Investigating the relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality in hospitality: A cross cultural study

By

Elham Alshaibani MSc BA

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the University's requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

August 2015

Faculty of Design, Media and Management, Buckinghamshire New University

Coventry University

Abstract

This study investigates the effect of cultural intelligence of front-line service employees on foreign guests' perceptions of service quality. This relationship has not hitherto been investigated. The literature suggests that culture and interactions between customers and employees affect service quality. The literature also shows that, in cross-cultural encounters, attitudes and behaviours are important aspects of cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality. It also points to interrelationships between these constructs. A theoretical model was developed which suggests that in these encounters, cultural intelligence is likely to affect service quality through employee performance. A novel methodological approach consisting of a pilot study and two stages of empirical research were undertaken in international hotels in Karbala, Iraq. The first, qualitative stage was in the form of interviews to gain an insight into the service interactions. Thematic analysis of the data supported the theoretical model and pointed to additional causal relationships. The model was tested in the second quantitative stage. A self-report cultural intelligence questionnaire was administered to a sample of local employees (N=201). A new job performance questionnaire was designed and administered to hotel managers (N=53) to assess these employees' performance. A SERVPERF questionnaire was also given to foreign guests (N=469) who were served by these employees. The dimensions of these measures were determined by principal components analysis (SPSS 22), and their adequacy was estimated using confirmatory factor analysis (Lisrel 8.8). The model was tested using hierarchical multi-regression analysis. The findings showed that employee performance mediated the relationships between cultural intelligence and service quality. Another main contribution is the development of an employee performance scale for use in service encounters. The study adds to the cross-cultural service literature and to research methodology design. Its implications for management and employee training were discussed, as well as its limitations. Further research was also suggested.

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Chapter 3

Methodology

Tables Page

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My special gratitude goes to Dr. Ali Bakir for his inspirational supervision, guidance and continuing encouragement and unfailing support; I am lucky. My appreciation also goes to Dr. Nadia Wager, my second supervisor.

I am indebted to the Iraqi Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research for their financial support, and the Iraqi Cultural Attache and his staff at the Cultural Department of the Iraqi Embassy in London, particularly, Mr. Ali Al-Rubaiy.

My thanks are also due to those managers, their employees and the many nameless guests whose participation was vital to the commencement and completion of this research.

I am grateful to Laura Bray, the Research registrar, for her understanding, help and for always being there; to Professor Jake Kaner for his support.

I also thank my colleagues for sharing their thoughts and experience with me, and for their friendship in this difficult journey.

But first and foremost, I am indebted to my family for their infinite patience and unfailing support, particularly to Deea Al-Dean for putting up with me, and for baby Zachary for being most disruptive and most joyful.

I must not forget the support I receive from my mother who is thousands of miles away but always with me in spirt, and from my father, sister and brothers.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction, aims and objectives

Cultural factors have long been recognised in hospitality and tourism to have most influence in a cross-cultural setting where tourists and hosts are members of different cultural groups, speak different languages, and have different values and perceptions of the world (see, for example, early writings by Bochner, 1982; Sutton, 1967). Reisinger and Turner (1998a, 1998b) posited that understanding cultural differences between tourists and hosts is necessary for developing positive cross-cultural tourist-host interactions. These differences, they suggested, are found in cultural values, rules of behaviour, attitudes, perceptions, relationship patterns, verbal and non-verbal communications, among others. These differences cause problems as people from different cultural backgrounds socially interact and affect their perceptions of each other (Ang, Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007; Sharma, Tam, and Kim, 2009; Tsang, 2007). Reisinger and Turner (1998a) added that understanding differences in perceptions helps to assess the effectiveness of the service provider's performance from the perspective of the culturally different customer. In the hospitality and tourism literature there is ample evidence to suggest that culture and interactions between customers and front-line service employees affect service quality (e.g., Bitner, 1992; Chow, Lau, Lo, Sha, and Yun, 2007; Furrer, Liu, & Sudharshan, 2000; Nickson, Warhurst, and Dutton, 2005; Reisinger & Turner, 1998a, 1998b; Sharma, Tam, & Kim, 2012; Sizoo, Plank, Iskat & Serrie, 2005; Stewart, 2003; Tsang, 2007; Zhang, Beatty, & Walsh, 2008). This is because culture is seen to shape the attitudes and behaviours of service employees (Ang, *et al*., 2007; Bitner, 1992; Harris, 2012; Hartline & Ferell, 1996; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000). Furthermore, in the cross-cultural service encounter awareness of the 'other' culture enables service employees to communicate more effectively and sensitively with people from that culture (Ang, Van Dyne, & Koh, 2006; Reisinger & Turner, 1998a, 1998b).

