

The Critical Antecedents to Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: Empirical Evidences from North Cyprus Service Industry

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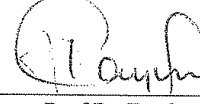
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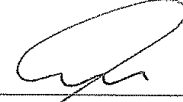
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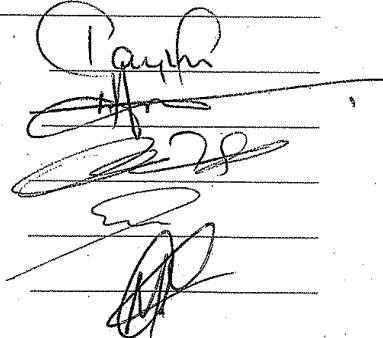


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ABSTRACT

The Critical Antecedents to Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: Empirical Evidences from North Cyprus Service Industry

This empirical study aims to investigate the effect of management commitment to service quality (MCSQ), intrinsic motivation (INT), polychronicity (POLY), nepotism (NEPO), and job satisfaction (JSAT) on hotel frontline employees' (FLEs) organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) in hotel setting in North Cyprus. This thesis has applied a quantitative research approach and PLS method was used to analyze the hypothesized relationships. The sample in this study consisted of FLEs (e.g., front desk agents, room attendants, food servers, and concierges) in 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels in North Cyprus. In this research, the total number of usable questionnaires was 317 and the response rate was calculated to be 63.4%.

This thesis presented an integrative model to test the aforementioned effects and relationships. With the exception of the relationship between polychronicity and job satisfaction, all hypothesized relationships were supported. Significantly, while education was found to be negatively related to FLEs' job satisfaction, on the other hand it was found to be positively related to their OCBs. Also, tenure was found to be positively related with job satisfaction. As a first in the service management literature, this paper provides implications for managers in terms of minimizing the negative effects of nepotism on FLEs' citizenship behaviors.

The current study by adding untried dispositional antecedents such as polychronicity and intrinsic motivation in its conceptual model of OCBs in a hotel

setting lends further contributions to OCBs literature and provides useful guidelines to practitioners as well. This study by being conducted in North Cyprus, sought to expand this line of research by including different sociocultural context that added uniqueness to our model.

Keywords: Organizational citizenship behaviors, frontline employees, service management, management commitment to service quality, intrinsic motivation, nepotism, polychronicity

ÖZET

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışlarına İlişkin Kritik Etkenler: Kuzey

Kıbrıs Hizmet Endüstrisine Yönelik Empirikal Bulgular

Kuzey Kıbrıs hotel endüstrisine yönelik olarak yapılan bu çalışmanın amacı yönetimin hizmet kalitesine olan inisiyatiflerinin, içsel motivasyonun, polikronik kişiliğin, nesebi kayırmacılığın, ve iş tatminkarlığının örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları üzerine olan etkisini araştırmaktır. Bu tez çalışmasında sayısal analiz yaklaşımı benimsenmiş olup, hipotezsel ilişkilerin istatistiksel analizlemelerinde ise Partial Least Squares (PLS) metodu kullanılmıştır. Bu Çalışma örneklemi Kuzey Kıbrıs'daki 3, 4, ve 5 yıldızlı otellerde çalışan önhat personelinden oluşur. Bu çalışmadaki kullanılabilir anket sayısı 317 olup, katılım oranı ise yüzde 63.4 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Bu tez çalışması amaçlanan ilişkileri test etmek üzere integratif bir model geliştirmiştir. Yapılan analizler sonucunda, polikronik kişilik ile iş tatminkarlığı arasındaki ilişki hariç tüm hipotezler kabul görmüştür. Çalışanların eğitim düzeyleri ile iş tatminkarlığı arasında negatif bir ilişki bulunurken, çalışanların eğitim düzeyleri ile vatandaşlık davranışları arasındaki ilişki ise pozitif olarak bulunmuştur. Bunun yanı sıra, çalışanların iş tecrübesi ile iş tatminkarlıkları arasında da pozitif bir ilişki saptanmıştır.

Bu çalışma hizmet yönetimi literatüründe bir ilk olarak nesebi kayırmacılığın örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları üzerindeki negatif etkilerini azaltmak manasında önemli tavsiye ve imalarda bulunmaktadır.

Bu alıřma, otelcilik kontekstinde geliřtirmiř olduėu rgtsel vatandaşlık davranıřları modeline daha nceleri denenmemiř olan polikronik ve isel motivasyon gibi kiřisel nclleri koyarak OCB literatrne katkı saėlamıř olup ilgili endstriye de faydalı direktifler sunmuřtur. Aynı zamanda, bu tr bir alıřmanın Kuzey Kıbrıs gibi farklı bir sosyokltrel yapıda denenmiř olması alıřma modelimize ayrı bir farklılık kazandırmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: rgtsel vatandaşlık davranıřları, hizmet ynetimi, ncephe alıřanları, hizmet kalitasine ynelik ynetim baėlılıėı, i motivasyon, nesebi kayırmıcılık, polikronik kiřilik

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Today's market is a competitive one. Organizations can increase their competitive advantage by offering better and high quality services and goods to their customers in comparison to their rivals (Chacko, 1998; Francis et al., 2006; Kotler & Keller, 2007). An important way attaining such competitive advantages is to develop human resource (Frei, 2008). The achievement of the service organizations mostly depends on frontline employees (FLEs; foodservers, front desk agents, bell staff, and floor attendants) who have very close and constant interactions with guests and customers. Prosocial behaviours – in other words, citizenship and customer service behaviours that are additional to the requirements of a role – have become crucial for the service industry (Chebat et al., 2002; Karatepe & Ehsani, 2012; Ma & Qu, 2011). However, Mei (2009) stressed that the number of empirical studies conducted on service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) are limited.

Specially, Bienstock et al. (2003) showed that FLE's discretionary behaviours not officially assigned by the job prescriptions – organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) – impact the service quality delivered to the consumers. Hence, citizenship behaviours are essential to service practitioners in order to encourage this type of behaviours and very important issue for advancing organizational performance (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Thus, for creating higher organizational performance, OCBs increase employee and manager productivity, make resources available to be used for more useful aims, improve connection and harmony between team members, strengthen capability of organization to encourage and retain the best staff, increase the continuity of organizational effort, and enhance the ability of organization in adapting rapid changes in the business environment (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2000).

This is more important for new developing tourism destinations like North Cyprus, where the services industry comprises the biggest sector in the wider economy and contributes a significant percentage of the gross domestic product (GDP) (Alipour & Kilic, 2005; Altinay et al., 2002). However, North Cyprus has been unsuccessful in attracting the expected number of potential tourists, although it has the considerable advantage of beautiful scenery and multiple activities on offer for tourists. Because the recent studies have revealed that North Cyprus tourism has been facing serious managerial problems such as companies face human resource challenges, scarcity of organizational resources, and poor service quality (Alipour & Kilic, 2005; Arasli et al., 2006; Arasli & Karadal, 2009; Daskin, 2012; Daskin & Tezer, 2012; Kilic & Okumus, 2005).

In this regard, competitive organizations should focus on hiring and retaining employees who are helpful, engaged, and cooperative, often beyond the call of duty. Initially, Katz and Kahn (1966) and Bateman and Organ (1983) have been emphasized on the importance of these behaviours for organizational effectiveness. In fact, they argue that organizations need to be aware of the importance of extra-role service behaviours in order to be effective. Since then, OCBs has become an important issue for the management scholars (Hoffman et al., 2007; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

The focus of the majority of the existing research has resulted from the belief that OCBs have the ability to measurably improve effectiveness and efficiency within organisations (Organ et al., 2006).

OCBs include two main types of behaviour. The first behaviour is directed towards specific people or groups; known as interpersonal helping. The second type of behaviour contributes more towards the overall effectiveness of the organisation as a whole, though conscientiousness and attitudes towards working. According to Organ et al. (2006), these behaviours appear in the form of sportsmanship, civic virtue, individual initiative, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, and self-development. These types of behaviours are considered to be additional to those already required from the role, and they are likely to support task performance and efficiency within the organisation by facilitating psychological and social contexts (Organ, 1997).

Staff members with high levels of OCBs are typically more willing to get involved in all aspects of their role and the wider organisation (Chen et al., 1998) and are expectedly involve in discretionary behaviour (Organ et al., 2006) and reduce staff turnover (Chen et al., 1998). In other words, OCBs are expected to benefit the organisation via extra-role behaviours from staff that interact with customers; behaviours that enhance customer loyalty and relationships (Deckop et al., 2003; Pelozo & Hassay, 2006; Sun & Lin, 2010).

Against this backdrop, the expectation that OCBs is functionally related with organizational performance and then the service quality has provoked investigators to search for the predictors to it (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ et al., 2006; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). For example, various antecedents have been identified such as individual, task, and organizational characteristics (Podsakoff et al.,

2000). Also, two main categories of personal characteristics including employees' attitudes and dispositional variables have been identified by Podsakoff et al. (2000). The results of fifty-five research studies conducted by Organ and Ryan (1995) demonstrated that the attitudes and job satisfaction levels of staff members are better predictors of OCBs than dispositional variables.

The success of service industry businesses is highly dependent on those frontline employees who constantly interact with customers. As such, the OCBs of these staff members (including both their expected and extra-role customer service behaviours) are a crucial area of interest for this industry (Bienstock et al., 2003; Ma & Qu, 2011). Based on this reality, this thesis proposes and tests a model by using a sample of hotel FLEs in North Cyprus as its setting to investigate the impact of contextual factors (MCSQ and nepotism), attitudinal factor (job satisfaction), and dispositional factors (intrinsic motivation and polychronicity) on OCBs.

The rationale for adding these antecedents is that the extant research confirms that MCSQ (management commitment to service quality) initiatives in working environment have a significant effect on service employee behaviour (Babakus et al., 2003; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Rod & Ashill, 2010). Fuller et al. (2003) suggested that staff members are expected to be committed to a company if they perceive that the company is committed to them and their development. For intrinsic motivation and polychronicity, Amabile et al. (1994) stressed that intrinsically motivated behaviour is self-motivated such that an employee undertakes an activity for its own sake. The results in feelings of accomplishment, self-fulfilment, and activity-itself matter. Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources Theory proposes that individuals who possess intrinsic motivation show more resistance against demanding situations.

The nature of the hospitality industry requires frontline position holders to engage in a number of tasks in challenging service encounters of organization. This is not surprising, because FLEs are the face of a hospitality firm and are expected to offer high quality customer services and successfully handle customer complaints and problems (Karatepe & Kilic, 2007). Under these circumstances, it seems necessary for executives to generate a pool of frontline employees who can display meticulous efforts for accomplishing various tasks (Cetinel et al., 2009).

FLEs remain underpaid, undertrained, and overworked (Arasli et al., 2006; Daskin, 2011; Daskin & Tezer, 2012; Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006). Specifically, this is the reality of hotel sector in developing countries like North Cyprus, employment of intrinsically-motivated and polychronic individuals may play a significant role in this process. Also, very limited number of empirical research conducted on these employee characteristics in the hotel industry. Bearing this in mind, there is a need for research that explores the characteristics of FLEs due to their wide and varied roles within hotels (including polychronicity and the intrinsic motivation levels of these staff).

On the other hand, the practice of nepotism is considered highly unprofessional (Arasli & Tumer, 2008; Bute, 2011). Bellow (2003, p. 11) defines nepotism as “favouritism based on kinship”. According to Abdalla et al. (1998) “Nepotism is generally seen as using family influence in order to employ relatives”. Nepotism is often more tolerated in small countries, as well as being dependent on the economic, political, educational and socio-cultural circumstances at any given time (Arasli et al., 2006). This study will firstly explore the impact of nepotism on OCBs. This is a relatively under-researched area. To date, the influences of nepotism have generally been investigated at a macro level rather than at an organisational level, leading to a

paucity of research (Boadi, 2000; Mutlu, 2000). This study aims to search how much FLE jobs are attractive to trigger pressure for nepotism.

Significantly, attitudinal antecedents have been found to make the most concordant influences on OCBs, while researchers have found a wide range of predictors to OCBs (Organ & Ryan, 1995). The existing research points to a significant correlation among job satisfaction and OCBs (e.g., Lapierre & Hackett, 2007; Ngunia et al., 2006; Schappe, 1998). This makes reasonable to assume that job satisfaction is positively related to OCBs. After all, it is natural for frontline staff members who are satisfied with their job to reciprocate with positive behaviours, including OCBs.

Significance of the present thesis is to enrich the related literature in several ways. Firstly, it investigates OCBs in the context of the service industry. The majority of studies into OCBs to date have been conducted in the manufacturing context (e.g., Bitner, 1990; Morrison, 1994). This is despite the fact that the service industry is a growing and important one, which contributes to GDP, and also despite the fact that OCBs in the service industry are arguably more important than in manufacturing. This is because there are far more customer-facing roles in service organisations (Bartel, 2004), and employees' behaviour within these roles can influence the reputation of an organisation (Schneider & Bowen, 1993). In order to meet or exceed customer expectations, staff members in the service industry need to be flexible and able to adapt their behaviours in order to deal with the highly individualized nature of customer needs. This shows that OCBs have a crucial role in the service industry (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2003). Organisations within this industry, such as hotels, need to establish a climate in which their employees are able to exhibit the necessary OCBs, which will ultimately

enhance the business (Filipem et al., 2010). Therefore, the current study aims to explore OCBs in a hotel setting.

Second, the cultural norms and values of the community impact OCBs. For example, Clugston et al. (2000) posits that the discretion degree attributed to an individual is affected by the rate of power distance in a society affects. Culture constrains both the theories and solutions to the organizational matters have developed the theories related to OCBs (Aycan et al., 2000). Farh et al. (1997) contended that there is no much empirical research conducted on citizenship behaviours in a global context. According to Cohen (2007), despite OCBs has been extensively studied, its practicability in other cultural contexts other than the United States has not been surveyed broadly. Paine and Organ (2000) contended that OCB-like behaviours might be encouraged or discouraged by the cultural context or influenced by the working conditions (i.e., rewards) that induce citizenship behaviours.

Finally, and despite expectations, the existing literature has shown the differences in personality traits are poor predictors of employee engagement with OCBs (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Literature reviews and meta-analyses have instead shown that work-based attitudes (such as job satisfaction) and contextual aspects (such as organisational culture and leadership issues) are much stronger predictors of OCBs (Lepine et al., 2002; Organ et al., 2006; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Expectedly, the current thesis by being conducted in North Cyprus hotel industry, seeks to hypothesize the effect of individual differences on OCBs in a different cultural context.

In conclusion, OCBs have been chosen for research due to their positive correlation with unit performance. In turn, by measuring OCBs, it is possible to determine how to

increase unit performance and, ultimately, service quality. The present thesis aims to investigate the effect of the following on FLE's OCBs: job satisfaction, polychronicity, intrinsic motivation, nepotism and MCSQ. The current thesis contributes to the existing literature on OCBs by considering previously-untried antecedents (polychronicity and nepotism) into its model of analysing a hotel setting. It then provides recommendations to practitioners contingently upon the findings of the study. The main focus of this thesis is to answer the research questions as follows:

- 1) Are contextual antecedents of MCSQ and nepotism significantly associated with OCBs?
- 2) Do personality factors such as intrinsic motivation and polychronicity predict OCBs?
- 3) Does job satisfaction as an attitudinal antecedent predict OCBs?

A quantitative approach was adopted. For data collection, survey questionnaires were distributed to the frontline employees of several different types of hotel accommodation in the tourist regions of North Cyprus. As many hotels as possible were contacted to participate in this study. The data was analysed using PLS software application.

The scope, significance, and purpose of the present thesis have already been discussed in previous sections. The remaining thesis is structured as follows. In Chapter 2, a brief review of the service industry, world tourism, and hospitality industry in North Cyprus are discussed. Chapter 3 presents a comprehensive literature review of OCBs and its proposed antecedents. In Chapter 4, the proposed model and hypotheses are introduced and the rationale behind the hypotheses is discussed. The subsequent chapter, Chapter 5 explains the methodology for the study covering sample and data collection, the measures of the constructs used in the questionnaire, and procedures. Results of the study in Chapter 6, portrays the descriptive statistics, reliability scores for the measures

used in the study, factor analyses results, summary statistics of correlations between the study variables, and structural model results of hypotheses testing. Finally, an analysis of the results, conclusions, theoretical and managerial implications, limitations for the current research, and future research suggestions are provided in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 2

SERVICE INDUSTRY, WORLD TOURISM, AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY IN NORTH CYPRUS

2.1 Definitions of service

According to Steel (2000), services are: “Work done for somebody, help given somebody” or the quality of work done by somebody when serving a customer”. ‘Service’ refers to any activity or provision that can be offered by one party to another, which is basically immaterial and does not necessarily result in the transfer of ownership of anything. “A company’s market offering often includes both tangible and intangible, goods and services and each component can be a minor or major part of the total offer” (Kotler & Armstrong, 2003).

According to Roland et al. (1996), “Service is any act or performance that one party that can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. Its production may or may not be tied to a physical product”. Moreover, Lovelock (1984) defines services as “the deeds, actions and effort performed by either a person or a machine, but which exist at one point in time and cannot be stored for later use... services are usually complex in that they are composed of different parts, some of which may or may not be employed for reasons which cannot be decided in advance, with the consequence that measuring services in their entirety can only be achieved with great difficulty”. According to Vargo and Lusch (2004), “...service is the application of specialized competences skills and knowledge, through deeds, processes, and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself...”.

Services should be suited to the changing needs of many market segments. Succeeding service goals for every segment will be based on well weighted procedures. In tracing the progress of the discipline of services marketing identify and dynamic process whereas service exude from general marketing theory to be regarded as a separate phenomenon, which can be studied in a product class. Gummesson, (2000) defined it as “service is something which can be bought and sold but which you cannot drop on your foot”. “From the customers’ perspective, service is the combination of the customers’ experience and their perception of the outcomes of the service” (Johnston & Clark, 2005).

Considerable challenges of services are available that have occupied the service literature, which come from the diverse nature of service; itself and product separately, such that; service cannot be smelled, tasted, or felt before buying process. It is unlike tangible product which is vice versa. Thus, this pre-purchase ambiguity of the phenomenon has become a hot topic between service marketers and consumers in terms of reducing it (Kotler, 2003). In this respect, tourism industry is an industry that basically focuses on selling services. Hence, it is critical for marketers and managers to realize what the service characteristics are before selling process of it.

Furthermore, the complex nature of service results from their general characteristics which identified as Intangibility, Inseparability, Heterogeneity, and Perishability (Kotler, 2003; Olsen et al., 1996; Parasuraman et al., 1985). These are the four major distinctions among a manufacturing and service business. Due to the service characteristics in a service business it is not easy to respond to customers' needs and expectations. Also, service offering depends on a face to face relation, thus service encounter's (employee) behaviours are crucial to reach optimum quality of service and customer satisfaction.

2.2 Service characteristics

When consumers buy goods and products, there are many cues available to help them judge quality, such as the price, packaging, style and colour of the product. However, when it comes to purchasing services, there are fewer cues available to help the decision making process. “In many cases tangible evidence is limited to the service provider’s physical facilities, equipment, and personnel” (Favalgi et al., 2006). Ingenuity of services offering and challenges the authenticity and utilization of it namely stands on the four basic attributes:

1. Intangibility
2. Inseparability
3. Heterogeneity
4. Perishability

These characteristics are defined by lots of researchers. However, as Parasuraman (2002) mentioned, “intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity, and perishability are the four characteristics that are most commonly used by marketers to differentiate between goods and services”. These characteristics “Make service uniquely different from goods” (Lovelock, & Gummesson, 2004). According to Kerin (2003), “There are four unique elements to services: intangibility, inconsistency, inseparability and inventory”. Solomon and Stuart (2003) stated that “Regardless of whether they affect our bodies or our possession, all services share four characteristics: Intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability”.

Firstly, the characteristics of a particular service influence to what extent the service itself, the way it is delivered and the organisation are linked (Tatikonda & Zeithaml,

2001). These characteristics may include the service heterogeneity, its intangibility, the simultaneity of production and consumption and the perishability of the service on offer. Secondly, service delivery is one of the most basic variables of a new service, which typically requires frontline staff members to establish and develop new skills with which to offer the service effectively. Finally, when compared to a new product, a new service normally requires the modification or even establishment of new routines within an organisation (Edwardsson & Olsson, 1996).

2.2.1 Intangibility

Human resource management is an important issue in the hospitality and tourism sectors. This is made even more apparent by the requirement within these industries to provide unique services, characterised by challenges in how to design, market, maintain and monitor them, in order to ensure quality (Go et al., 1996). Services are very unlike goods that can be stored and inventoried. Services need to be simultaneously produced and consumed (Zeithaml et al., 2006).

This inseparability of production and consumption present quality control challenges because service providers cannot inspect their “product” for flaws before it is consumed. This characteristic of inseparability highlights the important role played by frontline staff members in offering of high quality service. Service quality will suffer if these employees cannot or do not determine what individual customers want, need and expect from the organisation. The same is equally true if employees also fail to respond appropriately and in a timely fashion; without the intervention of colleagues or managers (Go et al., 1996).

