factors on employee turnover intention and SOCB from a New Zealand hospitality industry perspective (Herzberg, 2003; Poulston, 2009; Rodriguez, 2010). As mentioned in section 2.4, previous academic articles have highlighted controversial issues related to Herzberg's two-factor theory. However, this study's results indicated some support for Herzberg's two-factor theory, thereby suggesting that Herzberg's two-factor theory can be utilized for research analysing employee motivation. This study also successfully investigated the moderating role of cultural differences by analysing more than 10 ethnicities from Auckland.

This study fills a gap in the existing literature by linking employee motivation and cultural differences (power distance) to investigate the impact of motivation and culture on employee turnover intention and SOCB in New Zealand hospitality industry.

Although various academic articles have analysed turnover intention and SOCB in the hospitality industry by using job satisfaction, organisational commitment and social exchange theory, fewer academic articles have examined employee SOCB and turnover intention along with culture and employee motivation in the current hospitality industry (Rodriguez, 2010).

Although various academic researchers have justified the validity of power distance by comparing different national power distance index samples from different nations, there is still contention amongst many other researchers in terms of opinions regarding the validity of Hofstede's power distance index (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). This is because deeper cultural values change slowly, and due to the dynamics of culture, the power distance index would be expected to change too. Indeed, it has been suggested that the power distance index is changing with technological and societal development (Fang, 2003). However, this study supports some of the Hofstede's power distance index by comparing power distance amongst different ethnic groups within the same location: Auckland, New Zealand. As power distance amongst different ethnic groups was found to be consistent with Hofstede's power index, this study's results support Hofstede's power distance index and further studies can also examine the power distance index in different locations.

Multiple regression analysis showed the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between motivating factors and SOCB to be significantly positive. As mentioned in section 2.6.1, power distance can also affect empowerment. When power is centralised at a high level, low-level employees are less likely to be empowered by their leaders in high power distance nations (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Koc, 2013). Due to the scarcity of empowerment, low-level employees may not have much power to work in the way they would think to. In other words, low-positioned workers might only follow the operating guidelines or the way their leaders think the work should be done. (Koc, 2013). This situation will initially decrease employees' SOCB, further decreasing the creativity in organisations (Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers & Stam, 2010). Therefore, employees' exhibitions of SOCB are more significantly negatively correlated with a high level of centralised power in high power distance

nations than in low power distance nations (Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers & Stam, 2010).

Finally, this research has illustrated that power distance can be used as a moderator in job motivation factor studies. The highly significant moderating impact of power distance on the relationship between hygiene factors and turnover intention, and on the relationship between motivating factors and SOCB has rarely been studied in hospitality management. As the moderating role of power distance has been established by this study, future research could improve the generalisability of this finding by analysing the moderating role of power distance in other nations and in other industries. Future research could also use power distance as the moderator variable to investigate the relationship between hygiene factors and employee retention.

5.2.2 Practical implications

Firstly, this study may provide hospitality practitioners with a platform to consider motivating factors for effective prevention of employee turnover and for motivating employees to exhibit SOCB more frequently. There is no significant relationship between employees' perceptions of motivating factors and turnover intention. However, there are significant relationships between employees' perceptions of hygiene factors and turnover intention, such as relationships and rewards. This suggests that hospitality industry practitioners could provide more rewards and build better relationships with subordinates in order to effectively prevent employee turnover. However, there is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of motivating factors and employees' extra-role behaviours. This suggests that hospitality managers could motivate employees to perform more extra-role behaviours by leveraging more motivating factors, such as a sense of responsibility, empowerment or providing opportunities for career advancement.

Secondly, this study may also provide hospitality practitioners with a platform to consider cultural differences (in terms of power distance) for effectively preventing employee turnover and motivating employees to exhibit SOCB in terms of participation behaviour. Multiple regression analysis revealed the moderating effect of power distance in the relationship between hygiene factors and turnover intention to be significantly positive. Additionally, the moderating role of power distance in the

relationship between motivating factors and turnover intention is also significantly positive. According to Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010), significant wealth inequalities prevail in high power distance nations. This situation suggests that there is a big payment and rewards gap between low-level employees and high-level employees in high power distance nations. Therefore, employee turnover intention is more significantly affected by the high level of monetary inequalities in high power distance nations than it is in low power distance nations (Sledge, Miles & Coppage, 2008).