Service encounters, the moments of direct interaction between the customer and the service provider, Bitner, Brown, and Meuter (2000: 138) stated, are "moments of truth in which customers often develop indelible impressions of a firm". Service encounter is theoretically underpinned by role and script theories (Broderick, 1999). In role theory

customers and service employees are viewed as social actors in the service encounter. They both participate in a performance (Grove, Fisk, & Dorsch, 1998) where actors are assumed to be aware of their own roles and perform them as expected. Associated with role theory is script theory (Solomon, Surprenant, Czepiel, & Gutman, 1985; Victorino & Bolinger, 2012), where the roles to be performed are scripted and deviation from the script by one actor causes dis-comfort to the other actors (Hoffman & Bateson, 1997). Sharma *et al.* (2009) saw role clarity and inter-role congruence between customers and employees as important elements of intercultural service encounters as they involve understanding each other's roles and agreeing with these role descriptions.

A principal cause of role conflict is culture, where appropriate behaviour in one culture may not be appropriate in another culture (Cushner & Brislin, 1996). In cross-cultural service encounters, role conflict often occurs when customers and service employees read from different cultural scripts and perform mis-matched roles.

Culture's influence in the service encounter has thus received much interest in academia (e.g., Furrer *et al.*, 2000; Mattila, 1999; Sharma *et al.*, 2009; Sizoo, 2006; Sizoo *et al.*, 2005; Tsang, 2007).

Sizoo *et al.* (2005) and Sizoo (2006) examined whether some employees are better able to adapt their role behaviour during cross-cultural service encounters in order to contribute to a more successful interaction. These authors developed the term intercultural sensitivity and defined it as the ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural differences. They found that in cross-cultural encounters, employees with high intercultural sensitivity scored higher than employees with low intercultural sensitivity in service attentiveness, interpersonal skills, and social satisfaction. Cui and Awa (1992) referred to the general assessment of the ability for effective intercultural communication as intercultural effectiveness. Earley and Ang (2003), on the other hand, developed the notion of cultural intelligence to describe the ability to gather, interpret, and act upon different cues to function effectively across different cultural settings. Earley, Murnieks, and Mosakowski (2007) found that individuals with high cultural intelligence have greater knowledge about other cultures and are more able to use this knowledge effectively than those with low cultural intelligence. Furthermore, Friedman and Antal (2005) and Redmond (2000) used the term intercultural competence to describe the ability to think and act in appropriate ways with people from other cultures. Redmond (2000) found that individuals with high intercultural

competence are more able to learn about other cultures and languages, communicate effectively, and adapt and integrate with other cultures. Sharma *et al.* (2009) noted that the terms: intercultural sensitivity, intercultural effectiveness, cultural intelligence, and intercultural competence are interchangeable. Lee and Sukoco (2010), in contrast, differentiated cultural intelligence from intercultural effectiveness.
Whether individuals' ability to communicate and act effectively in cross-cultural interactions is referred to as: intercultural sensitivity, intercultural effectiveness, cultural intelligence, or intercultural competence; there is consensus about its influence in intercultural interactions (Ward, Fischer, Lam, & Hall, 2009). Other authors also argued that the individual's ability to communicate and act effectively in settings characterised by cultural diversity is a central concept in cross-cultural encounters (e.g., Ang *et al.*, 2007; Bucher, 2008; Van Dyne, Ang, & Koh, 2008; Earley & Ang, 2003; Plum, 2008; Reisinger & Turner, 1998a, 1998b; Susskind, Borchgrevink, & Kacmar, 2003; Thomas, Au, & Ravlin, 2003; Triandis, 2006; Tsang, 2007; Walker, 2003).

In their study in hospitality, Hepple, Kipps and Thomson (1990) proposed a set of hospitality characteristics related to the service employee. They referred to hospitality as: behaviour conferred by a host on a guest that is interactive involving personal contact, and comprises tangible and intangible elements which provide the guest with psychological and physiological security. Hepple*, et al*. (1990) stated that the hospitality services depend largely on human skills and training; highlighting the importance of interactions between the service provider and the customer. As shown above and as will be explored more in the literature review chapter, culture and interactions between front-line service employees and customers are likely to affect service quality, and that central to these interactions are the service employee's behaviour and attitude. It thus comes as a surprise that there is a dearth of studies which investigated the influence of employees' behaviours and attitudes on service quality particularly in cross-cultural service encounters.