2.2.2 Inseparability

The concept of 'inseparability' refers to the simultaneous delivery and consumption of services. It allows customers to influence the performance and quality of the service (Parasuraman et al., 1985). A process of simultaneously producing and consuming services is found in every hospitality and/or tourism organisation in the world. This process occurs when the presence of a customer shapes the interactions – and the outcomes of those interactions – between the customer and the organisation. This is what distinguishes goods from services. Tourism organisations in particular – such as hotels – have little control over the quality of their services when the customer participation is intensive, such as in the entertainment, lodging or transport sectors. This is because customers continually affect the service on offer (Kotler, 2003).

2.2.3 Heterogeneity

The services are produced and performed by human power; it's the look the employee sees in the customer's eyes that produces heterogeneity in services. This is because customers are not alike. Each consumer will have their own unique demands or ways of experiencing the service. The resulting heterogeneity associated with services is due to human interaction among employees and customers. In addition, the services product is heterogeneous product, we can't standardize a service.

Hotels do attempt to standardise as many of their services as they possibly can via staff training and quality control measures. However, the human ingredient and customer interaction will inevitably complicate the issue. Most consumers will have

their own set of expectations, which means that it is unlikely that any one product will ever be perceived equally by all customers (Zeithaml et al., 2006).

2.2.4 Perishability

There are multiple approaches on the definitions and implications of perishability, and as a result, the related literature on this topic comprises several strands. “What, then, is the received wisdom? A common claim is that services cannot be saved, stored for reuses at a later date, resold, or returned” (Zeithaml et al., 2003). “Stated simply that services cannot be stored” (Kotler 2003; Solomon & Stuart, 2003) collaborate. “Perishability cannot be produced ahead of time and inventories” (Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Pride and Ferrell (2003) proclaimed and particularly underlined the time reliance “if demand is low, unused capacity is wasted. If demand exceeds capacity, it goes unfulfilled and business may be lost”. Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) stated that “Bringing demand and supply into levelling requires management of both demand and available capacity”.

2.3 The role of frontline employees in the service industry

Service firms need to create a differentiation on service quality as a means of attaining a competitive advantage, and frontline employees are central in achieving this quality (Gustaffson, 2009). The frontline is the touch point of the business firm, so, the service that frontline employees offer is critical in enhancing customer relationships, gathering customer information, and in reaching customer satisfaction, loyalty, and brand commitment (Burmman & Konig, 2011; Fang et al., 2011).

The existing research suggests that the commitment of frontline staff members to their organisation had a significant positive impact on service quality (e.g., Malhotra & Mukherjee, 2004). In addition, Lashley (2008) suggests a model whereby services are designed according to the interaction between customers and hotels, in order to ensure high levels of customer loyalty. The achievement of such a ‘bespoke’ service depends on the efforts and abilities of the frontline staff to interact appropriately with customers and establish their needs and expectations (Chung & Schneider, 2002; Hartline et al., 2000; Wirtz, 2008). The supervision of frontline employees is one of the foremost tasks of hospitality managers (Lashley, 2008). It follows that it is crucial for managers to be able to determine and understand the aspects of the role of these frontline employees that could contribute both to increasing the firm’s competitive advantages and to improving work performance.

Kusluvan (2003) also contends that “close customer contact in tourism and hospitality businesses increases the importance and role of frontline employees in terms of establishing long-term customer relationships”. As frontline personnel is normally the first part of call for a dissatisfied customer, many efficient service salvages are conducted by frontline staff members (Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996 p.194). As previously mentioned, the connection among customers and frontline staff is at the utmost level, thus most importantly the behaviours of frontline employees play the biggest role on customer perception of service quality (Karatepe & Ehsani, 2012).

Bettencourt and Brown (2003) argue that FLEs play the biggest role in offering of service quality within the hospitality and tourism industry. This is because they are the employees who offer the service itself; interact with customers, and determine the level of quality. Moreover, due to the varied nature of their often boundary-spanning roles,

frontline staff members have the capability to restore an aggrieved customer to a state of satisfaction, based on their response to a service failure situation (Yavas et al., 2004). It is important, therefore, to recognise the central role that frontline staff members play in ensuring customer satisfaction and higher levels of service quality.

Managers can take action in two ways. Firstly, they can make sure that they recruit and, importantly, retain employees who are an appropriate fit to the job requirements, and who have the personality traits and skills relevant to the job (Hurley, 1998). Secondly, managers can ensure that they offer their frontline staff multiple incentives, such as rewards, which are intended to reduce the negative influences of the demands of the job (e.g. exhaustion). This will help employees achieve their job-related goals (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004).

Finally, it should be noted that the prosocial behaviours of frontline staff (OCBs) is a critical issue for the service industry (Chebat et al., 2002). Especially, Morrison (1996) and Bienstock et al. (2003) argue that the discretionary behaviour of FLEs that does not take place in formal prescription of the organization – for example, citizenship behaviour (OCBs) – has a direct impact on the quality of service delivered to customers. As such, OCBs are of particular interest to service managers since they are instrumental in stimulating this type of behaviour and, therefore, of enhancing favourable organizational outcomes.

2.4 Tourism overview

Hospitality and tourism are fast developing industries. They can help developing countries resolve employment and poverty difficulties by turning the natural resources of

these countries – such as beautiful scenery and cultural heritage – into a profitable business. Tourism is a global business. It is an industry without boundaries, which is open to continual changes and improvements. As stated by Arasli (2002a); “the increased speed in communication and the variety of technology used points to the fact that tourism is going to be the only industry that will keep growing” (p.347).

In addition, tourism is highly labour-intensive industry, that’s why it is very significant industry for poor countries that decreases the number of unemployment. Elliot (1997) contends that tourism is not only boasting the number of jobs; it is also boasting the economies especially in poor countries, thus it is seen as an important industry of socioeconomic contribution in all countries. Nadiri (1998) stated that “Tourism is one of the most challenging and fastest growing sectors in the world. The tourism industry provides various benefits and satisfaction for people related with economic, social and environmental concerns”. Hence, travel and tourism industry is quite essential for the economic expansion, especially for new developing countries such as North Cyprus.

In general terms, tourism can be categorized under two fold such as international tourism when tourists travel to another destination and domestic tourism which embraces inside of the country. These two categories take a place in each country and especially for those where tourism is a major economic contributor to national economy. International and domestic destinations exceedingly depend on each other (Malska et al., 2005). Djachenko (2007) contends that if a domestic tourism destination in a country attracts little level of domestic visitors, then this destination has also low attractiveness to foreign travellers and vice versa.

In the past, there were many political issues that had negative influence on the world tourism development. Nowadays, with the implementation of new contemporary laws in many countries, associations, and created unions that offered an opportunity to generate a contemporary development in tourism, thus they have increased freedom of travelers' choice. Nowadays, people have full of freedom to travel all around the world that consequently leads to tourism growth and development. The related tables presented below demonstrate this expansion of worldwide tourism development.

According to the World Tourism Organization (2012), ten countries illustrated in table 1 are considered as having the majority of tourists around the world. Regarding the popularity of the countries mostly visited, European continent continues to be on the top of the list. On the other hand, Asian countries can probably be considered as being secondary choice for tourists to visit. To illustrate, table 1 depicts that France had 79.5 million of international tourist arrivals in 2011. However, China had 57.6 million of international travellers.

Table 1: Top 10 countries with international tourism arrivals among 2010–2011

Rank	Country	International tourist arrivals (2011)	International tourist arrivals (2010)	Change (2010 to 2011)
1	France	79.5 million	77.1 million	+3.0%
2	United States	62.3 million	59.8 million	+4.2%
3	China	57.6 million	55.7 million	+3.4%

4	Spain	56.7 million	52.7 million	+7.6%
5	Italy	46.1 million	43.6 million	+5.7%
6	Turkey	29.3 million	27.0 million	+8.7%
7	United Kingdom	29.2 million	28.3 million	+3.2%
8	Germany	28.4 million	26.9 million	+5.5%
9	Malaysia	24.7 million	24.6 million	+0.6%
10	Mexico	23.4 million	23.3 million	+0.5%

Source: World Tourism Organization (2012).

Table 2 below demonstrates top ten countries with international tourism receipts in 2011. According to the World Tourism Organization (2012), European continent yet is at the top of the list of having the highest rate of international tourism receipts.

Table 2: Top 10 countries with international tourism receipts in 2011

Rank	Country	UNWTO Region	International tourism receipts (2011)
1	United States	North America	\$116.3 billion
2	Spain	Europe	\$59.9 billion
3	France	Europe	\$53.8 billion

4	China	Asia	\$48.5 billion
5	Italy	Europe	\$43.0 billion
6	Germany	Europe	\$38.8 billion
7	United Kingdom	Europe	\$35.9 billion
8	Australia	Oceania	\$31.4 billion
9	Macau (China)	Asia	\$27.8 billion
10	Hong Kong (China)	Asia	\$27.2 billion

Source: World Tourism Organization (2012).

As illustrated in table 1 and table 2, there is a sustainable dynamic of international tourist growth and its receipts. The tourism and travel industries continue to be among the world's largest. In 2011, the industry contributed 9% of the world's global gross domestic product (GDP). This equates to over US\$6 trillion in revenue. Over the next decade, the tourism industry is expected to grow by around 4% a year, which will amount to approximately 10% of the world's global GDP and a revenue of US\$10 trillion. It is expected that there will be over 328 million jobs associated with the tourism industry by 2022. This is equivalent to around one in every ten jobs on the planet (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2012).

That being said, 2011 represented toughest years ever experienced by the worldwide tourism and travel industries. This was due a range of factors such as the global financial crisis and political upheaval. However, the industry's contribution to global GDP in

2011 still grew by around 3%, generating about 1.2 million new jobs and US\$2 trillion in revenue (WTTC, 2012).

As Coccossis & Mexa (2004, p.3) noted, “Tourism is a complex socioeconomic phenomenon for recreation and leisure that has become a major economic activity worldwide”. Therefore, this industry is considered to be one of the fastest growing sectors with a prominent importance for the economy development of the country (Ayres, 2000).

2.5 Tourism industry in North Cyprus

2.5.1 Historical background

Cyprus is an island located in the Eastern Mediterranean and third largest island in the Mediterranean, the area of the whole island is 3584 square miles (see Figure 1). The political inequality, the assimilation dreams of Turkish community aimed by enosis, the power and administration conflicts between the Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots had become violent in the year of 1963 and lasted in the later decade. As a result of this situation, a new bloody page took place in the human being history. This long-lasting bloody conflicts among the two communities that was deliberately triggered with the intention of assimilating Turkish Cypriots from the island, concluded with the intervention of Turkish troops in 1974 civil war.

Since then, the one community of island has been divided into two different parts; Turkish Cypriots live in the north side and Greeks live in the south side. The one third of the island belongs to Greek Cypriots. The both communities have constructed their own states under independency. North Cyprus state is not recognized by the worldwide

countries except from Turkey. The state economy is partly dependent on the financial aid from Turkey, due to the continuing economic and political embargos since 1974 that has been affecting Northern Cyprus tourism in negative ways (Altinay, 2000).



Figure 1: Cyprus map
Source: Cyprus44.

Altinay et al. (2002) stated that the all raising attempts in the recent years to solve the continuing political uncertainty which is the source of major problems encountered by North Cyprus, could not arrived any important solutions. Not only the existing political and economic embargos executed to North have caused to fail in growing its exports, but the paucity of natural resources which is the characteristic of small islands was also the cause of this fail. As a result of this situation, the stable economic growth could not be accomplished. Accordingly, North Cyprus government has exerted great

efforts on improving service industry sectors which embraces banking, universities, property sales, and tourism mostly.

Nowadays there are five active universities together with the campus which belongs to Middle East technical university in Northern Cyprus. Secondly, according to the Central Bank of North Cyprus (2007), the banking sector is also among the growing sector with its 36 commercial banks, 43 off shore and 35 currency exchange bureaus operating in North Cyprus. Thirdly the new increasingly growing sector for socioeconomic development of North Cyprus is the property sales that are significantly cheaper compared to anywhere else around the Mediterranean.

The globalization waves, capital struggling, fierce competition, terrorism, tech advances and increasingly changing customer needs and expectations have created the dynamic business environments in which any change can emerge in a second. Thus, tourism businesses are expected to fit their internal dynamics to this external environmental change storm in order to keep up with ongoing developments. This situation is valid in every type of industry, but exclusively for service economies because they occupy the majority of the markets in the world. Tourism industry is keeping one of the biggest pies in the services. In this regard, like many other countries, Northern Cyprus tourism has been leading sector for Turkish Cypriots. Since 1986, tourism has substantially contributed to the economic development of North Cyprus.

As previously mentioned, Alipour and Kilic (2005) and Okumus et al. (2003) asserted that North Cyprus tourism is face to face challenging matters for many years, such as lack of execution of tourism laws/regulations, insufficient investment in qualified labour and infrastructural plans, inadequate tourism policies, poor service quality, and seasonality. As a consequence of this situation, the occupancy rates have

never exceeded 50% (Statistical Yearbook of Tourism, 2011) and the contribution of tourism as a portion of GDP has been at the low percentages. Along with the political uncertainty, the major antecedent of these problems as the reason of being unsuccessful in developing sustainable tourism in North Cyprus has been managerial insufficiencies (Altinay et al., 2002; Daskin, 2012).

2.5.2 Economic contribution

According to North Cyprus Tourism and Planning Office (2011), travel and tourism industry is also the one of the main generator of income for North Cyprus economy. The tourism industry contributed \$405.8 million to the GDP of North Cyprus and the ratio of net tourism income to the trade balance was 26.9% in 2010 (see Table 3).

Table 3: Tourism contribution indicators in among 2002-2010

YEARS	Net tourism income (USD)	The ratio of net tourism income to the trade balance (%)
2002	114.1	43.2
2003	178.8	41.9
2004	288.3	36.4
2005	328.8	28.0
2006	303.2	23.2
2007	381.0	26.2
2008	383.7	24.0
2009	390.7	31.1
2010	405.8	26.9

Source: North Cyprus Tourism & Planning Office (2011).

The travel and tourism industry created 12,518 jobs in 2012, which was equivalent to about 10% of the total available employment in the country (North Cyprus Tourism & Planning Office, 2012) (see Table 4). Northern Cyprus has a favourable climate, which, combined with its ‘sun, sea and sand’, makes it a desirable tourist destination almost all year round. It boasts an almost unspoiled natural environment and an abundance of cultural, historical and religious riches. This gives Northern Cyprus a considerable advantage over regional rivals, as well as rival destinations that are further afield (see Figure 2). However, despite its obvious advantages, Northern Cyprus has failed to reach the optimum economic contribution of tourism earnings due to external factors that are outside of its control. These include the lack of direct flights, qualified manpower, and poor service quality (Alipour & Kilic, 2005; Arasli et al., 2006; Daskin, 2011).

Table 4: Number of employees in North Cyprus tourism industry in 2012

<i>TYPE OF ESTABLISHMENT</i>	<i>Number of Establishments</i>	<i>Number of Employee</i>
<i>TOURIST ACCOMMODATION EST.</i>	134	3,433
<i>OTHER ACCOM. EST.</i>	16	92
<i>TOURISM & TRAVEL AGENCIES</i>	175	410
<i>CASINOS</i>	22	3,743
<i>TOURIST RESTAURANTS</i>	580	3,840
<i>TOTAL</i>	927	12,518

Source: North Cyprus Tourism & Planning Office (2012).



Figure 2: A view of North Cyprus
Source: Cyprus44.

2.5.3 North Cyprus hotel sector

Mostly, the survivals of small island economies have been dependent on tourism revenues due to the limited natural resources, but, the development of other kind of industries such as manufacturing, agriculture, and fishing play a big role as supplementary to tourism developments. Similarly, the island of North Cyprus has paucity of natural resources, so, the main focus has been given on tourism as a means of economic development. As a result, the number of tourist arrivals, length of tourists' stays and the occupancy rate of hotels are undoubtedly essential issues due to their major impacts on Northern Cyprus economy. However, Okumus et al. (2003) and Daskin (2012) asserted that the major problem faced by hospitality industry is because of the ongoing political instability, thus this has become a major barrier for the hotel sector in North Cyprus.

Recently, despite the all kind of handicaps, North Cyprus hotel sector has been steadily improving, such that, the increasing number of international hotel investments in touristic areas together with the developments in transportation and attraction/entertainment facilities signals promising developments in North Cyprus tourism industry. According to the North Cyprus Tourism and Planning Office (2012), there are a total of 134 lodging establishments with 19,162 bed capacities (see Table 5).

Table 5: Number of accommodation establishments and bed capacity in North Cyprus

ACCOMODATION ESTABLISHMENTS	Number of units	Number of beds
5 star hotels	14	9,302
4 star hotels	6	1,704
3 star hotels	15	2,211
2 star hotels	22	1,588
1 star hotels	19	583
OTHER ACCOM.EST.	74	3,774
GRAND TOTAL	134	19,162

Source: North Cyprus Tourism & Planning Office (2012).

In 2011, the total numbers of 611,024 visitors were welcomed in North Cyprus hotel establishments with the occupancy rate of 40.9 per cent (see Table 6). The reason behind the low occupancy rate might be due to the insufficient supplementary facilities and services and poor service quality (Altınay, 2000). For example; out of 652,779 entries to

North Cyprus in 2005, only 298,856 stayed in hospitality organizations excluding Turkish Cypriots (Statistical Yearbook of Tourism, 2005).

Table 6: Number of tourists and occupancy rate in North Cyprus lodging establishments by years

YEARS	NUMBER OF TOURISTS	OCCUPANCY RATE (%)
2002	291,198	37.8
2003	279,244	37.0
2004	314,470	40.7
2005	341,446	40.2
2006	375,224	33.2
2007	430,108	32.2
2008	482,976	33.0
2009	480,514	34.4
2010	507,343	35.9
2011	611,024	40.9

Source: North Cyprus Tourism & Planning Office (2012).

Considering the fact that North Cyprus is an island country with its limited natural resources and the existing political instability, the reality of being dependent on tourism revenues mostly exclusively for the third world countries is almost viable in Northern Cyprus too. However, the continuing developments in the supplementary service sectors to tourism, such as universities and property sales have become income generators in terms of economic contribution. This is because tourism is the combination of services that have an important effect on economic development of countries.

In this regard, North Cyprus is not a global market yet, but recently increasing competition in the hotel industry through globalization waves, diversification of service economies, facilitation of rules and regulations for tourism investments and the most importantly the European Union developments in terms of being on the agenda, alerts the growing number of hotel organizations to realize the importance of service quality and improvements that can be converted to a competitive advantage.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 OCBs: its roots and related frameworks

According to Bateman and Organ (1983, p.654), defined the concept “citizenship behaviours” as social mechanism oil of the organizational wheels and employees who exhibit such behaviours as are entitled as “good citizens”. Though the past of OCBs is not very old, its roots come from Barnard (1938). According to him, employees should be voluntary to spend extra performance to the collaborative mechanism in order to succeed organizational aims. As referenced in Lester et al.’s (2008) research, the productive and collaborative behaviours beyond the general job requirements are critical for effective organizational functioning (Katz & Kahn, 1966).

Smith et al. (1983) subsequently emphasized on the behaviours that Katz (1964, p. 132) showed as “innovative and spontaneous activity” and described them as “actions not specified by role prescriptions which nevertheless facilitate the accomplishment of organizational goals”. Organ (1988a) subsequently stated that:

“Individual behaviour which is discretionary, not directly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment construct with the organization; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that, its omission is not generally understood as punishable” (p. 4).

Organ (1988a) continued by expressing that:

“Our definition of OCB requires that it not be directly or formally recompensed by the organization’s reward system... (Does this) mean that OCB must be limited to those gestures that are utterly and eternally lacking in any tangible return to the individual? ... Not necessarily. Over time a steady stream of OCB of different types ... could well determine the impression that an individual makes on a supervisor or on co-workers. That impression in turn could influence the recommendation by the boss for a salary increase or promotion. The important issue here is that such returns not be contractually guaranteed” (p. 5).

Thus OCBs has three important characteristics which can be derived from this definition: Firstly, according to Smith et al. (1983), OCBs is nonobligatory and goes far beyond the specified job task requirements. Employees are not obliged to engage in OCBs which are not prescribed in the organizational job specification. Rather, willingness of the employee to exhibit these kinds of behaviours matters and it is not induced by the direction of any superior employee.

Secondly, in the organizational reward systems, OCBs is not formally or directly recognized. According to Organ (1997), despite engaging in such actions may contribute rises in salary or taking rewards by the suggestion of the executive, it is not generally be assured by organizational negotiation terms. Thirdly, adequate operation of the organization is promoted via OCBs. According to Organ (1997), this characteristic can be clarified by giving help to a colleague.

3.1.1 Alternative concepts to OCBs

This section will distinguish organisation citizenship behaviours from related, but nonetheless different, concepts. OCBs, organisational spontaneity, contextual performance and prosocial behaviour are often used synonymously. However, it can be argued that the definitions for each of these are different. Since this research focuses on

OCBs, it is necessary to distinguish between OCBs and analogous phenomena, in order to clearly differentiate the core of this thesis.