Managers may need to tailor their human resource management policies to the different requirements of employees based on different values arising from power distance. For instance, the findings of this study revealed that the relationship between hygiene factors and turnover intention was more significantly negative for employees from high power distance nations than it was for employees who came from low power distance nations. Therefore, in order to effectively reduce employee turnover in high power distance nations, managers may need to improve employees' hygiene factors, such as offering rewards or ensuring good interrelationships between co-workers.

Finally, results showed that for employees who come from low power distance nations, the relationship between motivating factors and SOCB is more significantly positive than it is for employees who come from high power distance nations. This finding could offer managers direction for adjusting their internal marketing strategies. In order to effectively motivate employees to exhibit SOCB, managers may need to improve more employees' perceptions of motivating factors in low power distance nations. For example, in order to effectively motivate employees to exhibit SOCB, hospitality employers may need to improve employees' perceptions of self-achievement (motivating factor) in low power distance nations. The last two practical implications relating to cultural differences and preventing employee turnover while encouraging SOCB may improve the employer's cultural intelligence (CQ) at the organisational level.

5.3 Limitations and suggestions for future research

There were a few limitations in this study. Firstly, due to the low reliability of measurement in terms of one Hofstede's cultural dimensions

(individualism/collectivism), no further data analysis relating to the moderating role of individualism/collectivism could be done in this study. Although few studies have revealed the moderating role of individualism/collectivism in the relationships between employee motivating factors, turnover intention and SOCB, the moderating role of individualism/collectivism could be interpreted by previous research (Hu, Horng & Sun, 2009; Lin, 2007; Nibler & Harris, 2003). There are several common features between individualism/collectivism and low power distance/high power distance (Schermerhorn & Harris Bond, 1997). Individualism and collectivism can be defined as two different extent integrations that the individual integrates into the collective of people in society (Brewer, & Venaik, 2011). The ties between individuals are loose in high individualism nations (Hofstede., Minkov & Hofstede, 2010). However, collectivism values a high degree of individual integration into collective groups (Brewer & Venaik, 2011). This suggests that people who are more influenced by collectivist culture are more likely to be concerned about others' feelings (Hofstede., Minkov & Hofstede, 2010). Therefore, future research could adopt Hofstede's cultural dimension (individualism/collectivism) to analyse the moderating role of culture on the relationship between employees' perceptions of motivating factors and behaviour (turnover intention and participation behaviour).

Finally, this study only collected the data from hospitality organisations in Auckland, New Zealand. This geographical limitation may mean that responses from Auckland might not reflect responses of the overall New Zealand hospitality industry population. Additionally, as Asian participants made up nearly 90% of the total respondents, this sample presented a sample bias toward Asians. Due to the restrictions of budget and time, the sample size of this study was small (203), which may also decrease the reliability of this study. Therefore, future research could be conducted outside Auckland in New Zealand with a probability sampling method and larger sample size to examine the reliability and representativeness of this study.

5.4 Conclusion

The hospitality industry contributes significantly to New Zealand's total GDP and provides significant job opportunities in New Zealand. This suggests that the hospitality industry plays a prominent role in New Zealand's economic wellbeing. However, the

high employee turnover rate and low level of employee SOCB (participation behaviour) may decrease the competitiveness of the New Zealand hospitality industry. Although there is an increasing body of research adopting motivating factors to analyse employee turnover intention and SOCB (participation behaviour), little research has considered the moderating effects of the cultural dimension of power distance.

The primary purpose of this study was to understand the impact of motivating factors on front-line employees' turnover intentions and SOCB and examine how these impacts were moderated by power distance in alignment with other studies. The findings of this study have testified the moderating role of power distance on the relationship between motivating factors and turnover intention as well as on the relationship between motivating factors and SOCB (participation behaviour). Researchers could be inspired by this study but the geographical limitation, sample size and sample bias could decrease the reliability of the research. Moreover, hospitality industry practitioners may be able to adjust their internal marketing strategies and practices to prevent employee turnover and encourage more extra-role behaviours by considering the implications of cultural dimension (power distance) presented by this study.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Participant information and questionnaire



Participant Information

The impact of motivational and cultural factors on the employees' service-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour in the New Zealand hospitality industry.