This thesis is thus an attempt to fill this gap in the literature. Its aim is to investigate front-line service employees' behaviours and attitudes in the service encounters with customers from other cultures, and the effect of these encounters on customers' perceptions of service quality. The focus of the study is on the hospitality industry. This aim is addressed through the following objectives:

1. Developing an insight into the encounters and discovering potential themes which may help focus the reading on the relevant literature. This is achieved by undertaking a pilot study in a cross-cultural hospitality environment focusing on the service encounters between front-line employees and their foreign guests.

2. Identifying theoretical concepts and constructs that are involved in cross-cultural encounters and their interrelationships, by conducting a thorough review of the relevant literature.

3. Gaining deeper understanding of the dynamics of the service encounters in the study environment, discovering themes and their links to theoretical concepts and constructs, and finding possible relationships between these concepts and constructs. This is achieved by undertaking qualitative research, interviewing a purposive, convenient sample of hotel managers, employees and foreign guests.

4. Explaining and testing these relationships through a quantitative analysis of the data from responses to questionnaires administered to hotel managers, employees and guests.

1.2 The context of the study

Relatively recently the hospitality sector gained increased attention both as an economic and cultural activity and as an academic endeavour. As an important sector of the tourism industry, hospitality plays a vital role in the world economy, particularly in the current more competitive global environment. This global attention on hospitality as a significant economic factor is reflected on the local level in the city of Karbala. The latter is increasingly playing an important role in the economy of Iraq. Karbala receives millions of visitors annually. The majority of these visitors are internal and the rest come from foreign countries. These visitors pay homage to the shrines of the many Shia saints (Imams), especially to Imam Husain, the grandson of Muhammad, the Prophet of Islam. The extraordinary number of visitors creates an immense pressure on the hotel services and the infrastructure of this relatively small city. This is accompanied by vocal and very noticeable complaints about the quality of hotel service, particularly from foreign visitors. It has become common knowledge in the city

of Karbala that the hotel service sector of the hospitality industry does not offer the quality of service expected by foreign guests.

Crippling economic sanctions, political conflicts and the many wars over the last thirty five years, isolated Iraq from the rest of the world; socially, economically and in the academic field. Consequently, there were no serious or credible studies in the hospitality service field, as in many other fields. Since 2010 the city of Karbala received in excess of 10 million visitors a year, around 15% of this number were foreign visitors (see Table 1.1) from more than 30 countries. The vast majority of foreign visitors come from Iran, Bahrain, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Lebanon, Emirates, Turkey, Pakistan, India, Azerbaijan, Tanzania, and from Iraqi communities living in Europe and America. These visitors usually stay in 5, 4 and 3 stars hotels; the total number of these hotels stands currently at 98 (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.1 Number of foreign tourists

(Source: Tourism Department of the Holy City of Karbala, nd)

2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
266,922	504,975	663,657	1,261,021	1,517,766	1,423,412	1,708,094	2,135,118

Table 1.2 Number of hotels and ranking

(Source: Iraqi Tourism Authority, 2004)

Hotel ranking	Stars equivalent	Numbers of hotels	Number of rooms
Excellent	Five stars	1	349
First	Four stars	3	341
Second	Three stars	94	5,352
Third	Two stars	80	2,734
Fourth	One star	130	2,629
Total		308	11,405

1.2.1 A brief account of the study destination

The city of Karbala is situated in the middle of Iraq, 150 km south-west of the capital Baghdad and to the west of the Euphrates River (see figure 1.1). It covers an area of 52,856 sq. km[1]. The population of Karbala in 2010 was estimated at 1,018,000; composed of 51% males and 49% females[2].

Karbala experiences a semi-arid climate with very hot, dry summers and cool winters. The rainy season is between November and April, but rain is rare even during this time. In the past, the City suffered from severe water shortages that were only resolved in the early 18th Century by building a dam at the head of the Husainniya Canal. Dust storms are also becoming more frequent. The Milh Lake (salt lake), also known as Razazah Lake, is situated to the west of Karbala. The city of Najaf, one hour car drive to the south of Karbala, is another great centre of Shia Islam, as it is the location of the shrine of Ali Ibn Abu Talib (Husain's father, the Prophet's cousin and the first Shia imam).

There are a number of accounts concerning the origin of the name of the city of Karbala. According to the Turkish geographer, Al-Hamawi, the name of Karbala in Arabic means "soft earth"[3]. There are also those who claim that the name came from the Aramaic root Karb or Qarb (near), and Alah (God); suggesting that the name of Karbala means 'near God'[4]. Yet, other historians claim that the name is derived from the Aramaic word 'Kora', the place for making bricks, for the nearby ancient city of Babil; hence Karbabil, which became Karbala through usage. However, followers of the Shia sect of Islam believe that the archangel Gabriel narrated the true meaning of the name Karbalā to Muhammad as "the land which will cause many agonies (karb) and afflictions (bala)." (Al-Qummi, 2008: 545)

The City is one of Iraq's wealthiest, profiting mainly from religious and commercial activities associated with providing services to large numbers of religious visitors; it is also known for its agricultural produce, especially dates and citric fruits.