3.1.1.1 Prosocial organizational behaviour

Brief and Motowidlo (1986) and Penner et al. (2005) asserted that prosocial behaviours appear as an extensive level of behaviours that contribute maintenance of social integrity and the well-being of other people. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) were inspired of Katz's (1964) definition of prosocial organizational behaviour. They stated that innovative and spontaneous behaviours are less comprehensive than prosocial behaviour. They went on that "behaviours which are performed by a member of an organization that are directed toward an individual, group, or an organization with whom he/she interacts while carrying out his/her organizational role and performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed". On the basis of three distinctions, they identified thirteen particular types of prosocial behaviours.

Prosocial behaviours vary in terms of whether they are directed toward an individual or organizational target, they are assigned or not, and operative or not as a component of organizational role for an employee. The main distinction among OCBs and prosocial behaviours is the case that not all prosocial behaviours are organizationally operative and serve the organizational performance. For instance, spreading positive word of mouth related to business is utility because it contributes the organization to attain organizational image and succeed its aims. But, giving hand to a co-worker to succeed

an individual aim conflicting with organizational goals is not functional though it seems similar to a prosocial behaviour.

Furthermore, according to Organ et al. (2006), prosocial behaviour may be grouped in as a role-prescribed or extra-role behaviour. While role-prescribed prosocial behaviour is mostly functional, on the other hand, extra-role prosocial behaviour is not always functional. Also prosocial behaviour is criticized, because it embraces several behaviours and does not limit itself with the most related specific organizational behaviours.

3.1.1.2 Organizational spontaneity (extra-role behaviours)

This concept originates in the research conducted by Katz (1964). George and Brief (1992, p. 331) define organizational spontaneity (OS) as “extra-role behaviours that are performed voluntarily and that contribute to organizational effectiveness”. Rather than using the term spontaneity as impetuous acts, they use them as voluntary behaviours and enhance organizational effectiveness. They defined them under five forms such as exhibiting positive intent, assisting colleagues, keeping organization, offering constructive ideas, and self-developing.

Also, George and Brief (1992) states that helping a co-worker with heavy workload, organizational resources sharing, and protecting organization against potential problems may be examples of helping behaviours which are spontaneous. Other kinds of examples for voluntary behaviours are may be assuring the organization that may be including actions to help co-workers and save organizational resources in case of emergency. Developing valuable ideas was defined as all voluntary acts for creativity and

innovation. Helping to advance one comprises voluntary practices such as developing knowledge, skills, and abilities which in turn push employees to be more productive at job and make them to contribute more to the organization. Additionally, exhibiting positive intent is also defined as voluntary contribution to organizational performance such as presenting organisations, services and products as being high quality.

Organizational spontaneity has relative dimensions to prosocial organizational behaviours, OCBs, and contextual performance. However, despite their similar aspects, it is important to note that they are not the same (George & Jones, 1997). Based on the organizational reward systems, spontaneity behaviour is related to OCBs but not the same. OCBs are not recognized by the formal reward system, whereas organizational spontaneity is recognized (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

3.1.1.3 Contextual performance

Industrial psychologists (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) have attempted to investigate the hypothesis that personality has an impact on an individual's commitment to their work and how much this may influence their overall productivity. The research scholars characterized between workers' performance into "task performance" and "contextual performance" in order to enhance the contingency to find an association among dispositional aspects and at least one of the two concepts of performance. The researchers realized that "the best predictors of individual 'task performance' are knowledge, skills and abilities...researchers argued that personality or dispositional variables, on the other hand, better predict those contributions that individuals make to

the social and psychological context in which technical or task performance occurs” (Organ et al., 2006, p. 31). Organ et al. (2006) also stated that:

“Contextual performance is defined by those contributions that sustain an ethos of cooperation and interpersonal supportiveness of the group. Contextual performance can take the form of interpersonal facilitation (such as helping and good collegueship) or job dedication, which has much in common with the OCB compliance factor because it encompasses self-disciplined behaviours with respect to rules and use of time” (p. 31).

According to Organ et al. (2006, p. 32), contextual performance is analogous to OCBs. Contextual performance involves helping and supporting one’s co-workers, as well as more impersonal contributions to the social spirit of the organization, often in the form of job dedication. OCBs, on the other hand, include in its definition those behaviours which are not included in the job specification and are not awarded. In contrast to OCBs, the concept of contextual performance makes no reference to the job description-related expectations, or the idea of formal rewards for performance. As a result, it is open to discussion whether the behaviours associated with contextual performance are required by the job or voluntary – behaviours such as work-related dedication and ‘helping without questioning’. Thus, it can be argued that the motivations for contextual performance might not be selfless but, rather, more egocentric motivations, that prompt people to behave socially in order to fulfil their job requirements in the best possible way.

3.1.2 Dimensions of OCBs

OCBs is an “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and

effective functioning of the organization” (Organ et al., 2006: 3). Feather & Rauter (2004) asserted that these behaviours are voluntary, those employees offer to the organization, which are neither enforceable within the formal job description, nor punishable or come with any guarantee of immediate compensation.

OCBs includes actions that “lubricate the social machinery of the organization” (Bateman & Organ, 1983: 588) and fundamentally aid the work processes to function more efficiently and effectively (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Examples of citizenship behaviours include providing voluntary assistance to fellow workers, taking on additional assignments, following rules and procedures, persisting with extra effort, publicly defending or promoting the organization, and volunteering one’s time for organizational effectiveness (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Spector, 1997). Organ (1988a) posited that OCBs comprise five dimensions as follows.

(1) Altruism — this dimension comprises facultative behaviour directed at assisting a colleague with an organizationally relevant problem. Vey and Campbell (2004) describe the altruistic behaviours such as covering for others when they needed a day or certain hours off; helping train new entrants; being someone who others turn for help on the job; and assisting others with heavy workloads.

(2) Conscientiousness — this term encapsulates employees’ compliance to organizational rules, regulations, and procedures such as punctuality, even in the absence of supervision or control compliance. Because this kind of behaviour is accepted as a kind of OCBs that much of the employees pass them over. Thus, an employee who seriously adheres to all rules and regulations, even in the absence of supervision, is accepted as “good citizen” (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517).

(3) Sportsmanship — the term involves the willingness of employees to accept the unavoidable nuisance and annoyances of work without complaining. According to Podsakoff et al. (2000) sportsmanship behaviours appear when they are inconvenienced but still manage to sustain a constructive manner and even when things do not go their way. As such, they do not become offended when others do not follow their advice. Moreover, they are typically willing to give up their own personal interests for the good of their colleagues, and they do not take the rejection of their ideas personally.

(4) Courtesy — this dimension involves discretionary behaviour intended to prevent the occurrence of work-related difficulties and also involves considerate gestures, such as ‘touching base’ with those whose job might be affected by decisions or commitments taken by another.

(5) Civic virtue — involves facultative behaviour that shows the employee’s participation in the social and political life of the business. For instance, civic virtue include engaging in policy debates, attending meetings and seminars, and giving suggestions that might contribute to the organizational success (Becker & Kernan, 2003).

The aforementioned five dimensional components are good representation of OCBs. Within these components, employees are expected to assist each other with work-related duties or problems (focusing on teamwork) and to be concerned of the influence of their work decisions on others, to tolerate the inconveniences of their work for the better organizational results, to aim to work in different directions to maximize the health of the organization, and to adhere to the organizational rules and regulations at all times.

3.1.3 Importance of OCBs in hospitality industry

Lin et al. (2008) and Yoon and Suh (2003) suggest that hospitality and service businesses are a good example of a field which is in need of research into OCBs. This is because good OCBs have been shown to have a significant impact on service quality during service transactions. Despite the increasing awareness of weighty effects of OCBs, research in this area has been limited. Following a comprehensive literature review, Organ et al. (2006) note that future research needs to generate more evidence about association among OCBs and potential predictors. It is necessary to develop conceptual models in order to do this, and to determine the mechanisms that may give rise to OCBs.

The existing literature has suggested the importance of OCBs to the hotel industry by showing that OCBs may directly impact on service quality, customer loyalty and customer perceptions of service quality (Bell & Menguc, 2002; Bienstock et al., 2003; Lin et al., 2008; Castro et al., 2004). In avoiding or solving problems at work, good citizens generate a strong service orientation, as well as providing a positive role model for their colleagues. They can come to represent higher potential credibility, and may even come to be seen as paragons among their colleagues.

Bandura's (1977) social learning theory suggest that, when staff members work within group settings, they observe, learn from, and imitate others who act as models for good (social) or bad (antisocial) behaviour. Having a role model in this way influences the approach employees have towards their own behaviour and performance. In this respect, OCBs studies carry bigger importance in the hotel industry, in which team-work performance is required at all times. Additionally, customer loyalty to hotels can be

increase when they are served by good citizens who exhibit more supportive, friendly, and conscientious attitudes and behaviours (Castro et al., 2004). Such a service orientation could contribute directly and indirectly to establishing a positive perception of service quality (Morrison, 1996).

Many hotel staff members are fortunately willing to go ‘above and beyond’ their normal duties in order to ensure high levels of customer service and satisfaction. Examples might include a housemaid who gives a hand to a new housemaid to clean her assigned rooms; a receptionist who treats a customer with special care due to a disability; a chief waiter who helps a colleague to store leftover food in the refrigerator, and so on. These examples represent employees who are performing OCBs that surpass the requirements of their roles and, as such, would not be contractually rewarded (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983). In these “organizational citizens” we see the way to overcome the challenges of delivering high quality service to customers. However, not all hotel staff members are prepared to go “above and beyond” their job requirements. This gives rise to the question of what motivates employees to engage in OCBs.

Although research into OCBs has, to date, been popular in the management and organizational behaviour field, much less attention has been afforded to the same in the hospitality industry, especially in the context of hotels. As such, there are a number of both theoretical and empirical questions that need to be answered, to deepen our comprehension of the role of OCBs in the hotel setting. For example, there is currently no measure for OCBs specific to the hospitality industry and to hotels. Such a framework is, however, of utmost importance in order to understand the following:

(1) How the hotel industry differs compared to other organizations in which impalpable services and continuous customer–employee exchanges are crucial elements.

(2) As OCBs studies within the hospitality sector increase, how can existing OCBs frameworks and understanding of its motivators evolve from their foundations in the manufacturing sector toward service interactions. Currently used OCBs frameworks originate from other disciplines and, as such, are unlikely to be able to sufficiently depict the unique nature of the hospitality industry.

3.1.4 Antecedents to OCBs: definitions and theoretical backgrounds

3.1.4.1 Management commitment to service quality

Existing empirical research (e.g., Alexandrov et al., 2007; Babakus et al., 2003; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996) suggests that MCSQ (empowerment and rewards) are a significant determinant of staff behaviours in the workplace. According to Babakus et al. (2003, p. 3), MCSQ is “employees’ appraisal of an organization’s commitment to nurture, develop, support and reward its employees to achieve service excellence”.

Hartline and Ferrell (1996) argue that management commitment represents “the manager’s affective desire to improve his or her unit’s service quality” (p. 53). Meanwhile, Gronross (1983) found that, when managers treat their staff members well, the staff members in turn treat customers well. Fuller et al. (2003) has also suggested that staff members are more likely to dedicate themselves to an organisation when they perceive that organisation to be committed to them.

Management research (Arasli & Daskin, 2012; Boshoff & Allen, 2000; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Rod & Ashill, 2010) has shown that management commitment to service

quality significantly influences the excellence of the service delivered, and any neglect in the commitment to quality from managers may lead to service failure. Forrester (2000) makes some recommendations for the objective assessment of the initiatives associated with management commitment to service quality. For example, asking staff members to evaluate their own managers could be one appropriate measure. This is because the commitment of managers directly impacts emotional responses from staff, such as their levels of perceived job satisfaction. In turn, this influences their service behaviours. In other words, management commitment to service quality directly affects the work attitudes and behaviours of their staff and, in turn, the effectiveness and efficiency of the organisation (Bohlander & Kinicki, 1988).

A synthesis of the relevant literature has realized that management initiatives in the form of rewards, organizational support, empowerment, and training are the main determinants of frontline employees' affective and performance behaviour outcomes (Babakus et al., 2003; Bohlander & Kinicki, 1988; Cheung & To, 2010; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Jo et al., 2009; Rod & Ashill, 2010; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Thus, this thesis operationalizes management commitment to service using empowerment and employee rewards.

3.1.4.1.1 Empowerment

Conger and Kanugo (1988) and Jha and Nair (2008) explain employee empowerment as the process of enabling or approving staff members to make independent decisions about guest issues. Empowerment is particularly encouraged for heterogeneous services, in which frontline staff members are required to adapt their working practices, attitudes and

behaviours in meeting the individual needs of different customers in different situations (Chebat & Kollias, 2000; Ueno, 2008). Many services anticipate employee empowerment to be concluded in enhanced service quality and customer satisfaction. However, this may not be the case should the aspects required to cultivate and nurture staff empowerment do not exist in the first place. Two aspects that need to be taken into account are individual and organizational components (Koberg et al., 1999).

Chebat and Kollias (2000) argue that some staff members might perform better than others thanks to a combination of willingness, ability or talent. According to Hales and Klidas (1998), If this is the case, empowerment should be conducted alongside an appropriate selection endeavour to find the right people who can be empowerable and equipped with the talents and attitudes contributive to exhibiting an adequate and innovative decisions.

Research into management has also indicated that the perceptions of staff members on working climate are an essential issue that should be considered in the empowerment process (e.g., Robbins et al., 2002). Varca (2004) suggests that service companies should arrange training courses to develop the skills needed to meet the diverse customer needs and expectations. Similarly, other researchers accentuate the critical role of rewards system in influencing employees' behaviour (e.g., Gkorezis & Petridou, 2008; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Additionally, service quality standards should explained and absorbed by the organizational staff members, specifically frontline employees, and then employees are expected to practice autonomously in confidence (Yoon et al., 2007). These aforementioned research studies indicate that staff will not necessarily feel empowered unless they also have a positive perception of rewards, service training, and service standards communication in the organization.

A classic notion of the industrialization of service recommends that human-oriented process in service delivery makes the service industry inefficient forever (Levitt, 1976). Still, service management researchers discuss back that the human-oriented element can be the driving force of excellence in service; the so-called employee empowerment (e.g., Teng & Barrows, 2009). The process of organizational empowerment refers to giving more freedom of choice to superiors or managers related organizational judgements and power to employees that allow further authority, opportunities, and liability in their organizational duties.

Bowen and Lawler (1992) stated that employee empowerment furthers effectiveness of organization and the satisfaction of customers by generating better level of satisfaction and self-esteem for staff and engaging in discretionary behaviour aiming at meeting or exceeding guests' expectations in service encounters (Klidas et al., 2007). These empowered behaviours can be disclosed by bending the rules to satisfy guests and customers, serving them with immediate responses to their service demands, providing immediate remedies to service failures, showing devotion to satisfy them even sometimes more than their expectations (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), and using discretion in their dealings with them (Bone & Mowen, 2010).

As yet, one of the main criticisms is that empowering staff members might not be adequate for every service context. The variation in service quality is open to discussion (Lashley, 1995). According to Forrester (2000), the major cause of the failure of empowerment initiatives is that they utilise a "one-size fits all empowerment approach" that fails to differentiate between employees' abilities and desires. Hence, the extant research contends that empowerment is not absolute. Rather, it is a matter of degree. This signals managers should decide well about whom to empower and to what extent.

In relation to conceptualization of empowerment, there are two main streams of research which have investigated the structural and psychological (Jha & Nair, 2008). Structural empowerment is based on the delegation of decision making power from higher to lower levels in the organizational chain of command (Heller, 2003) as well as a dyadic relationship between empowering leadership and subordinate employees. The type of psychological empowerment, on the other hand, hypothesises that empowerment as an experienced psychological state (Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) argue that empowerment might be seen as a motivational variable defined as an intrinsic need for self-determination or a conviction in personal self-efficacy. Because of its complex nature, much of the existing research suggests a multi-layered and complex empowerment construct (Menon, 2001). Exclusively, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) developed Conger and Kanungo's (1988) psychological empowerment perspective by establishing a set of assessments such as: competence, meaningfulness, choice, and impact. The dimension of competence relates to the staff member's belief in their own ability to perform activities within their own area of strengths and weaknesses. This refers to the value attached to a work-related goal or intention, which is judged against individual employees' own standards. Self-determination, on the other hand, refers to an individual staff member's autonomy and independence within the context of the continuing work process. Lastly, the dimension of impact means the degree to which an employee can affect strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work.

When staff shows themselves willing to display OCBs, they take the initiative to aid their colleagues' heavy workloads or those who are behind schedule. This recommends that companies should galvanize employee activities from those who are not in

management, allowing these employees to take charge and demonstrate their authority in the decision-making process (Pitts, 2005). The extant research studies have mostly emphasized on the organizational level, the distribution of decision-making power and increasing available resources for employee action. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) and Conger and Kanungo (1988) have asserted that the focus should be on “psychological empowerment”. Hancer and George (2003) asserted the similar view as well.

Psychological empowerment may change the basis of internal motivation of a staff member; this feeling may improve employees’ personal motivation and make them to engage in OCBs. Moreover, it alerts the commitment of an employee, alongside their guarantee to complete tasks and stimulates to improve overall job performance and resolve problems. Hence, psychological empowerment has become an essential topic to be surveyed in the service industry (Chiang & Jang, 2008; Yen et al., 2004).

Employees’ empowerment issue has been surveyed by tourism and hospitality industry researchers (e.g., Chiang & Jang, 2008; Liden et al., 2000; Tsaur et al., 2004). For instance, Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggested that psychological empowerment is a kind of internal motivation conducive to advancing OCBs. According to Morrison (1996) empowerment has the ability to motivate staff members; boosting their aspirations and their displays of OCBs. Moreover, in order to ensure good organisational OCBs, employees must have influence in the performing of their work responsibilities. Wat and Shaffer (2005) suggested that the psychological empowerment of employees has a significant impact on OCBs. Hofstede (1980) established the concept of power distance, which is the extent to which the less authoritative staff members within organizations accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. Northern Cyprus is

categorized as a long power distance country. As such, power distance could be a factor that influences perceptions of hotel staff of their own psychological empowerment.

3.1.4.1.2 Employee rewards system

In the existing management literature, the importance of staff reward systems has been highlighted; both by theorists and practitioners. The issue of rewards systems is the fastest growing topic in human resource management. In theorizing the content and concept of a rewards system, it is typical to use of the Harvard Model of human resource management, which originated from the Harvard Business School (Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994). This model, called “Soft Variant”. It places emphasis on the human aspect of human resource management. The model comprises four key principles, which are discussed as follows. The first is the reward system itself, which is set to stimulate, motivate and retain real performers. The second element is known as ‘human resource flow’, which is similar to the common practice of developing a set of policies. The third element in the model is the level of employee involvement in the decision-making process. Finally, the work systems designed are considered, in order to produce the best outcomes (Beer et al., 1984).

Obviously, the one of fundamental functions of human resource management is to establishing rewards systems as they deal with the design and management of payments, assessment of job values, performance management, contingent pay, management of rewards procedures, and employees’ benefits and pensions. Besides, according Armstrong and Murlis (1998), staff reward systems need to consider the overall goals, values and strategies of the organisation. As Armstrong and Murlis (1998) mentioned, a

further critical issue is that the rewards systems also include the cultural development of organization as they are led by organizational requirements and can boost the commitment and motivation of employees as their philosophy must recognize the vital role of the workforce and also respect their needs and requirements.

The rewards systems are consist of two major components: financial and non-financial rewards. While the financial rewards include rewards strategies such as merit-pay, market-based pay, profit-related pay, on the other hand, non-financial reward systems instead focus their attention on the recognition of people for achievement, including responsibility, and personal growth (White & Drucker, 2000). Thorpe and Homan (2000) posit that one of the primary debates in the field of rewards management is concern the extent to which employees are motivated by money. There is a broad discussion around whether or not money is a motivator and might affect the levels of job satisfaction and extra-role customer service behaviours.

In the wake of severe competition in the global market, service firms are becoming more and more concerned with providing high quality services to attract new customers and establish loyalty from existing customers. As such, it is unsurprising that establishing reward systems is very effective way to motivate employees exhibiting extra-role behaviours beyond agreed job specifications. However, theoretically, it is surprising that there is a paucity of empirical evidence on these systems that elicit such behaviours. As a case in point, an empirical study conducted by Haworth and Levy (2001) suggest that the instrumentality of reward systems influence citizenship behaviours; but, the relationships between financial and non-financial rewards, employees' thoughts of the organization, and citizenship behaviours of FLEs all remain to be examined.

Usually over a short time period, reward programs are applied to enhance employee performance and productivity as a method for inducing desirable staff behaviour. The purpose of these programs deal with rewards is to encourage and boost specific behaviours such as OCBs (Peterson & Luthans, 2006; Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Along with the stimulating aspect of rewards system on employees' service behaviours, but they also create a positive impressions towards the organization and their superiors and managers. According to Salanova et al. (2005), the wellbeing and commitment levels of frontline staff, as well as their positive perceptions of their managers and organization, can affect their behaviour. In the same way, financial incentives and recognition (non-financial incentive) can influence the commitment, attitudes, and perceptions of employees, which are all fundamental in constructing a positive service atmosphere.