What is the purpose of this study?

Hello we are the researchers from Auckland University of Technology. Thanks for taking your valuable time to read this participant information sheet. This study aims to test whether motivational and cultural factors affect employees' Service-oriented Organisational Citizenship Behaviour(SOCB) in the New Zealand hospitality industry. The findings of this survey will mainly be used to partially fulfil the requirements of my master's degree. Moreover, the competitiveness of the New Zealand hospitality industry might be maintained by this study. This is because the findings of this survey could provide industry practitioners and academics with an insight into the hospitality employees' SOCB needs of motivational factors in a culturally diverse context.

You are being asked to take part in the study for the following reasons:

You are hospitality front-line (customer contact) employee.

You are currently employed by the New Zealand hospitality organisation.

You have basic contextual understanding of the hospitality industry (working experience for no fewer than one month).

If you do not meet the criteria mentioned above, thank you so much for your interests but this study will only target on the suitable respondents who meet the criteria mentioned above.

The participants will not provide any identifying information such as your name, mobile phone numbers or physical addresses. This questionnaire for this research will only collect anonymous data. Therefore, the respondents' privacy will be fully protected. Additionally, the digital data from respondents will be saved in a password-protected external hard drive. The external hard drive will be only accessed by the researcher and his supervisors.

What will be involved?

Firstly, the participant information sheet will be presented. Then, you will be asked to fill out an online questionnaire. The questions asked in the online questionnaire are all general and non-sensitive questions, which are mainly relating to your job motivation, SOCB and turnover intention. All answers will be anonymous and will not be linked to your personal details. If you start to answer the questionnaire, it means that you consent to participate in this survey. Moreover, If you are not willing to answer the questionnaire within the answering period, you can withdraw from this questionnaire survey.

If you agree to pariticpate in this research, you will asked to fill out an online questionnaire. Completing the questionnaire will take you 10 to 15 minutes. The findings of this study will be posted on the website, you can use the link below to find the findings.

Hopefully, these will be helpful to your hospitality management (organizational behaviour) study.

Findings link: http://m.facebook.com/mvoungho.jung.9

If you have any concerns regarding the nature of this project you should, in the first instance, contact the supervisors of this study. If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research you should notify the Executive Secretary of AUTEC, Kate O' Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 6038.

Supervisors contacting details

Primary supervisor

Associate Professor Peter B Kim

Phone: +64 9 921 9999 ext 6105

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Date: 13/ March/ 2018

Resercher contacting details Student Minghao Zheng

Phone: +64 21 08393795

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Part One

By completing this survey, you are considering to take part in the research.

		Yes		No	
1. Are you over 18 years old?		0		0	
2. Are you currently working in a hospitality organisation?		0		0	
3. Have you been working at the current job for more than one month?		0		0	
Part Two: Job motivation					
Please assess the extent of you job.	r agreement with th Strongly disagree	ne following stateme	ents in terms of job	motivation attribu	ites at the current
I think my job is interesting.	0	0	0	0	0
I believe my efforts at work are acknowledged (e.g. praise from supervisors).	0	0	0	0	0
3. I believe that opportunities for personal career advancement (e.g. work skill development, career experience accumulation, etc) are	0	0	0	0	0

4. I feel a sense of responsibility.	0	0	0	0	0	
5. I feel a sense of achievement.	0	0	0	0	0	

Please assess the extent of your agreement with the following statements in terms of job hygiene attributes at the current job.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I believe that the working environment is comfortable.	0	0	0	0	0
I believe that my job offers me enough work-life balance (e.g. schedule flexibility).	0	0	0	0	0
3. I believe that my pay is good.	0	0	0	0	0
I believe that people- oriented company policies (e.g. paid sick leave) are available.	0	0	0	0	0
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
5. I believe that opportunities for getting rewards (e.g. bonuses, commissions, free trips, etc.) are available.	0	0	0	0	0
6. I believe that I have enough job security.	0	0	0	0	0

7. I believe that I have good relationships with colleagues and management groups.	0	0	0	0	0
Part Three: Serivce-oriented org	ganisational citi	izenship behaviou	r		
How often do you perform the follo	owing loyalty bel	naviours at the curre	ent job?		
	Never	Sometimes	About half the time	Most of the time	Always
Tells outsiders this is a good place to work.	0	0	0	0	0
Says good things about organisations to others.	0	0	0	0	0
Generates favourable goodwill for the company.	0	0	0	0	0
Encourages friends and family to use firm's products and services.	0	0	0	0	0
5. Actively promotes the firm's products and services.	0	0	0	0	0

How often do you perform the following service-delivery behaviours at the current job?