The City is associated with the Shia sect of Islam, and as such it has become a centre of religious rituals and worships for this sect, housing tens of mosques and religious schools; the oldest and most famous school is that of Ibn Fahad, built over 440 years ago.

---

[1] Iraqi Tourism Authority (2004)
[2] Iraqi Tourism Authority (2004)
[3] Muslims, Islam, and Iraq. http://islam.uga.edu/iraq.htm [accessed 22-02-2013]
[4] http://english.bayynat.org.lb/occasions/karbala.htm[accessed 22-02-2013]

The Old City was designed around the two shrines of Husain ibn Ali and his brother Al-Abbas. At the centre of the Old City is the shrine and tomb of Al-Husain Ibn Ali, the grandson of Prophet Muhammad by his daughter Fatimah Al-Zahra and her husband Ali Ibn Abu Talib). Husain's tomb and the tombs of his brother and followers are a place of pilgrimage for Shia Muslims, especially on the anniversary of Husain's death in the battle of Karbala on the 10th Day of the month of Ashura (Islamic calendar). Many pilgrims travel to Karbala to pay homage to the shrine; they believe the tomb to be one of the gates to paradise. Many Shia ask to be buried in and around Karbala as they consider it to be a holy place. Another important site to visit in Karbala for the Shia pilgrims is Al-Mukhayam, which is believed to be the location of Husain's camp, where they publically commemorate the slaying of Husain, his family and followers.

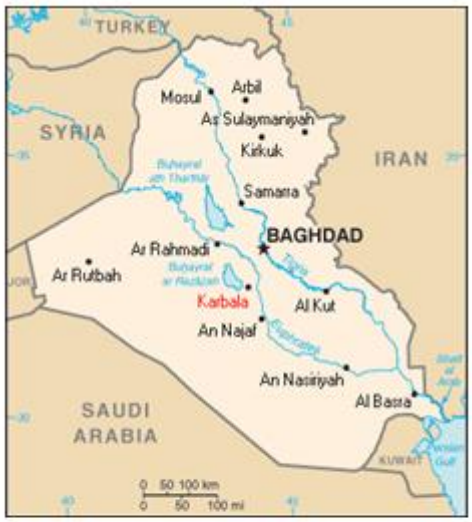


Figure 1.1 Map of Iraq showing the location of the city of Karbala and the shrines of Imam Husain and Imam Abbas.

1.2.2 A brief history of the destination as a place of pilgrimage

Karbala has occupied a prominent position in Shia Islam and traditions as a result of the 'Battle of Karbala', fought on October 10, 680 AD (10th of Muharram, 61 AH). Muawiyah, the founder and first caliph of the Umayyad rule left the caliphate to his son Yazid in 680 AD. Many of the followers of Ali Ibn Abi Talib felt that the Islamic caliphate belonged to the descendants of Ali. The battle of Karbala occurred as a result of Al-Husain's refusal to accept the Umayyad Yazid Ibn Muawiya as caliph. Ali's followers rose in the city of Al-Kuffa (75 km south west of Karbala) and invited Al-Ḥusain to come to the City to be proclaimed as the rightful caliph of Islam.

Before Al-Husain's arrival to Kuffa and on learning of the potential rebellion of the Shia in Al-Kuffa, Yazid ordered Ubayd Allah, the governor of Al-Baṣrah, to re-establish order in Kuffa. Ubayd Allah summoned the tribal chiefs of Kuffa, blamed them for the rebellious conduct of their people, and threatened them with reprisal. Expecting to be enthusiastically received by the people of Al-Kuffa, Al-Ḥusain set out from Mecca with his family and some followers. The governor of Kuffa, Ubaydallah Ibn Ziyad, marshalled thousands of horsemen to confront Al-Husain as he travelled to Kuffa. Under the command of Umar Ibn Saad, these horsemen were ordered to deny Al-Husain and his followers access to the Euphrates water in order to force him to agree to give an oath of allegiance to Yazid. Al-Hussain refused, and on 9th Muharram, he asked to be given the night to pray. On 10th Muharram, he prayed the Morning Prayer and, along with his brother Al-Abbas, led his men into battle.

Al-Ḥusain and his 72 fighting men entered the battle, relying on the promised aid from Al-Kuffa; they were all slaughtered and decapitated, and most of Al-Husain's family were killed (Al-Tabari, 1991). This cruel death and the subsequent mutilation of the bodies, including that of Al-Ḥusain, served to compound the grief and consternation of Shia people ever since. This is especially so as the killing involved the grandson of the Prophet and many members of the Prophet's family.