Along with the examining the influence of financial stimulus and recognition on FLEs' behavioural job outcomes, it is also proper to examine the impact of the various sources of rewards (e.g., managerial and non-managerial) on frontline staff members' perceptions and behaviours. Additionally, the distribution style of rewards within the social working environment should be explored from employee's perceptions.

Stajkovic & Luthans (2000) suggested that the job performance of a staff member does not always entirely base on their pay or available incentives. Rather, organizational commitment to them matters because employees require social exchange needs and usually base their commitment on these needs (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Stajkovic & Luthans 1997). Thus, via the use of financial rewards and recognition, organizations can demonstrate the degree that how much valuable their employees are. A physical award

from the organization as a symbol of favourable effort can make employee to sense highly regarded and is likely to reciprocate to the organization in the future.

According to Stajkovic and Luthans (1997), the behaviours of staff are also affected by their social exchange needs and other, related factors. This means that rewards systems and social recognition cannot and should not be related to pay. Instead, they should be related to behaviours, and must be both instrumental in causing the desired response, and awarded as close as possible to the desired response.

It is accepted that rewards can lead or adjust attitudes and behaviour. However, the perceptions and beliefs of staff may also modify these elements; based upon the efficacy of the tangible reward or the social recognition and the source and style from whom it is presented. According to Deci et al. (1999a), the behavioural control subject to external variables. As such, the overall impact will reduce and even disappear when reinforcement is unavailable. That is when incentives are not instrumental to behaviour and generally undermine intrinsic motivation.

Positive reinforcement, incentives, and reinforcers are all separately defined and discussed by the relevant theoretical background (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Positive reinforcement places emphasis on the consequence of a response or behaviour. An incentive is something that an employee wants or expects, and reinforcer is anything that increases the chances of that response occurring. Moreover, Bandura (1977) suggested that rewards represent externally controlled influences on behaviour.

Obviously, the procurement of incentives can adjust human behaviour. Luthans (2002) argues that a reward system might raise the occurrence of desired behaviour by the time, if the reward is specifically provided to encourage a particular behaviour. On the other hand, recognition is an essential driver of positive behaviour beyond any

tangible motive related to it. An empirical research shows that the use of oral recognition is related to boosted intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999). According to Rhoades et al. (2001), it is important that when employees feel valued by the organization, this leads to improved task behaviour, lower turnover intention, and increased incidence of citizenship behaviours. A recent empirical research conducted by Wiesman (2007) in a fast food chain demonstrated that, when managers ensured they gave staff positive social reinforcement and good feedback, not only did performance increase but financial profit increased as well.

Even though recognition is a motivating factor in organizations, it is not enough to be applied on its own and it should be complemented by financial motives. If financial stimulus is delivered without recognition, employees may become saturated with those tangible incentives causing them to lose their significance. In the long run, that may decrease the ability of rewards to initiate specific behaviours. An empirical research conducted by Cook and Dixon (2005) in a service setting reported the amalgamation of oral evaluation and a financial incentive are strongly associated with performance increases.

Furthermore, it has been shown that recognition can strongly indicate that tangible motives are to follow. Thus, recognition gives an employee the power to anticipate upcoming action such as pay rises or promotion. In addition, social outcomes related to performance can become predictors of prospective rewards, which also strengthen employee's behaviour (Bandura, 1986; Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Even though recognition should take a place in a company's inventory, it is subject to the frequency of rewards to preserve its motivational effects overtime.

Consequently, recognition and financial incentives can boost desired attitudes and behaviours. However, a central issue here is the individual who is responsible for delivering the system of rewards and social recognition. Rewards are mainly provided from managerial sources. Business unit managers can give encouraging feedback to staff, related to the progress of exhibited behaviours or show through sample behaviour that is relevant and efficient. Additionally, they possess discretion to allocate tangible stimulus and/or exhibit social recognition to control and modify behaviours.

Managers and subordinates can initiate and take part in positive interactions, which in turn can lead to greater organisation performance. It can be concluded that managers can reorganise the functional behaviours of their staff members by making them public, simply verbalizing their appreciation, providing appropriate and timely feedback, and/or going out and celebrating. George et al. (1999) stressed that managers should pay close attention to the auditing and evaluation of specific behaviours such as calling customers with their names and add these exhibited behaviours in their performance measurements.

3.1.4.2 Intrinsic motivation

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined intrinsic motivation as the good feelings that come from favourable job experiences that give pleasure to staff member. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), “intrinsic motivation is a crucial for open-ended cognitive development”. Hence, Ryan and Deci (2000) defined intrinsic motivation as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence”. Once the employee finds his/her job pleasant and exciting, then they will have the motivation to put considerable effort into performing their tasks within the organization.

On the other hand, according to Grabner and Speckbacher (2009), intrinsic motivation is not only wills boost effort, but it will also have big impact on other aspects of employee behaviour. Consistent with the conservation of resources (COR) theory, intrinsic motivation is one of the individual characteristics that may contribute stress resistance (Hobfoll, 1989).

Intrinsic motivation refers to an individual's "feeling of challenge or competence derived from performing a job" (Keaveney, 1992, p.151). Thomas (2000) contended that competence, a sense of meaningfulness, progress, and choice are the psychological signals of intrinsic motivation. Besides, intrinsic motivation leads to enhanced job satisfaction (Miller, 2002). Motivation is a multifaceted variable. An adequate way of thinking about the multiple aspects of motivation is to consider personal motivations.

Amabile (1993) presents this academic explanation:

"Individuals are *intrinsically motivated* when they seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in the work. Individuals are *extrinsically motivated* when they engage in the work in order to obtain some goal that is apart from the work itself" (p. 186).

Existing research has suggested that intrinsic motivation may be more efficient in influencing performance when compared to extrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan's (2004) self-determination theory, for instance, envisions a continuum of motivations, ranging from controlled to autonomous motivation. They suggest that "individuals may internalize values into an identity, which itself then becomes a source of motivation, is based on the satisfaction of three basic psychological needs, competence, autonomy, and relatedness". They distinguish four forms of identity regulation that correspond to types of extrinsic motivation: external regulation, introjection, identification, and integration.

It can be said that, should a work environment provide the fundamental needs of an individual, the internalization of identities level will be more (Deci & Ryan, 2004).

There are two forms of extrinsic motivation in the most up-to-date version of Deci and Ryan's (2004) theory. These are identification and integration, which afford individuals comparatively high degrees of autonomy. Despite these types of extrinsic motivation allow relatively high motivation, they fall short of motivation degrees acquired from intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is distinctive in that individuals are motivated without tangible stimuli or recognition, and it works as the most prominent predictor of employee attitudes and performance.

Quiley and Tymon Jr (2005) stated that intrinsic motivation is the key motivation element of employee empowerment and employees are responsible for achieving their own career success. Primarily, it is based on the positive experiences that staff acquire directly from their work tasks, such as, competence, meaningfulness, progress, and choice. According to Bymes (2006), employees with external motivators are motivated by salary or wage increases. However, it should be noted that, internal motivations relate to the desire to be employed in a certain role by a particular firm, in which organizational values and work requirements are closely linked with that employee's personal values and talents. Internal motivation is related to diminished absences, high levels of job satisfaction, more staff creativity and less necessity for direct supervision. Individuals with internal motivational motives enjoy their work, like co-workers and take pride in performing their job requirements.

Kehr (2004) posits that the implicit drives results in spontaneous, expressive and pleasurable behaviour and can be grouped into three constructs; power, affiliation, and achievement. Power means to dominance and social control. Affiliation refers to social

connections which are established and intensified and achievement is when personal standards of excellence are to be met or surpassed. Katz (2005) expressed that intrinsic factors are the major cause for an individual's level of dedication and motivation. It is true that external motivations, such as working conditions and salary, are also essential, but do not provide the commitment and excitement that the employee needs.

Employees' perceptions of how work tasks, rewards, information and decisions are managed, delegated or organised, dictates how motivated they will feel in their role. Highly motivating job assignments are strongly linked to the individual activities an employee views as pleasure. Should the employee is going to view the job as pleasure, the following high levelled intrinsic components required to be considered (see Table 7).

Table 7: Framework for work motivation

Dimension of task characteristics	Definitions
Skill variety	The degree to which the job requires use of different skills, abilities, and talents
Task identity	The degree to which the person feels that he or she is part of the whole job or project activity from the beginning to end
Task significance	The degree to which the job is considered important by and has impact on the lives of others
Autonomy	The degree to which the job provides freedom, independence, and discretion in how the work is carried out
Feedback	The degree to which the person is provided clear and direct information about the effectiveness of his or her performance

Source: Katz, (2005, p.21.).

Furthermore, Robbins (2003), in his/her study, favours Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory comprised of five needs (see Figure 3); physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization. According to Maslow's theory (1943), a need is not motivating when satisfied and thus the following need becomes to dominate. Physiological and safety

needs are lower-range needs, because they are satisfied externally. The remaining three are satisfied internally and therefore higher-order needs.

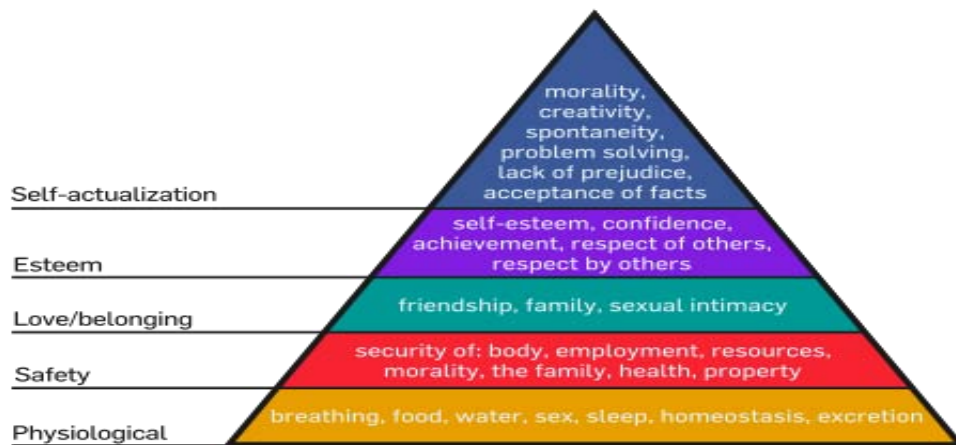


Figure 3: Maslow's hierarchy of needs
Source: Adapted by Robbins, (2003, p. 156).

3.1.4.3 Polychronicity

Bluedorn et al. (1992) stated that our preferences for patterns of timekeeping have a potentially significant impact on workplace behaviours. For example, timekeeping may have an impact on whether one sees oneself as a time waster or a good planner. Traditionally, workplaces have expected that staff will complete individual activities in sequence and within a specific time block. However, the pressures of today's competitive market means that employers are increasingly expecting their staff to simultaneously complete a wide variety of tasks (Persing, 1999).

In the particular case of hotels, employees are often faced with a variety of unpredictable events at any one time, including dissatisfied guests, special requests and non-standard orders (Bitner et al., 1990). Staff are not only expected to complete these tasks simultaneously, but also display excellent service performance and delivery at the same time. However, the approaches to timekeeping of staff members may affect the achievement of their goals and, ultimately, their overall performance. An increasingly competitive market means that more and more employees are expected to adapt to this contemporary approach to time management. The variable that explains how employees perceive time management is known as ‘polychronicity’.

Polychronicity refers to “the extent to which people prefer to be engaged in two or more tasks or events simultaneously; and believe that their preference is the best way to do things” (Bluedorn et al., 1999a). Initially, Hall (1959) mentioned about polychronicity. Since then, it has developed into a cultural and personality variable that describes (A) a culture or personal choice to fulfil multiple tasks simultaneously and (B) a belief that multitasking is the adequate manner to work on tasks (Bluedorn et al., 1999b; Schell & Conte, 2008). This personality variable creates a distinction between two different ways people approach and organize time.

In this regard, Conte et al. (1999) proposed that monochronic employees tend to work on one duty in a given time-span, but polychronic employees feel comfortable to work on multiple tasks at once. This distinction is applicable at an individual level and at a cultural level. A country, an organization, a work team, or an office is all examples of a culture in this context. The degree of polychronicity of a culture is evaluated by the polychronic norms within the culture. Individual level polychronicity is simply one’s personal polychronic disposition.

Usually, people exhibit different levels of polychronic behaviours. As a result, it is recommended to consider people as falling along a continuum with monochronic tendencies on one end and polychronic tendencies on the other rather than classifying people as either monochronic or polychronic (Bluedorn et al., 1992; Conte & Jacobs, 2003). Conte and Gintoft (2005) stressed that a fairly polychronic employee would find it desirable to work on many job tasks at once. A monochronic person, on the other hand, would prefer to engage in a specific job duty at once (e.g., not starting a new task until the previous task is finished). Along with the working on several tasks simultaneously, polychronic people believe that managing interruptions is the preferred way to perform (Conte & Jacobs, 2003). Monochronic individuals would not agree with this belief since they do not want to be pulled away or distracted from the current task at hand.

After this initial hypothesis, the concept of monochronicity-polychronicity was subsequently developed by Hall (1983), to explain the ‘temporal personality’ of both individuals and groups. Hall states in her/his book *The Hidden Dimension* (1966) that low engagement is typical of the monochronic personality type. They will usually schedule one activity at any one time, and will often become disorientated if there are too many tasks at once. As an example, a monochronic person would focus on a single task during a morning, and would regard an unexpected event, such as a telephone call, as an undesirable interruption. Meanwhile, the polychronic personality is comfortable with performing multiple activities or tasks at the same time. In contrast to their monochronic colleagues, a polychronic employee would welcome the chance to engage in many different activities in the space of a morning, and would not consider

unscheduled events (such as telephone calls or customer requests) as interruptions (Arndt et al., 2006).

According to Bluedorn et al. (1999a) and Arndt et al. (2006), ‘polychronic time use has broadened into two discrete forms: (1) multi-tasking; and (2) task-switching’. One of the forms of polychronicity is multi-tasking and described as engaging in multiple practices at the same time (Ofori-Dankwa & Julian, 2001). Bluedorn et al. (1999a, p. 207) contended that ‘the factor of ‘at the same time’ in the definition of polychronicity refers literally to ‘very short spans of time’ or instantaneous’. For instance, it may be possible for some hotel receptionists to talk on phone with a customer and entering data into computer at the same time.

Unlike, Frei et al. (1999) stated that task-switching means to the preference for moving forth and back among work duties in a short time span. As a case in point, employees may be able to change their deal of one job duty to another one in a given time-period. Consequently, task-switching term is functionally different from the multi-tasking concept. Task-switching behaviour is suitable in the hospitality context due to its human-oriented characteristics. It would be logical to assume that individuals are expected engage in multiple activities in a given time span.

For measuring polychronicity, Kaufman et al. (1991) has improved a four-item scale, the Polychronic Attitudes Index (PAI). Afterward, Bluedorn et al. (1999a) developed and tested Inventory of Polychronic Values for sample of employees from different jobs. Lately, Hui et al. (2010) used this scale (coefficient = 0.73) with a sample of 260 middle and their immediate supervisors in three Chinese organizations.

Hence, polychronic employees are problem-focused and have capability to successfully manage challenging service encounters. For instance, while polychronic

restaurant waiters are dealing with customers' requests, they are also expected to be ready to deal with the other customers' problems in an organizationally-desired emotion. This type of situations is common for them, because they do not regard these simultaneous tasks as an interruption. So, they should be able carry out these tasks in a given time period. There is empirical evidence to support the premise that such individuals have positive attitudinal and behavioural results. Particularly, Arndt et al. (2006) and Jang and George (2012) proposed that polychronic employees are satisfied with their jobs and report lower turnover intentions. Similarly, Conte and Gintoft (2005) reveals that polychronic employees have high-quality job performance and display better creativity or creative performance (Madjar & Oldham, 2006).

Nonetheless, it should be noted that polychronicity might generate a negative influence on the performance of some staff members. Slocombe and Bluedorn (1999), for example, studied the preferred patterns of time management of individual workers, as well as the perceived time patterns of co-workers and managers. They realized that incongruity between individual and perceived supervisor/co-workers' time patterns would lead to lower (perceived) levels of fairness in performance evaluations and organizational commitment. In addition, according to Barley (1988), contemporary organisations are often multifaceted that many employees from different backgrounds operate on diverse temporal frameworks. While similar temporal frameworks contribute to improve group cohesiveness, on the other hand, problems may arise that groups with dissimilar time management strategies are required to interact.

3.1.4.4 Nepotism

Nepotism was explained in Webster's Third New International Dictionary (Merriam-Webster, 2000) as "the appointment of nephews or other kin to duties based on relationships rather than qualifications". Nepotism can be defined as the achievement of a job offer, promotion, and/or procurement of more favourable work circumstances and so forth to relatives without looking their job-related qualifications and skills, but owing to their kinship ties (Arasli & Tumer, 2008; Conway, 2004; Ozsemerci, 2003). Nepotism is, in other words, the special treatment of family members or kin-directed beneficence (Chapais, 2001; Moore, 1992). The general definition of nepotism accepted by the relevant literature is "the advancement of relatives on the basis of family rather than merit" (Donnelly, 1964) and "using family influence in order to employ relatives" (Jones, 2004, 2011).

Furthermore, Abdalla et al. (1998) stated that nepotism came from the Latin word "Nepot" or "Nepos" related to "Nephew" which means grandson. Nepotism refers to favouring relatives due to their relationship with favourer rather than their skills, for more clarification, employed or promoted a relative rather than a more qualified non-relative, also this is a form of kin selection. Nelton (1998) describes nepotism as favouritism related to appoint relatives in good positions, which in turn may harm the organization. Similarly, Reed and Bruce (1993) suggest that employees might feel injustice when they work with relatives or who relatives in the organization.

According to Laker and Williams (2003), the first type is family nepotism which means the hiring of a relative of the owner of the business. Moreover it means blood relations which can be lineal, collateral and affinity such as the relatives. Second type is the paired employees which mean the hiring of a spouse of an existing employee, which refers favouritism to paired employees depending on the age, gender, qualifications and

marital status. Political nepotism is the third type which means putting one's relatives in a political position of favour such as the relative of a powerful ascends to high position without appropriate qualifications. And, forth type is the organizational nepotism which means the hiring of an individual related to an existing employee other than the owner of the firm.

The most important influence of nepotism on organizational employment processes is the reality that applicants are selected based on their close friendship or blood ties. May be these applicants who are recruited based on close relationship with current employee or manager in the organization do not possess sufficient capability and qualifications for the vacancy and may be they will not able to perform as well as other applicants that have appropriate quality. In the short run, this situation lead poorness in organizational productivity and may cause negative impact organizational justice, motivation and harmony. Besides, productive and real performers may quit their jobs by the time and spread negative word of mouth to all related parties such as customers and coworkers, thus this may harm the image of the organization and operational efficiency (Araslı & Tumer, 2008).

Another potential outcome of nepotism is that it could lead to much lower levels of efficiency in supervising family-member employees. Accordingly, the complex structure of the parent-child bond will mean that the parent owners of the firm are naturally biased towards their children and will create inadequate decisions in evaluation process related with them (Lubatkin et al., 2005; Schulze et al., 2001; Schulze et al., 2003). This may results in audit reports to be far from reflecting the fact. The reason for this is that nepotism can make an influence on the optimum establishment of the internal control system which generates the preparatory stage of the auditing process. This situation may

negatively affect the efficacy of the auditing process. In nepotism, inter-generational transfer of management is usually prevalent in family firms in several countries and passed on to beneficiary of founder rather than a management competent (Bertrand & Schoar, 2006; Burkart, 2003). This mirrors the desire of the founder in order to transmit the management of organization to an heir and this situation may be a sacrifice of the organizational critical decision based on the founder's satisfaction.

According to Arasli et al. (2006), the main causes of nepotism can be determined and grouped under four key titles such as socio-cultural and behavioural structure, economic structure, educational structure, and political structure. Socio-cultural and behavioural structure is the first dimension which subjects to the kinship and tribal ties. For instance, this type of connections dominates in the Middle East sociocultural context and assists to shape expanded family ties (Ali & Al-Shakhis, 1991). Second dimension is economic structure that can help creating competition in work opportunities within the nepotism to provide jobs. The third is educational structure create new generation which fight the nepotism phenomenon, which at the end creates an imbalance in the labour market as well as finding jobs for relatives and friends. Finally, political structure always assigns jobs for relatives rather than the qualified; also they try to satisfy relatives by giving them jobs which leads to political nepotism.

In many businesses, family-owned or not, accepted nepotism as an unprofessional practice and source of inequity, such that, decision on employee selection is based on kinship ties (Paget & Morris, 2005). Actually, most of the non-family owned businesses try to regulate rules and policies against nepotism actions such as promoting a family-member employee based on performance his/her measures and further declare nepotistic practices as unethical. Empirical research shows that numerous kind of organizational

policies and regulations are executed against nepotism actions in the organizations (e.g., Reed & Bruce, 1993).