	Never	Sometimes	About half the time	Most of the time	Always
Follows customer-service guidelines with extreme care.	0	0	0	0	0
Conscientiously follows guidelines for customer promotions.	0	0	0	0	0
Follows up in a timely manner to customer requests and problems.	0	0	0	0	0
Performs duties with unusually few mistakes.	0	0	0	0	0
5. Always has a positive attitude at work.	0	0	0	0	0
Regardless of circumstances, exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers.	0	0	0	0	0
How often do you perform the foll	owing participation	on behaviours at the	e current job?		
	Never	Sometimes	About half the time	Most of the time	Always
Encourages co-workers to contribute ideas and suggestions for service improvement.	0	0	0	0	0

Contributes many ideas for customer promotions and communications.	0	0	0	0	0
Makes constructive suggestions for service improvement.	0	0	0	0	0
Frequently presents to others creative solutions to customer problems.	0	0	0	0	0
5. Take home brochures to read up on products and services.	0	0	0	0	0
Part Four: Turnover intentions					
Please assess the extent of your	agreement with th	e following stateme	nts in terms of job	urnover intention	ns at the current job.
Please assess the extent of your	agreement with th Strongly disagree	e following stateme Disagree	nts in terms of job t	urnover intention	ns at the current job. Strongly agree
Please assess the extent of your 1.1 often think about quitting.	Strongly				
1. I often think about	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

Part Five: Tow cultural dimensions

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Individualism/Collectivism

	Extremely Uncharacteristic of Me	Uncharacteristic of Me	Moderately Characteristic of Me	Characteristic of Me	Extremely Characteristic of Me
I enjoy being unique and different from other co- workers in many ways.	0	0	0	0	0
I think the interrelationships between I and my co-workers are important.	0	0	0	0	0
I prefer to be direct and forthright when discussing with my co-workers.	0	0	0	0	0

Power distance

	Extremely Uncharacteristic of Me	Uncharacteristic of Me	Moderately Characteristic of Me	Characteristic of Me	Extremely Characteristic of Me
I think the employees should be expected to follow their leaders without question in the organisation.	0	0	0	0	0
I think the supervisors/managers should be expected to make decisions on their own without explaining these decisions to subordinates.	0	0	0	0	0

I think the power should be concentrated on the top of the organisation.	0	0	0	0	0
Part Six: Demographic questio	ons				
1. What year were you born?					
~					
2. What is your gender?					
Male		Female		Not declared	
3. What country were you born in?					
		V			
4. What is your highest tertiary qual	ification?				
None	Undergraduate co Diploma O		Bachelor	Postgra O	

5. What is your legal status in New Zealand?

 Citizenship Resident visa Student visa Work visa Working holiday visa Others
6. How long have you worked at the current organisation? Month(s)
7. What kind of hospitality organisation it is?
8. What is your current job title?
8. What is your current job title?
8. What is your current job title?

Appendix B: Ethics Approval Letter from AUTEC



Auckland University of Technology D-88, WU406 Level 4 WU Building City Campus T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316 E: ethics@aut.ac.nz www.aur.ac.nz/researchethics



28 March 2018

BeamCheol (Peter) Kim Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear BeamCheol (Peter)

Re: Ethics Application: 18/116 The impact of motivational and cultural factors on the employees" serviceoriented organisational citizenship behaviour in the New Zealand hospitality industry

Thank you for your request for approval of an amendment to your ethics application.

I have approved the minor amendment to your ethics application allowing an change to question 8 on the survey.

I remind you of the Standard Conditions of Approval.

- A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available
 online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics.
- A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics.
- Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics.
- 4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
- Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation then you are responsible for obtaining it. If the research is undertaken outside New Zealand, you need to meet all locality legal and ethical obligations and requirements.

For any enquiries please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz

J. Ocurar

Yours sincerely,

Kate O'Connor Executive Manager

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: wz5453@aut.ac.nz