The result of this battle secured the rule of the Umayyad dynasty. However, for Shia Muslims the 10th of Muharram (known as Ashura) has become a day of public mourning and annual holyday. The tomb of the decapitated Imam, Al-Ḥusain, at Karbala has also become their most holy place.

Al-Husain, his brother Al-Abbas and his followers were buried by the local Bani Asad tribe at what has become to be known as 'Mashhad Al-Husain'. Two years later, in 682 AD (63 AH), released from Yazid's prison the surviving members of Al-Husain's family stopped at the site of the battle on their way to Hijaz. The City thus appeared to have begun as a tomb and shrine to Al-Husain and grew around the tomb to meet the increased numbers and needs of pilgrims. The City and tombs were greatly expanded by successive Muslim rulers. The Abbasid Caliph al-Mutawakkil destroyed the original shrine in 850; it was however, rebuilt in its present form around 979, partly destroyed by fire in 1086 and rebuilt again.

In 1737, the city of Kerbala replaced Isfahan in Iran as the main centre of Shia scholarship. At the time, Yusuf Al Bahrani, a key proponent of the Akhbari tradition of Shia thought, occupied the office of Dean of Scholarship until his death in 1772 (Cole,

2003: 71-72). After his death, the more state-centric Usuli School became more influential. The school was severely damaged in 1802 when an invading Wahhabi army sacked the City.

Following the Wahhabi invasion, the City enjoyed semi-autonomy during Ottoman rule. It was governed by people allied with religious jurists (the Ulama). On 13th January 1843, Ottoman troops entered the City to reassert their authority. They laid siege to the City, killing 3,000 people inside the City walls and another 2,000 outside the walls (Cole & Momen, 1986). This event prompted many students and scholars to move to Najaf, five km from Kuffa; Najaf thus became the main Shia religious centre (Cole, 2003).

Karbala received a generous influx of money through the Oudh bequest between 1850 and 1903. The Shia ruled Indian Province of Awadh, known by the British as Oudh, had always sent money and pilgrims to Karbala being the holy city of Shia Islam. The Oudh money, 10 million rupees, had its origin in 1825, where the Awadh king Ghazi Al-Din Haydar bequeathed one third of the money to his wives, and the other two thirds to the holy cities of Karbala and Najaf. After the death of his last wife in 1850, the money and interest accumulated in the hands of the British East India Company. This money was given to Karbala and Najaf according to the wives' wishes, hoping unsuccessfully to influence the Ulama in Britain's favour (Litvak, 2000).

More recently, in March 1991, the City was badly damaged and hundreds of civilians killed when the Shia uprising (Intifada) was crushed by Saddam's regime. The shrines and surrounding houses, cemeteries, and hospitals were riddled with machine gun fire and shelling. Saddam immediately afterwards initiated a wide scale demolition project around the shrines creating a concrete perimeter enclosing a ‘sanitary zone’ of wide open space in between and around the shrines. The shrines were repaired by 1994[5]. On 2nd March 2004, following the demise of Saddam’s regime, Ashoura pilgrimage was the largest for decades, with over a million pilgrims. This occasion was marred by multiple bomb attacks, which became to be known as the Ashoura massacre, killing and wounding hundreds of people.

1.3 The structure of the thesis

The structure of the thesis follows a traditional format. This introduction (chapter 1) starts with setting the scene, and providing the rationale, aims and objectives of this

[5] http://www.hrw.org/legacy/reports/1992/Iraq926.htm[accessed 25-02-203]

study (section 1.1). This is then followed by section 1.2 which describes the context of the study and brief description of the place where the empirical investigation was undertaken. Within this section, a brief geographical and historical account of the place is presented (sub-section 1.2.1), followed by its importance as a global religious destination (sub-section 1.2.2).