Moreover, Bute (2011) contends that nepotism is usually seen as an undesirable outcome of family-owned businesses (FOBs). According to Kets de Vries (1993), favouritism constructed into the personnel practices of FOBs becomes a concern when favouritism overrules good business philosophy. For example, while family commitment causes relatives to be employed, promoted, or handed other career opportunities despite a lack of skills, on the other hand, this may cause dysfunctional influences on the effective running of organization. Similarly, Ford and McLaughlin (1985) argue that nepotism decreases morale for those who feel that awards and promotion given to a family member without looking actual performance. According to Kets de Vries (1993), it can be assumed that, even in the case of FOBs that discourage or even forbid nepotism, the perceptions that this kind of practices are still discussed as a common characteristic of FOBs.

However, according to the some research studies, FOBs can benefit from nepotism in a number of ways (Nicholson, 2008a, 2008b). For example, according to Bellow (2003) and Jones et al. (2008), family employees can better engage in their organizational duties and show continuity. Gilding (2005) argues that that nepotistic action can be a benefit to members of family. Whatever organizational disadvantages result from nepotism might be offset by the benefits and advantages. Assuming the business continues to operate good, nepotistic action may be viewed as an important advantage based on criteria associated with the gains of family.

In FOBs, it can be argued that a nepotistic practice comes with the territory. The distribution of organizational resources (e.g., rewards and promotion opportunities) is

probable to be effected by family membership; with family members given preference over non-family members (Kets de Vries, 1993). Similarly, this research posits that having a voice (the degree of participation in decision making) is closely related to family membership in the organization, out of necessity.

In family-owned businesses, higher level positions are assigned to employees who possess family ties and are provided more privileges to involve in the decision making process of the organization, while the same privileges are not provided those who are have not family ties. According to Nicholson (2008a), family members are typically excused of the orders, regulations, and results that apply to non-family members—tolerating misbehaviour or providing special privileges to family members such as additional day off. However, the perceptions of individuals about nepotism and the fairness of nepotism are probably to change for family and non-family members.

Boadi (2000) contends that nepotism might cause conflict the loyalties of the organization among the employee who is unqualified in supervisory position and the qualified one who deserves this position which leads to disturbing feelings in the organization. Nepotism can impact productivity through the mediating role of employee satisfaction and perception of fairness. Nepotism can also influence the HRM practices negatively (Arasli & Tumer, 2008; Poutziouris et al., 2004) which could be invisible and dangerous in FOBs.

3.1.4.5 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction in a narrow context might be accepted as “....the feelings or a general attitude of the employees in relation with their jobs and the job components such as the

working environment, working conditions, equitable rewards, and communication with the colleagues” (Kim et al., 2005). Locke (1969, p. 317) defined job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as “that job satisfaction is the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating one’s job values”. Job dissatisfaction is “the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one’s values”. According to George and Jones (2008), job satisfaction indicates how much an employee is happy or unhappy with his/her job.

Herzberg et al. (1959) devised the “theory of job satisfaction”. Their two-factor theory (see Figure 4) argues that staff has two types of needs; hygiene and motivation. Hygiene factors are the needs that may be very satisfied by some certain conditions called hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) such as physical working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relations, benefits, salary, etc.

Moreover, this theory posits that job dissatisfaction is expected in the circumstances where hygiene factors do not exist in someone’s working environment. Conversely, according to Furnham et al. (2002), when a staff member’s hygiene needs are met, it does not necessarily give rise to in full job satisfaction. Rather, the overall levels of dissatisfaction are decreased.

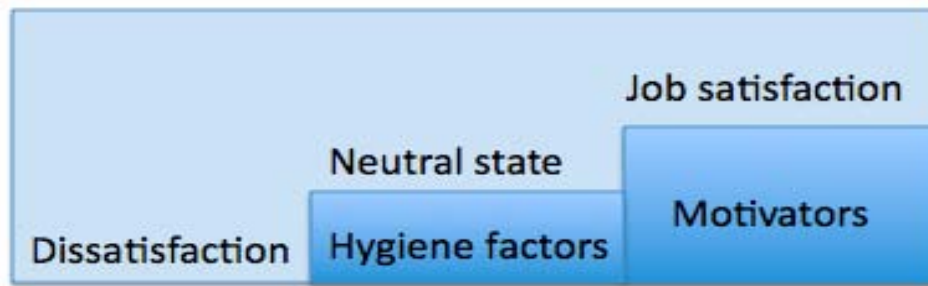


Figure 4: Herzberg's two factor theory
Source: Herzberg's two factor theory (1959).

In the business management literature, employee satisfaction is one of the most well surveyed concepts for several rationales. First, according to Schjoedt (2009), job satisfaction draws attention by management researchers interested in the subjective assessment of job circumstance. Second is practitioners' interest in succeeding adequate results, such as citizenship behaviour (Bowling, 2010). Finally, job satisfaction has major consequences on the world of work, as it is a multifaceted and constant relevant variable covering all jobs, professions, and contexts. Though some conflict concerning this issue (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001), many studies recognize job satisfaction as a key element influencing productivity (e.g., Ng et al., 2009; Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is not just confined to an individual's job, but also linked with their overall attitudes and life satisfaction (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Ilies et al., 2009).

Many research studies have examined employees' attitudes towards their experiences of work, alongside their view on specific aspects of their jobs such as pay

and promotion (Spector, 1997). While an employee with a high level of job satisfaction is expected to show constantly positive attitudes and behaviours towards his/her job, on the other hand, an employee dissatisfied with his/her job is expected to show negative attitudes and behaviours. Weiss (2002) contends that job satisfaction is conceptually an extensive variable, which encompasses most (if not all) of the characteristics of the job itself, as well as the wider working environment, which employees find rewarding, fulfilling, and satisfying, or just the opposite. Actually, all the related arguments congregate on the assumption that job satisfaction is correlated with a complex set of interrelationships of tasks, roles, interactions, incentives, and responsibilities (Bowling et al., 2008).

In the related literature, the classification of the predictors and results of employee satisfaction vary. Importantly, the source significance of job satisfaction differs for management scholars. An empirical research study demonstrated that “researchers estimate that 30% of an employee’s job satisfaction is associated with dispositional and genetic components” (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007, p. 212). Empirical studies focusing on the significance of personality traits and intrinsic dispositions found that employee satisfaction is stable over time even though the employee changed his/her work. As noted by a longitudinal research, employees’ satisfaction remained stable over a five year period, even though the employees changed their jobs (Staw & Ross, 1985).

Similarly, another longitudinal research conducted by Steel and Rentsch (1997) confirmed the study of Staw and Ross (1985). However, But Steel and Rentsch found that the employees who changed their jobs had higher level of job satisfaction stability when compared to employees who stayed in similar jobs. This suggests how vital innate

sources (i.e., personality traits) and extrinsic sources (i.e., working conditions) are to levels of job satisfaction.

Furthermore, there is empirical finding that highlights the essentiality of situational elements such as working conditions, characteristics of the job, managerial initiatives, opportunities that job offers, and co-worker interactions. For instance, intrinsically satisfying tasks, which offer a feeling of recognition, responsibility, advancement, good job security, supervision, and flexibility, boost job satisfaction while displeasing physical working conditions and unequal treatment decrease job satisfaction (Koys, 2001; Mossholder et al., 2005). As a consequence of job satisfaction, OCBs has been extensively surveyed by the related literature researchers and job satisfaction was recommended as a strong driver of OCBs (e.g., Farh et al., 1990; Moorman et al., 1993), job satisfaction influence willingness to cooperate and contribute to the collaborative organizational mechanism as well.

In the tourism and hospitality industry, frontline staff members require greater levels of motivation in order to overcome the high levels of pressure that result from demanding guests and unexpected situations. An empirical research conducted by Akfeldt and Coote (2005) suggests that levels of job satisfaction are positively correlated to OCBs (e.g., helping behaviour, sportsmanship, and civic virtue). Similarly, Gonzalez and Garazo (2006) proposed that job satisfaction has a positive impact on OCBs (helping behaviour, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiatives, and civic virtue) in the hotel industry.

Moreover, an empirical research conducted by Yoon and Suh (2003) found that elements such as civic virtues and sportsmanship were also positively correlated to job satisfaction in a sample of frontline staff working in travel agencies. As a result, job

satisfaction can be seen as one of the most important factors for encouraging the OCBs of frontline employees in the hospitality and tourism industry. Therefore the current thesis aims to examine the association between job satisfaction and OCBs in North Cyprus hotel context.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

4.1 Conceptual model

Figure 5 presents the conceptual model and hypothetical relationships between the selected antecedents and OCBs. It is proposed that MCSQ variables (empowerment and rewards) are positive significant predictors of both job satisfaction and OCBs. Intrinsic motivation and polychronicity are also positive drivers of job satisfaction and OCBs. Because of FLEs' high face to face interactions with customers, the need for this empirical research in North Cyprus hotel context is accentuated by prominent characteristics (intrinsic motivation and polychronicity) of FLEs. Specifically, aforementioned characteristics of the hotel industry in small states or in developing countries like North Cyprus, make selection and employment of intrinsically-motivated and polychronic FLEs more reasonable human resource strategy indeed. They are expected to be more satisfied with the organization where resources are limited, multi-tasking, demanding situations and nepotistic behaviours are common.

On the other hand, nepotism as a common behaviour exerted by many owner or managers in the organizations and is suggested as the most important obstacle in front of the organizational success and survival. Thus it has been added as a dysfunctional variable in the model of this thesis. Nepotism is negative significant predictor of job satisfaction and OCBs. Job satisfaction was deliberately included in the model as an

affective outcome and antecedent as well. Job satisfaction has positive influence on OCBs.

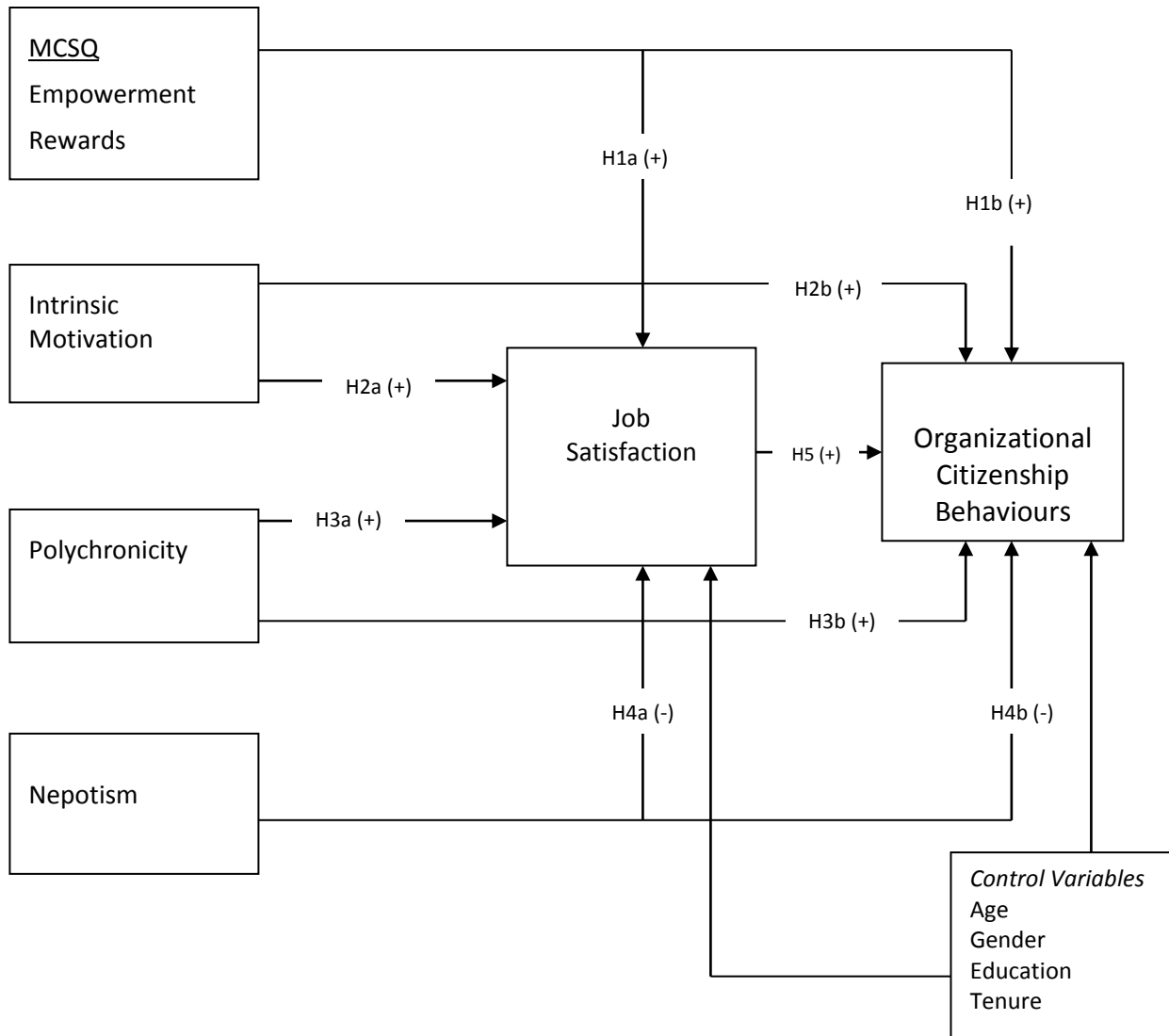


Figure 5: Conceptual model of organizational citizenship behaviours

4.1.1 The influence of MCSQ on job satisfaction and OCBs

According to Babakus et al. (2003, p. 3), MCSQ refers “employees’ appraisal of an organization’s commitment to nurture, develop, support and reward its employees to achieve service excellence”. According to Hartline and Ferrell (1996), MCSQ is “the manager’s affective desire to improve his or her unit’s service quality” (p. 53). Further, Gronross (1988) proposed that when business organizations value their employees, reciprocally employees treat their customers well. Fuller et al. (2003) suggested that when employees feel that their organizations value them through managerial initiatives, then they are more likely to commit themselves to organization. Additionally, Forrester (2000) argues that evaluations of managerial practices by employees are adequate instrument to objectively assess initiatives that relate to MCSQ.

Past research embrace that MCSQ (empowerment and rewards) increase employees’ job satisfaction. For instance, Hinkin and Schriesheim (2004) proposed the existence of a positive relationship between rewards that are provided by management and employee job satisfaction and effectiveness of work produced. Rod and Ashill (2010) also concluded a positive relationship between MCSQ and job satisfaction for a sample of FLEs. Kim et al. (2009a) and Lam et al. (2002) found that MCSQ had increases in hotel employees’ job satisfaction. Cheung and To (2010) concluded the similar finding.

An empirical research conducted by Arasli and Daskin (2012) reported that MCSQ is positively associated with FLEs’ satisfaction in a hotel setting. Research in the healthcare context has demonstrated that empowerment has a significant role in boosting employee job satisfaction (Ugboro, 2006). Also, a research in the public management context concluded the similar finding (Ashill et al., 2008).

Furthermore, employee empowerment as a type of managerial initiative is a hot topic in service management literature (Chiang & Jang, 2008; Liden et al., 2000; Tsaur et al., 2004). For example, Conger and Kanungo (1988) proposed that psychological empowerment can be an effective motivational tool in increasing OCBs. Morrison (1996) suggested that empowerment helps employees to exhibit more OCBs. Similarly, Wat and Shaffer (2005) reported that employees' empowerment significantly impacts OCBs.

It is obvious that establishing rewards mechanism (financial and nonfinancial) as managerial initiative brings many organizational utilities together with regulating of desired organizational behaviours. For instance, an empirical study conducted by Stajkovic and Luthans (1997) depicted that employee behaviour and performance is positively influenced by various types of rewards such that the management of recognition promoted employee performance by 14% and tangible incentives promoted performance by 15%. In a similar empirical study, Haworth and Levy (2001) realized that rewards mechanism has positive impact on OCBs. Also, a positive relationship between rewards and OCBs was found by Jo et al. (2009) for a sample of frontline employees. In the light of preceding discussion, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: MCSQ (employee empowerment and rewards) is positively related to FLEs' job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1b: MCSQ (employee empowerment and rewards) is positively related to FLEs' OCBs.

4.1.2 The effect of intrinsic motivation on job satisfaction and OCBs

Keaveney, (1992, p. 151) defined intrinsic motivation as “individual’s ‘feeling of challenge or competence derived from performing a job’”. According to Deci and Ryan, (2004), intrinsic motivation is a prominent antecedent to employee attitudes and performance among different kind of motivational factors. Especially, in an empirical study conducted by Lu (1999), intrinsic motivation (feelings of accomplishment and self-fulfillment) was found to be a significant antecedent of high-tenured employees’ job satisfaction. An empirical study conducted by Low et al. (2001) depicted that salespeople’s job satisfaction was positively affected by their intrinsic motivation. An empirical research conducted by Karatepe and Uludag (2007) in hospitality industry found that intrinsic motivation had a significant effect on FLEs’ satisfaction. Also, Cho and Perry (2011) concluded the similar finding.

Further, Miller, (2002) suggested that employees who possess higher intrinsic motivation show better performance and are more ingenious. Cardona et al. (2004) proposed that when employees feel that the work environment helpful to improve their self-development and their intrinsic motivation, then they develop constructive attitudes and behaviours in workplace which specifically increase engagement in OCBs.

According to Gagne and Deci (2005), employees who possess higher degree of intrinsic motivation are expected to engage more in their jobs and exhibit better OCBs than those who have lower level of intrinsic motivation. A research conducted in service industry by Babakus et al. (1996) also reported that intrinsic motivation is positively associated with employees’ performance perceptions. So, this thesis proposes that employees who possess higher degree of intrinsic motivation are expected to display

high job satisfaction and OCBs in workplace. To date, in the management literature, the empirical research evidences the relationship between intrinsic motivation and OCBs is scarce. By considering this, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: There is a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2b: There is a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and OCBs.

4.1.3 The effect of polychronicity on job satisfaction and OCBs

Polychronicity was described by Bluedorn et al. (1999, p. 207) as “the extent to which people in a culture: (1) prefer to be engaged in two or more tasks or events simultaneously; and (2) believe their preference is the best way to do things” Polychronic personalities choose to be engaged in many tasks in a given period of time, while monochronic individuals prefer to deal with only one work at the same time before taking on another work (Conte & Gintoft, 2005).

In management literature, there are a few research studies show the association between polychronicity and job satisfaction. For example, one of those empirical studies was conducted by Arndt et al. (2006) using 313 retail employees to explore the influence of polychronicity on FLEs’ satisfaction. This study showed that FLEs who possess polychronicity characteristic are more satisfied with their jobs. Specially, Bitner et al. (1990) stated that FLEs who have high customer interaction in service encounters such as a hotel reception are not only expected to overcome demanding situations like nervous customers, but are also expected to exhibit extra effort to complete tasks in a short time-span. Similarly, Jang and George (2012) concluded that polychronicity is significant predictor of FLEs’ job satisfaction in a hotel setting.

Additionally, in management literature, there is a few empirical evidence has explored the association between polychronicity and behavioural outcomes such OCBs. For instance, an empirical research conducted by Conte and Gintoft (2005) showed that polychronicity had significant and positive influence on ratings of customer service by supervisors. An empirical research conducted in hotel industry has reported indirect impact of polychronicity on job performance (.07, $t = 2.09$) and extra-role customer service behaviours (.08, $t = 2.22$) through work engagement (Karatepe et al., 2013).

Hospitality industry is human-oriented one and employees are expected to deal with several job duties beyond their job specifications. Under the circumstances, potential employees should possess suitable personality to be able to stay motivated against highly demanding situations. This is also confirmed by person–environment theory (P–E theory) which refers to compatibility between individuals and their work environment (Ehrhart & Makransky, 2007; Verquer et al., 2003).

Giving the importance of person-job fit for this industry, it obvious that that switching behaviours among job duties are frequently required, so, polychronicity as a personality trait might be critical factor in order to attain organizational performance. For example, employees who possess this characteristic may be comfortable to deal with several customers in a short time-span. That kind of individuals use preference accurately matches with hotel work environments and they engage in working on multiple tasks and frequent switching extra-role behaviours (OCBs) in the flow of work. Therefore, it would be logical to assume strong polychronic individuals may be more satisfied with their jobs and show better OCBs. Based on this discussion, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 3a: Polychronicity has a positive influence on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: Polychronicity has a positive influence on OCBs.

4.1.4 The influence of nepotism on job satisfaction and OCBs

Abdalla et al. (1998) stated that nepotism is derived from the Latin word Nepot (nephew). Today, nepotism is defined as the employment of relatives within the same organization. In addition, the longman dictionary of Contemporary English defines nepotism as “the practice of favoring one’s relatives when one has power or a high office, especially by giving them good jobs.” One negative effect of nepotism on organizational employee selection processes is the reality that job applicants are selected based on their family-related ties. Perhaps those favored employees would not have sufficient knowledge and qualifications for the job and they may not exhibit optimal performance as good as other candidates who carry desired skills for the job. Therefore, this situation causes decrease in organizational productivity and negatively affects organizational trust (Arasli & Tumer, 2008). Toy et al. (1988) found that nepotistic actions decrease satisfaction of employees who must inspect and work with relatives of high-level managers.

Furthermore, Arasli et al. (2006) concluded that nepotism is a significant negative driver of FLEs’ satisfaction. Bute (2011) concluded the similar finding. They suggest that, employees may not be sufficiently motivated in the organizations where nepotism dominates. It would not be easy to promote an employee, whether undertakes administrative job or not, when he/she is forced to compete with an employee who is relative or acquaintance of an executive within the organization. Also, nepotism might cause conflict for the loyalties of the organization between the employees who are

unqualified relative in supervisory position and the qualified one who deserve this position then this leads to uncomfortable feelings in the organization (Boadi, 2000).

Nepotism can affect employee productivity through its impact on employees' perception of fairness and employee satisfaction. (Arasli et al., 2006; Poutziouris et al., 2004) which could be invisible and dangerous in the family business. In the management literature, not many studies were conducted to explore the affect of nepotism on job satisfaction. However, to our knowledge, there is no empirical evidence upon its relationship with OCBs. Based on the above discussion, it would be logical to presume that nepotistic practices can also affect the behavioral outcomes of employees such as decreasing OCBs. Thus, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 4a: Nepotism has a negative influence on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4b: Nepotism has a negative influence on OCBs.

4.1.5 The influence of job satisfaction on OCBs

Job satisfaction is defined as an employee's overall affective state resulting from an appraisal of all aspects of his or her job (Babin & Boles, 1998; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Satisfaction judgments capture the extent to which an employee feels pleased, happy, and rewarded, or displeased, unhappy, and exploited. The management and marketing literatures support the job attitudes–OCBs relationship (e.g., Ngunia et al., 2006; Schappe, 1998). Bateman and Organ (1983) reported positive associations between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours in their studies of academics and managers.

Williams and Anderson (1991) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs in their study of professional managers. Similarly, Foote and

Tang (2008) reported a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs for 242 full-time employees in manufacturing industry. Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta-analysis of 55 studies showed those employees' job attitudes; especially job satisfaction and organizational commitment can predict OCBs better than dispositional variables. Podsakoff et al. (2000) suggested consistent support for the positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs in their meta-analysis of the management literature.

Furthermore, Akfeldt and Coote's (2005) empirical research supports the argument that job satisfaction is positively related to OCBs (e.g., helping behaviour, sportsmanship, civic virtue). Moreover, Gonzalez and Garazo (2006) pointed out that job satisfaction has a positive impact on OCBs (helping behaviour, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiatives, civic virtue) in the hotel industry. Based on this, job satisfaction can be seen as a critical element which can encourage the OCBs of frontline employees in the hospitality and tourism industry. The following hypothesis therefore was proposed:

Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction is positively related to OCBs.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Research method approach

This thesis has adopted a quantitative research approach. Commonly, quantitative methods are very inflexible. In this method, data is collected through questionnaires which include “close-ended” or fixed questions to be directed to respondents (Mack et al., 2005). Surveys are conducted with large number of subjects and the results are analyzed by statistical techniques. Quantitative surveys are outcome-oriented and used to test the hypothetical relationships. Data is analyzed in more efficient way, but context details may be missed. So before data collection period, every aspect of the survey should be carefully considered and designed.

On the other hand, Hoskara (2004) states that “Qualitative researches are those studies, which are holistic, process-oriented, and focus on details as much as possible and small-scale samples can serve the purposes of qualitative studies”. Thus, based on this reality, this thesis utilizes deductive approach in order to test the hypothesized relationships, which is the appropriate for this type of survey.

5.2 Sample and data collection

The most recent tourism statistics of North Cyprus reveal that there are fifteen 3-, six 4-, and fifteen 5-star hotels in North Cyprus. Although these hotels constitute 25% of all the

accommodation establishments in North Cyprus, they have bed capacity of 13,495 beds which accounts for 69% of total bed capacity nation-wide (North Cyprus Tourism & Planning Office, 2012). The sample in this study consisted of FLEs (room attendants, food servers, concierges, and front desk agents etc.) in 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels in North Cyprus.

According to the Tourism and Planning Office (2011), total number of employees work in North Cyprus accommodation sector is 4,525. But, there is no statistical information about the total number of FLEs work in 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels. All these 36 hotels were contacted to ascertain the population size of frontline employees (including supervisors) and obtain permission for administering the survey, but only 30 hotel establishments were included in the survey. This provides an overall 83% sampling ratio among 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels. According to the participant hotels, nearly half of the total employees, between 45% and 55%, work in frontline positions.

The survey was carried out between the months of September and December 2012 in different touristic locations of North Cyprus. Low season months was selected for data collection period in order to get better response rate. High season months are between April and September in North Cyprus, so the response rate would be expected less between these months due to the FLEs' busy working schedules.

Before making any attempt to collect data from the participant hotels, the research team contacted an executive manager of a particular hotel that they have personal relations to pilot-test the questionnaire with 10 FLEs. Following the pilot-study, the researchers decided not to make any changes on the original questionnaire either in terms of format or the content. Afterwards, the managers were contacted face to face to ask for their consent to carry out the research with their staff. Fortunately, most of the

managers were happy to inform the research team that they would be willing to support this research and provide the utmost assistance. During these visits, the research team explained to the responsible managers how the research would be conducted and confidentiality would be assured.

Moreover, the research team distributed the questionnaires personally to 500 FLEs who were willing to participate in this research. The participants were provided the questionnaires together with an explanation guarantees that their confidentiality and anonymity would be assured throughout the whole research process. In order to increase participation rate, the research team aimed to collect the questionnaires in the same day. In some instances, respondents have completed the questionnaires immediately. Most commonly, the research team asked the participant FLEs kindly to fill-up the questionnaires and return to them personally at the shift ends of the same day.

For the unreturned questionnaires, the research team in the following days again separately visited each hotel where the participation rate was low and the department managers were asked to remind their FLEs to complete the questionnaires and return them to the drop-boxes left by the research team within a week. However this method assured the FLEs that the top management would not have any kind of access to the information provided. After a while, all questionnaires from the drop-boxes were collected. When the rest of questionnaires were also gathered from those hotels, it was found out that 319 of them in total were turned back, but 2 were unusable due to substantial amount of missing data. In this research, 317 questionnaires were usable and the response rate was calculated to be 63.4%.

5.3 Questionnaire development and measures

In preparing the questionnaire for the current survey, previous empirical sources from the relevant literature were utilized. The questions of the survey were initially prepared in English and after that translated to Turkish using the back-translation method (McGorry, 2000). The survey instrument used in the current study was composed of two parts. The first part consisted of 31 questions that related to MCSQ (empowerment and reward), intrinsic motivation, polychronicity, nepotism, job satisfaction, and OCBs. Based on an extensive literature review, measurements for the related constructs were adopted from existing measures.

All measures used a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from ‘5’ = ‘strongly agree’ to ‘1’ ‘strongly disagree’. The following section of the survey questionnaire was composed of four demographic questions: age, gender, education, and organizational tenure. Age, education, and tenure were measured using a 5-point scale. Gender is entered as dichotomous variables (1=female and 0=male).

5.3.1 MCSQ

Empowerment was measured using three items developed by Lytle et al. (1998). Reward was measured using three items from Johnson (1996) and Lytle et al. (1998). As an example, items include “I am encouraged to handle customer problems by myself” and “We have financial incentives for service excellence”. Previous research studies depicted that these measurements had adequate internal consistency (Ashill et al., 2008).

5.3.2 Intrinsic motivation

A 4-item scale developed by Low et al. (2001) was used to measure intrinsic motivation (INT). Sample item from this scale is “When I perform my job well, it contributes to my personal growth and development”. Prior research studies demonstrated that this item scale has satisfactory psychometric properties (Karatepe & Uludag, 2007).

5.3.3 Polychronicity

Polychronicity (POLY) was measured using four items derived from Bluedorn et al. (1999a). A sample item from this scale is “I believe people should try to do many things at once”. Also, previous research studies depicted that this measurement had adequate internal consistency (Arndt et al., 2006; Jang & George, 2012).

5.3.4 Nepotism

Nepotism (NEPO) was measured via five items in reference to the study by Arasli et al. (2006) which reported coefficient alphas of 0.88. One of the item from this scale is “In this hotel, department heads are scared of workers who have kinship in upper administration”.

5.3.5 Job satisfaction

A five-item scale developed by Babin and Boles (1998) was used to measure job satisfaction (JSAT). A sample item from this scale is “My job is very worthwhile”. There is empirical evidence that this item scale has satisfactory psychometric properties (e.g., Arasli et al., 2006).

5.3.6 OCBs

A seven-item scale was adopted from Dimitriades (2007) to measure OCBs. This item scale was originally derived from Morrison's study (1996) and developed by Dimitriades (2007) who found adequate internal consistency for this scale. Sample items from this measure are "To serve my customers, I volunteer for things that are not required" and "I am assisting co-workers to deliver high-quality customer oriented services".

5.4 Procedure

Partial Least Squares (PLS) was utilized to analyze the data in this thesis. The PLS method is used to examine the significance of the relationships of research constructs. PLS can be applied for models with either reflective, formative, or both types of indicators (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). According to Chin (1998), PLS estimates all path coefficients and structural models simultaneously. Further, Ko et al. (2005) stated that "PLS is a proper method for testing a research model because it estimates multiple individual item loadings within the context of a theoretically specified model". Finally, average variance extracted (AVE) are utilized to assess convergent validity and reliability are measured in terms of composite reliability.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS

6.1 Data Screening

Frequency tables for each construct were checked and as well as the minimum and maximal values for each item, which revealed no entry mistakes. For the next step, the selected scale items in the questionnaire were reversed (i.e., one item in POLY and one item in JSAT). Frequency tables were generated for each item and then controlled in order to diagnose should the missing cases for each construct is over 5%. As Tabachnick and Fidel (2007) suggest, “when few data points (5% or less) are missing, almost any procedure to cope with the missing values ends up with similar results (p. 63)”.

The following step in the data screening process was the testing of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. The kurtosis and skewness scores were reviewed for normality test. The results of this test depicted that the kurtosis and skewness values of all the six constructs such as MCSQ, intrinsic motivation, polychronicity, nepotism, job satisfaction, and OCBs are among -1 and +1. This confirms that the constructs did not deviate from the normality assumption. In addition, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that “Homoscedasticity is related to normality and when the normality assumption is met the relationship between the variables is said to be homoscedastic”. This was the situation in our tests. In order to review the linearity assumption, regression analysis was performed and the scatter plot of residuals showed

that multivariate relationship was linear. The matrix of correlation for the constructs was analyzed and no multicollinearity was determined.

6.2 Descriptive statistics

6.2.1 Demographic profile by gender

Table 8 demonstrates that the most of respondents in this study were male with 59.6% and the rest were female with 40.4%. The research studies in a hotel setting in North Cyprus shows that male employees account for the majority of frontline positions (e.g., Daskin & Tezer, 2012; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007).

Table 8: Demographic profile by gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	189	59.6%
Female	128	40.4%
Total	317	100%

6.2.2 Demographic profile by age

As demonstrated in table 9, nearly three-quarters of the respondents also tended to be reasonably younger, under 34 years old, such that, they were spread across all age groups with 32.2% between the ages of 18 and 25, 39.4% between the ages of 26 and 33,

20.5% between the ages of 34 and 41, 6.0% between the ages of 42 and 49, and 1.9% of the respondents were 50 years or older.

Table 9: Demographic profile by age

Age	Frequency	Percent
18-25 years	102	32.2%
26-33 years	125	39.4%
34-41 years	65	20.5%
42-49 years	19	6.0%
Over 50 years	6	1.9%
Total	317	100%

6.2.3 Demographic profile by education

As shown in table 10, education level of the respondents was 26.8% primary and secondary school graduates, 71.9% undergraduate and vocational school degrees, and 1.3% had master degrees. This result shows that nearly three-quarters of the frontline employees have good educational background.

Table 10: Demographic profile by education

Education	Frequency	Percent
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Primary school	18	5.7%
Secondary school	67	21.1%
Vocational school	118	37.2%
University degree	110	34.7%
Masters degree	4	1.3%
Total	317	100%

6.2.4 Demographic profile by tenure

As shown in table 11, the years of service of respondents were 33.9% between 1-3 years, 37.8% between 4-7 years, 18.6% between 8-11 years, 6.9% between 12-15 years, and 2.8% more than 15 years. This finding evidences that the respondent employees have had their working experiences by directly interacting with customers that means the respondents are frontline staff.

Table 11: Demographic profile by organizational tenure

Tenure	Frequency	Percent
1-3 years	107	33.9%
4-7 years	120	37.8%
8-11 years	59	18.6%
12-15 years	22	6.9%

15+	9	2.8%
Total	317	100%

Furthermore, mean scores and standard deviations for the each scale items such as MCSQ, intrinsic motivation, polychronicity, nepotism, job satisfaction, and OCBs were demonstrated in the following sections in Table 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, and 17 respectively.

6.2.5 Mean scores and standard deviations for the MCSQ scale items

Table 12 shows mean scores and standard deviations for the management commitment to service quality scale items that the mean value ranged from 2.45 to 3.67 and the standard deviation from 0.18 to 1.31. The total average mean score for this scale is 3.16, that means FLEs are undecided about management commitment to service quality.

Table 12: Mean scores and standard deviations for the MCSQ scale items

Scale items	Mean scores	Standard deviations
MCSQ1	2.45	1.31
MCSQ2	2.96	1.29
MCSQ3	3.12	1.18
MCSQ4	3.23	1.22
MCSQ5	3.55	1.26
MCSQ6	3.67	1.24
Total average	3.16	1.25

6.2.6 Mean scores and standard deviations for intrinsic motivation scale items

Table 13 shows mean scores and standard deviations for the intrinsic motivation scale items that the mean value ranged from 3.26 to 4.35 and the standard deviation from 0.79 to 1.25. The total average mean score for this scale is 4.01 that means FLEs are agree about their intrinsic motivation.

Table 13: Mean scores and standard deviations for the intrinsic motivation scale items

Scale items	Mean scores	Standard deviations
INT1	4.24	0.79
INT2	4.35	0.86
INT3	4.20	1.02
INT4	3.26	1.25
Total average	4.01	0.98

6.2.7 Mean scores and standard deviations for the polychronicity scale items

Table 14 shows mean scores and standard deviations for the polychronicity scale items that the mean value ranged from 2.25 to 4.32 and the standard deviation from 1.07 to 1.24. The total average mean score for this scale is 2.84 that means the FLEs stayed neutral about their polychronic personality.

Table 14: Mean scores and standard deviations for the polychronicity scale items

Scale items	Mean scores	Standard deviations
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POLY1	2.25	1.12
POLY2	2.63	1.24
POLY3	2.17	1.20
POLY4	4.32	1.07
Total average	2.84	1.15

6.2.8 Mean scores and standard deviations for the nepotism scale items

Table 15 shows mean scores and standard deviations for the nepotism scale items that the mean value ranged from 3.11 to 3.76 and the standard deviation from 1.21 to 1.37. The total average mean score for this scale is 3.42 that means the FLEs are agree about the nepotism practices in the hotel industry.

Table 15: Mean scores and standard deviations for the nepotism scale items

Scale items	Mean scores	Standard deviations
NEPO1	3.32	1.28
NEPO2	3.76	1.34
NEPO3	3.11	1.33
NEPO4	3.68	1.21
NEPO5	3.23	1.37
Total average	3.42	1.31

6.2.9 Mean scores and standard deviations for the job satisfaction scale items

Table 16 shows mean scores and standard deviations for the job satisfaction scale items that the mean value ranged from 3.08 to 3.68 and the standard deviation from 1.32 to 1.42. The total average mean score for this scale is 3.32 that means the FLEs stayed neutral about their job satisfaction.

Table 16: Mean scores and standard deviations for the job satisfaction scale items

Scale items	Mean scores	Standard deviations
JSAT1	3.24	1.32
JSAT2	3.13	1.40
JSAT3	3.51	1.36
JSAT4	3.68	1.42
JSAT5	3.08	1.38
Total average	3.32	1.37

6.2.10 Mean scores and standard deviations for the OCBs scale items

Table 17 shows mean scores and standard deviations for the organizational citizenship behaviour scale items that the mean value ranged from 3.89 to 4.57 and the standard deviation from 0.88 to 1.26. The total average mean score for this scale is 4.19 that means the FLEs are agree about their organizational citizenship behaviours.

Table 17: Mean scores and standard deviations for the OCBs scale items

Scale items	Mean scores	Standard deviations
OCBs1	4.43	0.93
OCBs2	3.94	1.21

OCBs3	4.36	1.12
OCBs4	4.57	0.88
OCBs5	3.96	1.26
OCBs6	4.22	1.09
OCBs7	3.89	1.22
Total average	4.19	1.10

6.3 Reliability testing

As it is known, the self-reported surveys are open to common method bias threat because of their natural attribute. In this thesis, the self-reported items were uploaded into each main construct for factor analysis with varimax rotation. In this regard, Podsakoff et al. (2003), ‘‘if a single factor emerges or one factor accounts for more than 50% of the variance in the variables, common method variance is present’’. The current study analysis demonstrated that there was no such a general factor. Also, high correlation between constructs is indicator of common method bias – ($r > .90$) (Bagozzi et al., 1991). There was not highly correlated variables in the current study as well.

The model measurement adequacy was also assessed based on reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Using the statistical software, reliabilities of the scales were assessed after the normality test. As table 18 shows, the composite reliability measures for the components were above the cutoff point of .70, which indicates that items are free from random error and internal consistency was adequate (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 18: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scales

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha (α)
MCSQ	6	.83
Intrinsic motivation	4	.91
Polychronicity	4	.78
Nepotism	5	.82
Job satisfaction	5	.89
OCBs	7	.87

6.4 Factor analysis

Table 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, and 24 portrayed the factor loadings for each variable respectively, which were calculated using confirmatory factor analysis. As shown in the tables, all items loaded on respective constructs, except for one polychronicity item, since its loading was not adequate. Factor loadings were greater than .60, which suggests satisfactory convergent validity. Additionally, average variances extracted (AVE) for all study variables were above the minimum threshold of .50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Chin, 1998; Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 19: PLS confirmatory factor analysis and cross-loadings for the MCSQ scale items

MCSQ scale items	Factor loadings	AVE
MCSQ1 We have financial incentives for service excellence	0.78	

MCSQ2 I receive visible recognition when I excel in serving customers	0.69	0.64
MCSQ3 My promotion depends on the quality of service I deliver	0.65	
MCSQ4 I often make important customer decisions without seeking management approval	0.72	
MCSQ5 I have the freedom and authority to act independently in order to provide service excellence	0.81	
MCSQ6 I am encouraged to handle customer problems by myself	0.90	

Notes: All items are measured on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.
All loadings are significant at the 0.01 level or better.

Table 20: PLS confirmatory factor analysis and cross-loadings for the intrinsic motivation scale items

Intrinsic motivation scale items	Factor loadings	AVE
INT1 When I do work well, it gives me a feeling of accomplishment	0.85	0.72
INT2 I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well	0.84	
INT3 When I perform my job well, it contributes to my personal growth and development	0.80	
INT4 My job increases my feeling of self esteem	0.74	

Notes: All items are measured on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.
All loadings are significant at the 0.01 level or better.

Table 21: PLS confirmatory factor analysis and cross-loadings for the polychronicity scale items

Polychronicity scale items	Factor loadings	AVE
POLY1 I like to juggle several activities at the same time	0.67	0.57
POLY2 I believe people should try to do many things at once	0.73	

POLY3 I am comfortable doing several things at the same time	0.75	
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Notes: All items are measured on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.
All loadings are significant at the 0.01 level or better.

Table 22: PLS confirmatory factor analysis and cross-loadings for the nepotism scale items

Nepotism scale items	Factor loadings	AVE
NEPO1 Nepotistic practices cause internal conflicts in this hotel	0.72	0.59
NEPO2 In this hotel, executives are more interested in keeping friends and acquaintances in good positions than they are in those employees' performance or the organization's profitability	0.68	
NEPO3 In this hotel, department heads are scared of workers who have kinship in upper administration	0.79	
NEPO4 In this hotel, it is very difficult to remove or to demote people who have relatives in upper administration	0.84	
NEPO5 Employees of this hotel always feel that they need a relative in a high-level position	0.64	

Notes: All items are measured on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.
All loadings are significant at the 0.01 level or better.

Table 23: PLS confirmatory factor analysis and cross-loadings for the job satisfaction scale items

Job satisfaction scale items	Factor loadings	AVE
JSAT1 My job is very worthwhile	0.73	0.67
JSAT2 I am very content with my job	0.81	
JSAT3 My job is very pleasant	0.79	
JSAT4 I am happy that I took this job	0.86	
JSAT5 I definitely dislike my work (R)	0.73	

Notes: All items are measured on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.
All loadings are significant at the 0.01 level or better.