Chapter 2, the literature review, presents an interpretive reading of the service management and cross-cultural encounter literature. It attempts to link the cultural intelligence concept to the notion of service quality. It first explores the concept of culture and its influence in cross-cultural service encounters (section 2.2). It then briefly discusses, and the role of service employees in the service encounters (section 2.3), paving the way to the introduction of the concept of cultural intelligence. In section 2.4, the concept of intelligence, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence were discussed, and an argument was made suggesting that cultural intelligence might be more relevant than emotional intelligence in cross-cultural service encounters. The concept of cultural intelligence, its dimensions, and its development were discussed at length in section 2.5. This is followed by a brief discussion of the concept of service quality and its dimensions (section 2.6), preparing the ground for developing a way of linking this concept to cultural intelligence. As the literature is silent over the relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality, the next part of the literature review (section 2.7) attempts to find a mediator to establish this link, and discusses how job performance was arrived at to mediate this relationship. Section 2.8 presents a detailed discussion of the job performance mediator and culminates with adopting a particular job performance framework focusing on the performance of front-line service employees as they interact with customers. In section 2.9, three arguments were advanced: 1) to link cultural intelligence and employee performance (sub-section 2.9.1), 2) to link employee performance to service quality (sub-section 2.9.1), and 3) to link cultural intelligence to service quality via employee performance (sub-section 2.9.3). The aim was to develop a theoretical model of propositions displaying causal relationships between cultural intelligence and service quality through job performance. The development of the model leads to the concluding part of the literature review, by identifying and stating the research problem for this study (section 2.10).

The third chapter displays the methodological design for this study. The chapter started with a brief section on the philosophy and schools of research, and the role of the

researcher (section 3.2). This is followed by displaying and explaining the rationale for adopting a pragmatic, two-stage approach, preceded by a pilot study (section 3.3). The purpose of the pilot study, which was undertaken in a particular cross-cultural hospitality setting, was to guide the researcher to the relevant literature. This was followed by qualitative research in the form of interviews in the same setting (stage 1). The purpose of this stage was to have deeper understanding of the nature of interactions between front-line service employees and foreign guests, to develop a provisional empirical model of relationships, and to find out the extent to which this model was informed by the theoretical model, developed earlier in the literature review chapter. Stage 2 used quantitative analysis of data from questionnaires to statistically test these relationships. Section 3.4 discussed some ethical consideration associated with this study, followed by the conclusion to the chapter (section 3.5).

In Chapter 4, thematic analysis of data from the interviews was undertaken, together with a comprehensive discussion of the findings, culminating in the development of a provisional model of hypothesis. This model was then statistically tested in Chapter 5. In this chapter, the three measurement scales (cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality) were developed using principal component analysis (section 5.3), their goodness of fit was tested using confirmatory factor analysis (sub-section 5.3.2), and so were their validity and reliability (sections 5.3.3 & 5.3.4). These scales were then used to test the hypotheses of the provisional empirical model which were derived in chapter 4 (section 5.4).
Chapter 6 (sections 6.2-6.5) presented a detailed discussion of the statistical findings from chapter 5, where these findings were interpreted and their contributions to knowledge were identified as well as the limitations of the study. The implications of the findings and areas for further research were also discussed within these sections and in the conclusion part (section 6.6).

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, an analysis of the multi-disciplinary literature on service and cross cultural interactions was undertaken, with a special focus on hospitality. The purpose of this analysis was to reveal and understand the concepts that are relevant to these interactions and the inter-relationships between these concepts. There is evidence in the literature which suggests that service culture and contact between customers and front-line service employees are likely to affect service quality (e.g., Bitner, 1992; Frei & McDaniel, 1998; Mattila, 1999; Stewart, 2003; Tsang, 2007; Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1995). This is because service culture is seen to shape the attitudes and behaviours of service employees (Ang, *et al.*, 2007; Bitner, 1992; Harris, 2012; Hartline & Ferell, 1996; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000), and in cross-cultural service encounters enable them to communicate effectively and sensitively with the different cultures they encounter (Ang *et al.*, 2006; Novelli & Burns, 2010). Tsang (2007), for example, established a relationship between service culture and the attitudinal and behavioural responses of front-line service employees, particularly, their self-efficacy and adaptability. He showed that service providers in the hospitality industry see the interacting relationship between their service employees and customers as a central aspect of the service. Stewart (2003) also noted that customer service requires front-line service employees to be able, willing, flexible, and skilful at resolving problems that occur during the service encounter. This is especially so, as customers were found to rank behavioural attributes, such as, responsiveness and reliability, higher than the tangible aspects of the service (Coyle & Dale, 1993; Juwaheer, 2004). Understanding attitudes and behaviours in service encounters required looking into the constructs of personality (Bono & Judge, 2003), emotional intelligence (Conte, 2005; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004; Sternberg & Detterman, 1986), cultural intelligence (Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan, & Koh, 2012; Earley & Ang, 2003; Ang *et al*., 2007; Thomas, 2004; Triandis, 2006), and employee performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, Sager, 1993; Chase & Stewart, 994; Frei & McDaniel, 1998; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Johnson, 2003; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Tsang, 2007; Tsang & Ap, 2007). The inter-relationships between these constructs, particularly in the hospitality and tourism literature, will be explored with the aim of finding out whether cultural intelligence is likely to affect service quality.