Table 24: PLS confirmatory factor analysis and cross-loadings for the OCBs scale items

OCB scale items	Factor loadings	AVE
OCBs1 I am assisting co-workers to deliver high-quality customer oriented services	0.79	0.70
OCBs2 To serve my customers, I volunteer for things that are not required	0.74	
OCBs3 I make innovative suggestions to improve customer service	0.89	
OCBs4 I expend considerable energy to come up with creative ways to assist customers facing problems	0.88	
OCBs5 I attend functions that are not required, but that help customer service	0.75	
OCBs6 I exchange ideas with colleagues on how to improve customer service	0.71	
OCBs7 I deal restlessly with customer problems until they are resolved	0.69	

Notes: All items are measured on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.
All loadings are significant at the 0.01 level or better.

6.5 Correlations analysis

Table 25 details correlations for all study variables as well as the square root of the average variance extracted on the diagonal. The scale items belonging to each model variable were summed and averaged to generate a composite score which represents that variable. This test demonstrated that no correlation coefficient was above 0.90, thus the findings show that all model variables were distinct variables from each other (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Additionally, all constructs were also accepted to have adequate discriminant validity. Because, according to Chin (1998), “adequate discriminant validity is supported when the square root of the average variance extracted, computed for each construct, is larger than the correlation between the construct and any other construct in

the proposed model''. As table 25 portrays, all diagonal values were above the inter-construct correlations, thus yielded adequate discriminant validity.

Table 25: Correlations, means, and standard deviations of composite scores of study variables

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6
Management commitment to service	.72					
Intrinsic motivation	0.22*	.83				
Polychronicity	0.08	0.32**	.70			
Nepotism	-0.23*	-0.17*	0.10	.72		
Job satisfaction	0.66**	0.49**	0.16*	-0.47**	.77	
Organizational citizenship behaviour	0.58**	0.55**	0.38**	-0.29**	0.60**	.79
Mean	3.16	4.01	2.84	3.42	3.32	4.19
Standard deviation	1.25	0.98	1.15	1.31	1.37	1.10

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. Correlation without any asterisk is insignificant.

6.6 Structural model results and hypotheses testing

To analyze the hypothesized relationships, a PLS method was used. Bootstrapping technique (with 500 resamples) was applied to compute the *t*-statistics and test for path significance (Chin, 1998). Table 26 portrays the path coefficients, their significance, and the R^2 values of endogenous variables.

Hypothesis 1a asserted that there is a substantive positive relationship between MCSQ and FLEs' JSAT. The findings depicts that the relationship between MCSQ and JSAT was substantive and positive. Therefore, Hypothesis H1a was accepted.

Hypothesis 2a stated that intrinsic motivation has a significant positive relationship with FLEs' JSAT. The statistical analysis results indicated the relationship between INT and JSAT is significant and positive. Therefore Hypothesis 2a was supported.

Hypothesis 3a suggested that POLY has positive influence on FLEs' JSAT. The statistical analysis result shows that the relationship between POLY and JSAT was not significant. In this case, Hypothesis 3a was rejected.

Hypothesis 4a contended that nepotism is negatively associated with FLEs' JSAT. The analysis result of the study confirms the significant and negative relationship between NEPO and JSAT. Hypothesis 4a was therefore supported.

MCSQ, INT, POLY, and NEPO collectively explained 41% of the variance in JSAT. When control variables were included in the model, the explained variance became 43%. This refers the explained variance was improved by 2% through the effect of control variables. However, only education and job tenure had a substantive effect on JSAT. Table 26 shows that FLEs having more tenure reported higher levels of satisfaction and employees who have better educational degrees revealed lower satisfaction.

Furthermore, Hypothesis 1b suggested that MCSQ is positively related to FLEs' organizational citizenship behaviours. The statistical analysis result confirms the significant and negative relationship between MCSQ and OCBs. Hypothesis H1b was therefore supported.

Hypothesis 2b stated that intrinsic motivation has a significant positive relationship with FLEs' organizational citizenship behaviours. The statistical analysis result confirms this assumption between INT and OCBs. Hypothesis 2b was therefore supported.

Hypothesis 3b contended that polychronicity is positively associated with FLEs' organizational citizenship behaviours. The statistical analysis result confirms the significant and positive relationship between POLY and OCBs. Thus the hypothesis 3b was confirmed.

Hypothesis 4b suggested that nepotism is negatively related to FLEs' organizational citizenship behaviours. The statistical analysis result confirms the significant and negative relationship between NEPO and OCBs. In this case, Hypothesis 4b was confirmed.

Finally, Hypothesis 5 suggested that JSAT is positively related to FLEs' organizational citizenship behaviours. The statistical analysis result confirms this assumption between JSAT and OCBs. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was confirmed.

MCSQ, INT, POLY, NEPO, and JSAT collectively explained 54% of the variance in OCBs. When control variables were included in the model, the explained variance became 55%. This refers the explained variance was improved by 1% through the effect of control variables. The control variables, except education, depicted insignificant influence on OCBs. Table 26 shows that FLEs having higher level education declared better levels of OCBs. In evaluating of PLS models, R^2 is used because the objective of PLS is to maximize explained variance rather than fit (Chin, 1998). In this regard, the R^2 of the endogenous constructs reveals the explanatory power of the model. The achieved explained variance (R^2) of the endogenous constructs determines whether a theoretically sound exogenous construct is operationalized appropriately (Chin, 1998).

Table 26: PLS structural model results

Control variables and hypothesized relationships	Path coefficients	t-values	Supported/Not supported
<i>(I) Impact on job satisfaction</i>			
Gender	0.04	1.37	Not applicable
Age	0.07	1.80	Not applicable
Education	-0.08	-2.20*	Applicable
Job tenure	0.11	2.57*	Applicable
H1a MCSQ → JSAT	0.53	12.55*	Supported
H2a INT → JSAT	0.21	4.79*	Supported
H3a POLY → JSAT	0.06	1.88	Not Supported
H4a NEPO → JSAT	-0.20	-5.07*	Supported
R ² before the inclusion of control variables = 41%			
R ² after the inclusions of control variables = 43%			
<i>(II) Impact on organizational citizenship behaviours</i>			
Gender	0.02	0.55	Not applicable
Age	-0.03	-0.87	Not applicable
Education	0.09	2.35*	Applicable
Job tenure	0.06	1.69	Not applicable
H1b MCSQ → OCBs	0.43	8.63*	Supported
H2b INT → OCBs	0.36	6.74*	Supported
H3b POLY → OCBs	0.15	3.19*	Supported
H4b NEPO → OCBs	-0.08	-2.44*	Supported
H5 JSAT → OCBs	0.45	9.87*	Supported
R ² before the inclusion of control variables = 54%			
R ² after the inclusion of control variables = 55%			

Note: Age, education, and tenure were measured using 5-point scales. Higher scores indicate older age, more educated, and longer tenure. Gender was coded as a binary variable (0 = male and 1= female). MCSQ=management commitment to service quality, INT=intrinsic motivation, POLY=polychronicity, NEPO=nepotism, JSAT= job satisfaction, OCBs=organizational citizenship behaviour.

* The t-values demonstrate a statistically significant relationship at the 0.05 level or better. The other t-values without any asterisks are insignificant.

Based on the test results given above, H1a, H2a, H4a, H1b, H2b, H3b, and H4b were accepted. On the other hand, H3a was rejected. The revised model with the supported hypothesized relationships is provided in figure 6.

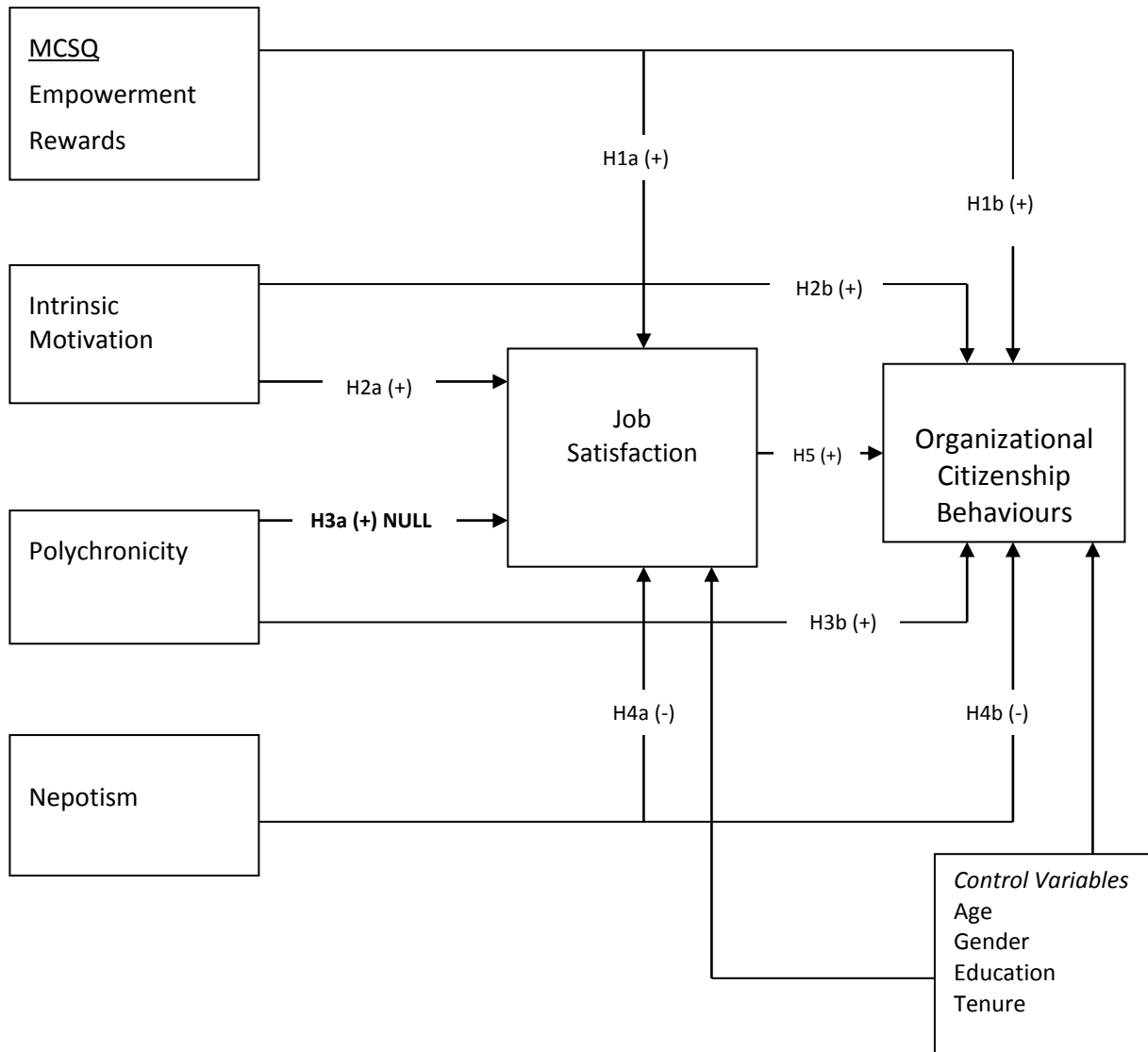


Figure 6: Revised model

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 Discussion

Recently, the subject of OCBs has attracted the interest of researchers interested in organizational behaviours in the field of service management. Organ et al. (2006) and Podsakoff et al. (2000), for example, have suggested that OCBs aggregate over time, and that employees influence the organizational performance and achievements of organizational goals. According to Organ (1997), the function of OCBs is that of a social lubricant for the organizational machinery. When organizations go through structural changes, such as making their operations more cost effective, downsizing their operations, or flattening them, OCBs become part of the role of employees, because formal job descriptions are no longer adequate.

It can be seen that OCBs is significant predictor of organizational effectiveness such as efficiency, productivity, and profitability (Organ et al., 2006). According to Organ et al. (2006), OCBs increase the effectiveness of organizations in several ways. These include the effective utilization of resources, the development of both employee and managerial productivity, and the capability of the organization to adapt to environmental changes. Moreover, there is empirical evidence that suggests that OCBs contribute to multiple aspects within the workplace, such as the productivity of group work, the performance of sales teams, overall customer satisfaction with the service, and the general quality and quantity of the work undertaken. OCBs play a critical role in

achieving good organizational outcomes. As such, it is critical to investigate the antecedents of OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

It can be argued that the success of any firm is dependent on employees on the frontline. It is their responsibility to ensure efficient and productive face-to-face interactions are conducted with customers. These employees are expected to display ‘prosocial behaviors’; that is, extra-role customer service behaviours which are accepted as essential phenomenon in the service industry (Chebat et al., 2002; Morrison, 1996; Organ et al., 2006). To this end, the present thesis aims to come up with a model which will investigate the impact of the following aspects on the organizational citizenship behaviours of FLE: intrinsic motivations of employees; nepotism; job satisfaction and MCSQ. This will be done using a sample of employees from Northern Cyprus.

A few research studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of intrinsic motivation (as a personality variable), polychronicity (as a personality variable), and nepotism (as a contextual variable) on FLEs’ job attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Arasli & Tumer, 2008; Arasli et al., 2006; Bradley & Roberts, 2004; Gagne’ & Deci, 2005; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007; Miller, 2002; Wang, 2007) in the relevant literature. The current research intends to incorporate untried antecedents (polychronicity and nepotism) into its model. This will be within a hotel setting. This is innovative and has not been attempted before, and as such this research will contribute to the existing OCB literature, as well as providing several guidelines for practitioners which they can implement in their own settings.

This study will also contribute to the current understanding of OCBs, particularly in the service context, as well as providing additional evidence for the important role that boundary-spanning employees have in ensuring high levels of customer service. An

integrative model is presented in this paper, which examines the aforementioned effects of relationships. All hypothesized relationships were supported by the findings of the present study, with the exception of the proposed relationship between polychronicity and job satisfaction (H3a).

In line with existing research (e.g., Arasli & Daskin, 2012; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2004; Jo et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2009a; Morrison, 1996; Rod & Ashill, 2010), the current findings indicate that MCSQ has a positive significant effect on both job satisfaction and OCBs.

The findings concerning the effects of intrinsic motivation on job satisfaction and OCBs were consistent with the proposed hypotheses of the present study and former research (Cardona et al., 2004; Cho & Perry, 2011; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007; Miller, 2002; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998). These findings suggest that intrinsically motivated FLEs are more satisfied with their jobs and show better customer service behaviours.

Contrary to expectations, polychronicity was not substantive predictor of FLEs' JSAT. This finding is not concordant with previous research by Jang and George (2012) and Arndt et al. (2006). Although there are sound theoretical reasons for why polychronicity should predict job satisfaction, this empirical evidence indicates otherwise. The argument for why these constructs should relate to one another stems from the idea that individuals who prefer to multitask believe that multitasking is the best way to complete a task (i.e., polychronic), and that these individuals should be more comfortable, satisfied, and less stressed when in an environment that requires them to multitask (Kaufman et al., 1991). For polychronics, the level of satisfaction was proposed to mitigate (and, for monochronics, exacerbate) the anxiety provoked by a multitasking situation that is, by its nature, stimulating and challenging. The lack of a

significant relationship between these two constructs suggests that this logic may not hold.

On the other hand, examination of polychronicity in frontline service jobs is critical, because polychronic employees are expected to thrive in jobs that are demanding and stressful (Jang & George, 2012; Kaufman-Scarborough & Lindquist, 1999). The analysis result suggests that the conceptual model is supported for the hypothesized relationship between POLY and OCBs. This means that polychronic frontline employees are more prone to exhibit OCBs.

The statistical analysis result also shows that nepotism had a significant negative impact on both job satisfaction and OCBs. This relationship is consistent with those of Arasli and Tumer (2008) and Bute (2011) who claimed that “Working in an unfair competitive environment makes employees dissatisfied, and demoralizes them in their jobs”. To the same authors, these unwanted practices would result in low productivity, high absenteeism, and disappointment, frustration, and stress in a way that at the first possible opportunity, staff would not hesitate to change their jobs. Also, employees would not be willing to exhibit extra-role customer service behaviours. This result adds further contribution to the relevant literature. The crucial role of FLEs must be taken into account, specifically this is more important for hotel industry where the competition is severe. Therefore, hotel managers should evaluate nepotism as an important factor that triggers job dissatisfaction which in turn negatively affect employees’ citizenship behaviours.

As expected, the relationship between nepotism and OCBs was significant. Typically, because of a nepotistic climate, staff is expected to become non-committal to their organizations’ objectives. This behaviour often occurs alongside a loss of

coordination of their responsibilities; a lack of cooperation with their colleagues, and limited interest in the involvement of their OCBs. The significant relationship might be the result of a contextual reality in the industry. North Cyprus is, after all, a small island which is characterized by the existence of multiple and complex social connections between people; either through membership of certain political parties; associations; family relationships or simple friendships. Due to the current economic downturn and global financial crisis, the job market is stagnant and job opportunities in the hospitality industry are scares. For these reasons, employees may become too demoralized to exhibit OCBs.

Consistently, the statistical analysis results revealed that job satisfaction was between the substantive predictors of OCBs. This result was concordant with previous research (e.g., Akfeldt & Coote, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2000) and is also supported by the social exchange theory. This states that, when employees believe that their organization is considerate one, which cares about their professional development and growth, they are more likely to feel satisfied and happy in that organization. They typically reciprocate by showing a positive attitude towards their work, and are willing to take part in activities or behaviours that benefit their organization as a whole.

7.2 Managerial implications

For ensuring more satisfaction to customers in the industry, it is necessary to continuously exceed the expectations of customers. This can only be achieved if staff performs citizenship behaviours towards customers in order to provide a high level of quality service and, therefore, ensure customer satisfaction. As a result, OCBs are

closely linked to the challenges of providing top quality customer service in the hospitality industry. Understanding OCBs and their antecedents is crucial in order to ensure the effective functioning of hotels.

The findings from this thesis have implications for both managers and researchers. As Smith et al. (1983) suggested that much critical behaviour in business organizations build on prosocial behaviours. This shows that OCBs is critically important in the functioning of an organization, which clarifies why managers should understand what maximizes and/or minimizes OCBs. Practically, this paper provides useful guidelines for the implementation of effective management practices, as well as ways in which to improve organizational outcomes.

This thesis has demonstrated that MCSQ, in the form of empowerment and rewards, serves to enhance job satisfaction and OCBs. As this study has pointed out, one practice is to take FLEs' perceptions that are relevant to MCSQ. Their evaluations of job satisfaction and MCSQ are highly to perceptions about OCBs. Therefore, managers who consciously measure employees' perceived MQSQ in service firms are better able to predict employees' OCBs.

The current findings show that managerial initiatives are closely related to employee perceptions of job satisfaction and commitment. One implication that can be derived from these findings is that it is important for managers to establish empowerment and reward systems, which are important building blocks for generating customer service excellence (Arasli & Daskin, 2012; Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Kim et al., 2009a; Schneider & Bowen, 1991). Empowering employees, developing new skills through training, and designing reward systems can also help employees deliver high quality value-added services. These things provide them with the tools, resources, motivations,

and maneuverability to meet customer demands. The job satisfaction of FLEs and their OCBs are predicted by MCSQ. Managers should aim to develop initiatives that encourage greater job commitment, job satisfaction and higher quality customer service behaviours from their staff. Such initiatives could include designing and establishing policies that relate to employee reward systems and empowerment, or else simply fostering a climate of supportive management which allows good leadership behaviours.

Hotel managers should emphasize their commitment to staff rewards, training and empowerment, ensuring that they communicate well-defined policies about each of these. If they do not, any action taken to improve individual or group staff effort may fall short. These managerial initiatives may not be adequate on their own. For example, Forrester (2000) and Lytle and Timmerman (2006) state that staff training, if delivered in isolation, would be unlikely to generate any clear results. Other reward mechanisms also need to be put in place.

As discussed in the previous section, North Cyprus is a developing tourism destination and the economy is mostly dependent on revenue from tourism. With the exception of some of the international hotels (chain hotels), most of the hotel organizations are family-owned and resources are limited. As a result, job and career advancement opportunities in the hotel sector for the current and prospective employees are also limited. Under the circumstances, reward as a managerial initiative seems more applicable strategy. Constant recognition, reward, and praise should be a common practice in successful service organizations for FLEs who provide outstanding customer service. This can take many forms, but it does not always need to be expensive to be effective; smile, thank them, recognize and appreciate them. Regardless of rank,

managers can reward employees with a movie pass, car wash certificate, or restaurant voucher.

Many motivation-related studies have been conducted in the existing management literature. Since many years, researchers have explored how people are motivated. Previous research on this topic has demonstrated different findings and some findings even contradict one another, due to the fact that researchers have focused on various constructs, organization types, and countries. Significantly, it is reported that no clear results have been generated on what motivates people, since everyone is different and motivational factors are triggered in many different ways. There is every indication that intrinsic motivational aspects are as important as external motivational aspects while, in the past, it was mostly external aspects that were considered to be dominant. Importantly, this depends on the changes occurring in the environment, including the fact that a new generation is entering the workplace. As a result, both intrinsic and extrinsic factors are needed to motivate individuals.

Various personality characteristics make individuals very unique. They bring their personalities with them to the working environment, so there is no overall mechanism to motivate everyone equally. Specifically, this situation complicates the work of managers, since they must recognize each employee as a separate individual with different motivational factors. Due to the high competition in the business world, organizations must improve their competitive advantages by investing in human capital. Therefore, some companies try to find ways of motivating everyone equally, while other companies do not care what motivates their employees, as long as the work is done.

The present study revealed that intrinsic motivation enhances the job satisfaction and OCBs of FLEs. It is suggested by Bryan et al. (2006) and Kiger (2006) that managers should employ the most appropriate person for the job, values their staff members, support them to make a real contribution to the organization, and always strive towards maintaining motivation in their workforce. Motivated employees do not only create a good working environment, they also make noteworthy contributions to the organization.

Firstly, it can be argued that cultivating intrinsic motivation in staff members can improve and enhance job satisfaction for employees. As such, managers should aim to create trust among employees, delegate authority, and establish reasonable rewards system to increase FLEs' intrinsic motivation. This will also increase extra-role customer service behaviours and, therefore, organizational performance. Managers should also use empowerment and allocate rewards in order to make the self-motivated workforce and create a working atmosphere where employees feel good inside.

By offering opportunities for continuing professional development, managers in the hospitality industry are likely to attract more desirable candidates to vacancies; thus ensuring an intrinsically motivated workforce. Since there are limited resources available in hotels in Northern Cyprus, this would lead to intrinsically motivated FLEs and a more reasonable human resource. In order to generate intrinsic motivation, it should be noted that it is not rewards but behaviour that is important. Amabile et al. (1994) suggest that intrinsically motivated behaviour is self-initiated. That is, an individual undertakes an activity for its own sake, perhaps because it is of interest to them and leads to feelings of pride, accomplishment and self-fulfillment. For example,

someone might be intrinsically motivated to complete a task or get a job because they enjoy learning new things related to the work.

It is true in general that good manager set and achieves goals that allow them to get a healthy balance of both motivators. Some researchers, including the author of this paper, believe that intrinsic motivators are the most effective when it comes to the practices of managers and characteristics of the sector in general. Therefore, balancing of both motivators is not as easy or realistic based on the realities and external challenges of the industry. For example, in North Cyprus, like in many developing countries, the balance is difficult.

Like other service industries, many institutions in the hotel sector pays less, employ people for long hours, offer little training and focus on employee salaries and wages to reduce costs. This is due to the uncertainty and the global economic crisis. There is either no union support at all or, if there is some available, it is often not strong enough to provide support. The retention of highly skilled staff or the existing turnover is not the priority of the industry. All these problems are prevalent in Northern Cyprus hotels according to existing research (e.g., Alipour & Kilic, 2005; Daskin & Tezer, 2012; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007).

This study has shown that employee rewards are a factor which influences FLEs' citizenship behaviours. Therefore, managers should motivate both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated FLEs, by awarding them with wages and other additional benefits as well. For example; financial incentives should be made available to ensure retention and performance of highly achieving staff. Such incentives might include bonus payments, commission and profit sharing. Staff could also be offered better-paid promotion opportunities as an incentive. Individual

staff members or sub-teams should be given specific tasks or goals for which they are personally responsible. This strategy should be motivating for staff, since it gives them a tangible aim which they can focus their efforts on, and on successful completion, they will be recognized for their work.

This research has also shown that polychronicity is one of the determinants of OCBs. The current thesis represents the initial attempt to investigate polychronicity as a dispositional characteristic within the hotel work environment, where multitasking efforts are critical. Frequently, frontline employees in hotels must deal with unexpected and unclear situations, and need to be able to react to these appropriately and perform fastly in a short timeframe. The multitasking and time constraint characteristics of hotel jobs suggest that polychronic-orientated individuals are the most suited to frontline areas in this industry. It is, therefore, important to hotel management to effectively assess the unique abilities of prospective candidates and ensure they can successfully fulfill the requirements of a given job within the hotel industry.

While the hotel working environment becomes more challenging and complex, it is essential to recognize the influence of polychronicity on OCBs. Specially, hotels represent a work climate in which time management is essential, and multitasking skills are required to complete tasks within a specific timeframe. This thesis has shown that handling of time in various forms such as polychronic or monochronic affect FLEs' citizenship behaviours. Polychronicity is able to generate information regarding employee OCBs.

As a result, before recruiting employees, managers could consider using of personality tests as part of the recruitment process to better analyze their capabilities and then place them in appropriate jobs accordingly. These tests are helpful tools for a firm

in assessing personality types of candidates. As a case in point, managers should rotate polychronic-orientated employees at the areas where customer interaction is high, for example, restaurant that commonly requires multitasking skills. This rotation could be very instrumental to enhance employee citizenship behaviour and thus improve hotel firm performance.

Barclay (2001) suggests that using of behavioural interviews during recruitment. This technique involves questioning candidates about their experiences in previous roles. For instance, when searching for ideal individuals with the potential for polychronicity, human resource managers may ask them to describe a working experience in which they were actively engaged in multiple tasks at the same time. Depending on the candidate's answer, the panel should be able to determine whether the applicant possesses effective polychronic abilities. They can then be recruited based on their proven ability to multitask and switch between many different tasks successfully.

Additionally, hotel organizations should implement staff training courses aimed at developing and improving multitasking skills. Moreover, hotels could also develop 'job success strategy manuals'. These would ideally contain tips for performing the job successfully; for example, by providing 'real-life' examples of how to do the job well, alongside examples of 'what not to do'. Manuals like this have the potential to increase and improve staff OCBs.

It should be noted that the significant association between polychronicity and FLEs' citizenship behaviours does not necessarily indicate that more monochronic individuals are poorly suited for roles in this industry. According to Bluedorn and Denhardt (1988) and Schein (1992), there are a variety of tasks within the hotel industry and a range of different opportunities that would suit a range of different personalities and working

styles. As such, human resources staff should have the skills to write appropriate job descriptions, recruit appropriate candidates, and match individuals to appropriate tasks; including those tasks that are best suited to that person's unique skill set. For example, polychronic-orientated employees could be placed in situations such as the hotel restaurant, where multitasking is frequently required.

Meanwhile, monochronic-orientated employees could be placed in situations such as housekeeping, where customer interaction is minimal and multitasking is not required. According to the relevant literature, high turnover costs are significant threats for hospitality industry, therefore, such placements could be an operative way to enhance FLEs' satisfaction, citizenship behaviours, and help reduce employee turnover in the industry.

Nepotism is the process by which family members or friends of staff are given preferential treatment in the workplace; normally by being offered jobs or other benefits by their relatives or friends. This is widely considered to be unprofessional and unethical; a practice which had dysfunctional influences on the JSAT and OCBs of other staff members, who are being treated unfairly. Indeed, this study confirms this, since it found similar results relating to the effect of nepotism. It can paralyze human resource practices and significantly affect organizational trust. Inequitable actions in a workplace as a result of nepotism such as selection and promotion of family members decrease the level of JSAT (Abdalla et al., 1998; Arasli & Tumer, 2008).

Further, as this study pointed out, these types of attempts leads employees to ignore their responsibilities, sense of ownership, and decrease their OCBs. Nepotism may also push employees to establish new power groups, both horizontally and vertically. In other words, working within a nepotistic environment may cause staff to avoid high

performance in favour of forging closer relationships with family members or friends within the organization, in order to strengthen their position and attract benefits such as promotion opportunities.

Since employment potentiality in the hotel industry of Northern Cyprus are limited because of poor resources and economic problems (Arasli et al., 2006), this may extend the length of pain that results from learnt helplessness. In some businesses, family members are the most desirable employees due to the trust in controlling monetary issues. However, in general, owners must avoid the practice of nepotism among employees unless it requires a great risk; for example, casino management. Higher levels of perceived justice in a working environment devoid of nepotism lead employees to be more responsible towards exhibiting extra-role behaviours.

As expected, JSAT was substantively associated with OCBs. The association between JSAT and OCBs is based on social exchange theory as suggested by the relevant literature. This theory contends that satisfied individuals in their jobs show tendency to reciprocate through OCBs. This has been validated in the current surveyed sample. JSAT can be an effective outcome of organizational efforts, such as pay, promotional opportunities, the work itself, and so on. This situation makes employees to seek opportunity in reciprocating these efforts by the organization. The degree of OCBs performance is competently contingent upon employees' willingness and best manner to reciprocate. Therefore, when employees are satisfied, they are expected to exhibit OCBs. As a result, there is a positive relationship between JSAT and OCBs.

Hotel executives should also consider that when employees are satisfied, they tend to exhibit OCBs. Accordingly, they may re-examine and revise their current procedures to improve JSAT. For aggrandizing employees' motivation and satisfaction,

management should include them in the decision making process by sharing their ideas, recognizing their achievements/efforts and rewarding them. Moreover, manager should allow staff members to develop their own approaches to their everyday work tasks; offer self-development training, and provide personalized supervision which takes into account career development.

Lastly, age, gender, education level, and organizational tenure as control variables were statistically checked to determine their influence on JSAT and OCBs. It was found that education had negative impact on FLEs' satisfaction while tenure had a positive effect on their satisfaction. This relationship demonstrates that FLEs who have higher education are less satisfied, while experienced FLEs declared more satisfaction. Also, education was found to be positively associated with FLEs' OCBs. This result shows that FLEs with higher education are more prone to show extra-role customer service behaviours, although they are less satisfied with their organizations. This means that, when FLEs' education level increases, their expectations also increase.

Therefore, managers should aim to hire and retain FLEs who have higher levels of education and tenure. These employees are expected to know more how to overcome demanding situations and thus exhibit better OCBs. However, as mentioned above, effective management commitment strategies must be provided, in order to motivate employees and increase their job satisfaction. These findings contribute to the tourism and hospitality literature.

The implications outlined above are crucial for the hospitality industry in Northern Cyprus. Some service industry employees are currently unable to deliver high quality, value-added service to customers, which affects the chances of their employer (the hotel) gaining a competitive advantage in the market.

7.3 Theoretical implications

The current study has made a number of contributions to the existing literature. Firstly, the vast majority of research into OCBs has, to date, been conducted in the USA. This means that the existing research is currently biased towards a single culture and a country which can be classed as being high on individualism and low on power distance (Hofstede, 1983). The current study has sought to address this imbalance by presenting a different cultural context for OCBs. Citizenship behaviours are known to change depending on the cultural context, norms, values and society. As an example, the level of power distance in any given culture is influenced by the discretion level of an employee (Clugston et al., 2000).

Secondly, the existing literature is dominated by studies which have investigated OCBs within the manufacturing industry (Bitner, 1990; Morrison, 1994), with only a limited number of studies looking at the service industry (Mei, 2009). The growth of the service industry has meant that staff behaviour and motivations have become more important, but even so, OCBs have historically been neglected in the literature (Yoon & Suh, 2003). The current study has added to the field by exploring OCBs within the hotel industry.

Thirdly, the existing research has shown that a proposed link between individual differences in traits and levels of employee engagement in OCBs is weak. (e.g., Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The current thesis has aimed to hypothesize the effect of individual differences in traits on OCBs in a different cultural context. By examining and finding substantively positive effect of intrinsic motivation and polychronicity on OCBs, the current study has extended the existing knowledge and understanding of their

role in the OCBs processes.

Finally, this thesis lends further contributions to the OCB literature and provides useful guidelines to practitioners as well. It has achieved this by adding untried antecedents (polychronicity and nepotism) to its model in a hotel setting. In conclusion, the main reason of investigating the antecedents to OCBs was its relationship with organizational performance which in turn leads to better customer service quality.

7.4 Limitations and future research directions

This study has expanded our knowledge base. Nonetheless further research within this field is needed and there are some limitations to this study which must be outlined. The cross-sectional design of the study was the first limitation, which prevents the researcher to have causal deductions. Thus longitudinal designs are needed to investigate causalities. Moreover, this research was unable to incorporate a qualitative approach. Future research in this area should aim to use in-depth interviews and observations to provide a more detailed insight into the outcomes and antecedents associated with OCBs.

In confirming the findings of the present thesis, as well as to broaden the scope and make generalizations, more studies of frontline staff members in Northern Cyprus are needed. This thesis used a sample of FLEs from hotel setting only. Various service settings such as travel agents could be surveyed in future research studies.

Also, this study included only two variables of MCSQ. A future study could include training and service technology as MCSQ variables, in order to measure their effect on OCBs. Inclusion of other personality variables, such as locus of control in the model,

would raise the understanding related to their moderating or mediating roles on the perceptions. Also, the effect of demographic variables such as gender on polychronicity and intrinsic motivation could be investigated in a future study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Quantitative Questionnaire (English Version)

Dear Respondents,

This research is being conducted as part of the Ph.D. Dissertation of Mustafa Daşkın in Girne American University, Department of Management. The purpose of the study is to explore the perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors of individuals in their work lives. Data is collected from participants from different occupations. Findings will be evaluated anonymously in individual level and no information will be shared. This questionnaire may take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Thank you for your participation.

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SECTION 1

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements related to your work on a scale from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. Please put an “X” in the appropriate column to indicate the relevant response.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Mcsq1	We have financial incentives for service excellence.	5	4	3	2	1
Mcsq2	I receive visible recognition when I excel in serving customers.	5	4	3	2	1
Mcsq3	My promotion depends on the quality of service deliver.	5	4	3	2	1

Mcsq4	I often make important customer decisions without seeking management approval.	5	4	3	2	1
Mcsq5	I have the freedom and authority to act independently in order to provide service excellence.	5	4	3	2	1
Mcsq6	I am encouraged to handle customer problems by myself.	5	4	3	2	1
Int7	When I do work well, it gives me a feeling of accomplishment.	5	4	3	2	1
Int8	I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.	5	4	3	2	1
Int9	When I perform my job well, it contributes to my personal growth and development.	5	4	3	2	1
Int10	My job increases my feeling of self esteem.	5	4	3	2	1
Poly11	I like to juggle several activities at the same time.	5	4	3	2	1
Poly12	I believe people should try to do many things at once.	5	4	3	2	1
Poly13	I am comfortable doing several things at the same time.	5	4	3	2	1
Poly14	I believe it is best to complete one task before starting another.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo15	Nepotistic practices cause internal conflicts in this hotel.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo16	In this hotel, executives are more interested in keeping friends and acquaintances in good positions than they are in those employees' performance or the organization's profitability.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo17	In this hotel, department heads are scared of workers who have kinship in upper administration.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo18	In this hotel, it is very difficult to remove or to demote people who have relatives in upper administration.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo19	Employees of this hotel always feel that they need a relative in a high-level position.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat20	My job is very worthwhile.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat21	I am very content with my job.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat22	My job is very pleasant.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat23	I am happy that I took this job.	5	4	3	2	1

Jsat24	I definitely dislike my work.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb25	I am assisting co-workers to deliver high-quality customer oriented services.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb26	To serve my customers, I volunteer for things that are not required.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb27	I make innovative suggestions to improve customer service.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb28	I expend considerable energy to come up with creative ways to assist customers facing problems.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb29	I attend functions that are not required, but that help customer service.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb30	I exchange ideas with colleagues on how to improve customer service.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb31	I deal restlessly with customer problems until they are resolved.	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION 2

Please use (X) to mark the answer suits you best.	1. Gender : () Female () Male
2. Age: () 18-25 years () 26-33 years () 34-41 years () 42-49 years () 50-over	3. Organizational tenure: () 1-3 years () 4-7 years () 8-11 years () 12-15 years () over 15

4. Education () Primary school () Secondary school () Vocational school () University degree () Masters degree	5. Hotel department () Front office () Floor services () Food&beverage services () Customer relations
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APPENDIX B

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Quantitative Questionnaire (Turkish Version)

Sayın katılımcılar,

Bu araştırma, Mustafa Daşkın'ın doktora tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Çalışma, hotel çalışanlarının iş yaşamlarındaki algı, tutum, ve davranışları ile ilgilidir. Bu amaç çerçevesinde çeşitli meslek gruplarından veri toplanması hedeflenmektedir. Bulgular gizlilik esasına göre genel olarak değerlendirilecek, kişisel bilgiler paylaşılmayacaktır. Anket' in doldurulması yaklaşık 10 dakika sürmektedir. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

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KISIM 1

Şuan çalışmakta olduğunuz işletme ile ilgili size sorulan ifadelere en uygun olan cevabı “Kesinlikle Katılıyorum” ile “Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum” arasındaki seçeneklerden birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz. Sizin için en uygun olan cevap kolonuna ‘X’ işareti koyarak cevabınızı belirtiniz.		Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Mcsq1	Hizmet mükemmeliyeti için finansal teşvik alırız.	5	4	3	2	1
Mcsq2	Müşterilere üstün hizmet sergilediğimde yöneticilerimden gözle görülür bir takdir alırım.	5	4	3	2	1
Mcsq3	Sergilemiş olduğum hizmet kalitesine göre terfi alırım.	5	4	3	2	1

Mcsq4	Müşteri ile ilgili önemli kararlarda yönetimin onayını pek aramam.	5	4	3	2	1
Mcsq5	Hizmet mükemmeliyeti sunmakta bağımsız hareket edebileceğim yetki ve sorumluluğa sahibim.	5	4	3	2	1
Mcsq6	Müşteri sorunlarını ele almakta tamamen teşvik olunurum.	5	4	3	2	1
Int7	İşimi tam manasıyla yaptığımda bana bir başarı hissi verir.	5	4	3	2	1
Int8	İşimi tam manasıyla yaptığımda büyük bir kişisel memnuniyet duygusu alırım.	5	4	3	2	1
Int9	İşimi tam manasıyla yerine getirdiğim zaman kişisel gelişimime katkı sağlar.	5	4	3	2	1
Int10	Yapmış olduğum iş kendime olan saygı hissini artırır.	5	4	3	2	1
Poly11	Eş zamanda birçok işi yapabilmekten zevk duyarım.	5	4	3	2	1
Poly12	İnancım odur ki insanlar birçok şeyi biranda yapmayı denemelidir.	5	4	3	2	1
Poly13	Birçok şeyi aynı zamanda yapmaktan dolayı rahatım.	5	4	3	2	1
Poly14	Bir işi bitirdikten sonra diğer birine başlamanın en iyisi olduğuna inanırım.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo15	Akraba kayırmacılığı bu otelde içsel çatışmalara sebep verir.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo16	Bu oteldeki yöneticiler çalışanların performans esasları veya işletmenin menfaatlerinden daha ziyade aile üyelerini ve tanıdıkları iyi pozisyonlarda tutmayla alakadardır.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo17	Bu oteldeki departman müdürleri üst yönetimde akrabası olan çalışanlardan çekinir.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo18	Bu otelde üst yönetimde akrabası olan kişileri işten uzaklaştırmak veya rütbesini indirmek oldukça güçtür.	5	4	3	2	1
Nepo19	Bu otelin çalışanları üst yönetimden bir yakına her zaman ihtiyaçları olduğunu düşünürler.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat20	Yaptığım iş zahmete değer bir iştir.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat21	İşimden oldukça hoşnutum.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat22	Yaptığım iş oldukça zevklidir.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat23	Bu işe girdiğime memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
Jsat24	Kesinlikle işimi sevmem.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb25	Müşteri odaklı hizmet kalitesi sunmakta meslektaşlarıma yardımcı olurum.	5	4	3	2	1

Ocb26	Otel müşterilerine hizmet maksadıyla zorunlu olmadığım şeylerde gönüllü hareket ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb27	Müşteri hizmet kalitesini geliştirmek için yenilikçi önerilerde bulunurum.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb28	Problem yaşayan müşterilere yardımcı olmak maksadıyla yaratıcı çözümler üretmekte ciddi bir enerji harcarım.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb29	Zorunlu olmadığım fakat hizmet kalitesine yardımcı olan faaliyetlere katılır.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb30	Müşteri hizmet kalitesini geliştirmek için meslektaşlarımla fikir alışverişinde bulunurum.	5	4	3	2	1
Ocb31	Müşteri sorunları çözülene dek hiç rahatsızlık duymadan ilgilenirim.	5	4	3	2	1

KISIM 2

Lütfen size en uygun cevabı işaretlemek için (X) işaretini kullanınız.	1. Cinsiyet : ☐ Bayan ☐ Erkek
2. Yaş: ☐ 18-25 yaşları ☐ 26-33 yaşları ☐ 34-41 yaşları ☐ 42-49 yaşları ☐ 50- ve üzeri	3. İş tecrübesi: ☐ 1-3 yaşları ☐ 4-7 yaşları ☐ 8-11 yaşları ☐ 12-15 yaşları ☐ 15 üzeri

4. Eğitim: ☐ İlk öğretim ☐ Lise ☐ Mesleki okul ☐ Üniversite ☐ Master	5. Otel departmanı: ☐ Önbüro ☐ Kat hizmetleri ☐ Yiyecek&içecek hizmetleri ☐ Müşteri ilişkileri
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