This study is thus multi-disciplinary as it brings into the discussion the constructs of personality and emotional intelligence from the discipline of Psychology and their application in the Human Resource Management field. Cultural intelligence and variations on the term are borrowed from Psychology and the cross-cultural service field; the term service quality comes from the fields of Service Management and Marketing, and the term employee performance comes from the performance management in the Human Resources Management and Total Quality Management literature.

This chapter will start by discussing the concept of culture as it is a central theme that runs throughout the thesis. As the hospitality service forms the context within which this study was undertaken, it is necessary to discuss the notions of service culture and national culture. This is also because national culture in the study place has a profound influence on service culture, as will be shown later in the qualitative data analysis chapter (Chapter 4).

2.2 The concept of culture and its relation to service

Culture is an old concept; it has been defined by many researchers. Geertz (1973: 4-5) produced a number of definitions; he stated that culture is: "the total way of life of a people"; "the social legacy the individual acquires from his (sic) group"; "a way of thinking, feeling, and believing"; “an abstraction from behaviour”; "a theory … about the way in which a group of people … behave"; "a storehouse of pooled learning"; “a set of standardised orientations to recurrent problems”; “learned behaviour”; “a mechanism for the normative regulation of behaviour”; “a set of techniques for adjusting both to the external environment and to other men (sic)”; and “a precipitate of history". Geertz (1973) thus showed that culture is a complex concept; he reproduced Max Weber’s notion of culture as webs of significance that people have spun and got suspended in (Geertz, 1973). Usunier and Lee (2009) saw that every task is simplified by culture; the unwritten rules that humans understand through participation in their particular society.

Knowledge of culture also helps individuals to understand how business organisations manage their operations in foreign countries; a term known as managing across cultures, where people from different cultural backgrounds communicate (Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern, 2002). In other words, managing across cultures requires managers and employees to recognise and accept similarities and differences between nations and cultures, so that they can design and implement appropriate strategies for

their business (Hofstede, 1998). Just as important is the individual employee's capability to function effectively in a diverse cultural setting; in situations involving cross-cultural interactions, where problems are likely to arise as a result of dissimilarities in race, ethnicity and nationality (Ang *et al*., 2007).
In operating in different cultures, businesses must be aware of the way people in those cultures communicate. Three aspects of communication styles are recognised: 1) perception of time, where for example punctuality may be considered as important and being late as an insult (Hofstede, 2001; Usunier, 2003); 2) perception of space, where in certain countries it is considered respectful to maintain a distance while interacting, and in other countries, distance is not so important (Chapman, Gajewska-De Mattos, Clegg, & Buckley, 2008); 3) non-verbal communication, where some countries give value to the written word rather than oral statements, while others rely heavily on non-verbal signs and indirectness, politeness and ambiguity (Morand,1996).

Hofstede (2001) elaborated on the notion of cross-cultural communication through his work on the dimensions of culture. He identified five cultural dimensions: 1) small versus large power distance, the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations expect and accept that power is distributed unequally; 2) individualism versus collectivism, how much members of the culture define themselves apart from their group memberships; 3) masculinity versus femininity, the degree to which the society reinforces the traditional masculine work role model of male achievement, control, and power; 4) uncertainty avoidance, how much members of a society are anxious about the unknown, and attempt to cope with anxiety by minimising uncertainty; 5) long- versus short-term orientation, a society's time horizon or the importance attached to the future versus the past and present. Hofstede (2001) added that communication across diverse cultural dimensions requires creating effective relations to overcome problems arising from such diversity. Takeuchi, Yun, and Tesluk (2002) pointed out that interactions with people from different cultures can be difficult as cultural barriers are more than likely to cause misunderstandings, undermining effective communication (see also, Adler, 2002; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001). On the other hand, in cross-cultural encounters, cultural barriers between people from different cultures may be minimised and communications enhanced through understanding each other values and through exchange of knowledge (Novelli & Burns, 2010).

Relevant to this research is the notion of national culture or the shared values of a society, as it may influence the service provider's performance and service quality (Hofstede, 2004). Hofstede (2004) posited that national culture starts when a child learns the basic values of that nation (see also, Hoecklin, 1995). He added that this culture is the deepest and most difficult to change as it is the culture the child grows up in. He further elaborated that other cultures, such as professional and organisational culture, may be learnt or programmed through education, training, or organisational life and practices. In the field of hospitality and tourism, Pizam and Sussman (1995) found that national culture had a significant influence on visitors' behaviour. Also, in the hotel industry, Pizam, Pine, Mok, and Shin (1997) suggested that national culture has greater influence on the behaviour of hotel employees than their organisational or industry culture. Measuring service quality in the hotel industry, Armstrong, Mock, Go, and Chan (1997) found detectable differences in expectations among different cultural groups (see also, Mattila, 1999; Winsted, 1997). Mattila (1999) and Liu, Furrer and Sudharshan (2000) noted that culture impacts upon customer expectations of service quality. A cultural setting or environment which offers a good service culture in a culturally diverse setting would suggest that service providers have high task performance and high intercultural sensitivity/cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003; Sizoo *et al*., 2005).

Service culture can be defined as a culture which values good service and offers it to all customers unconsciously; it is a way of life and an important norm of society (Grönroos, 1990). Zeithaml and Bitner (2000) saw three implications of this definition for employees' behaviour: a) appreciation of good service, b) offering good service to all customers, and c) good service is a way of life which comes naturally as it is an important norm of the culture. In examining the service provider's actual service orientation which shapes its employees, such as; attitudes, behaviour, values, and beliefs, McDaniel and Frei (1994) pointed to organisational climate and individual personality characteristics as two important factors that influence the service provider's inclination to offer quality customer service.

Service climate has been receiving increased attention as a key predictor of performance, particularly in the service sector (e.g., de Jong, de Ruyter & Lemmink 2005; Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, & Niles-Jolly, 2005). Salanova, Agut, and Peiró (2005) viewed group service climate as a collective and shared phenomenon that focuses group members' efforts and competency on delivering quality service (see

also, Schneider, White & Paul, 1998). Schneider *et al.* (2005) further argued that service climate plays an important role in the service encounter and service delivery, leading to higher customer satisfaction and service quality. Furthermore, Salanova *et al*.'s (2005) study using self-reports completed by the employees, found that in the hospitality service organisation, group service climate may have a positive effect on group-level job performance behaviours. Pointing to the importance of group work in delivering a high-quality customer experience, Way, Sturman and Raab (2010) further advocated that the effects of service climate on group performance should also be investigated using managers' evaluation of the performance of the group of employees they directly supervise.

Zeithmal and Bitner (2000) viewed culture as central in service provision as it shapes the way customers evaluate services; it also affects the way front-line service employees interact with customers. Tsang (2007) indicated that in the hospitality industry, culture is important for the quality of service delivery; this requires an understanding of the characteristics of service provider organisations so that a service culture can be developed to enhance the provision and consistency of service. Tsang (2007) also established a relationship between service culture and the attitudinal and behavioural responses of front-line service provider. In the latter he included role ambiguity, role conflict, employee self-efficacy and employee adaptability.

This introduction to service culture requires some understanding of the notion of service. Like other notions, service has a number of meanings and definitions (Grönroos, 1990). Zeithaml and Bitner (2000) saw service as deeds, process and performance. Grönroos (1990) and Looy, Gemmel, Desmet, Dierdonck, and Serneels (1998) considered it as economic activities that are mainly intangible, requiring interactions between service provider and customer, where employees' behaviour and attitude are vital to organisational success and to customer perception of service quality. Customer service thus refers to functional quality; how the customer receives the service, and how service providers perform their tasks; it is seen as essential to customer satisfaction, to developing service quality, and to building customer relationships (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000). There is a plethora of research on customer perception of service quality (e.g., Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988); customer expectation and perception of service quality dimensions (e.g., Carman, 1990; Grönroos, 1984; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985); and the link between service quality and customers satisfaction (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Oliver, 1997).

2.3 Service encounters: Front-line service employees

Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault (1990) posited that service provider organisations have developed service products and strategies for their customers based on the premise that services are produced through encounters between customers and front-line service employees. For these organisations the interactions between their front-line employees and customers are crucial for creating high quality service encounters. A number of studies had focused on attempts by these organisations to instil the "right" kind of attitude in their front-line employees (Nickson *et al*., 2005). Nickson *et al.* (2005) pointed to the increasing importance not just of having employees with the right attitudes, but also of possessing aesthetic skills.

As front-line employees play a crucial role in service delivery and in building relationships with customers, Masdek, Aziz, and Awang (2011) suggested that customers' opinions of service quality provided by the organisation is shaped by how well the front-line employees perform. How well the employee serves the customer depends on how skilful and motivated the employee is; this requires proper management of employees, particularly in hospitality organisations where service encounters are prevalent in their daily operations (Masdek *et al.*, 2011). Ultimately, Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1990) noted that customers build relationships with employees that enhance their trust and loyalty to the organisation.

Raub and Liao (2012), and Liao and Chuang (2007) considered service performance as a central factor in affecting customer satisfaction. This performance, they noted, is largely based on the experience of the customers interacting with the front-line service employees and on the extent to which service encounters meet customers' expectations. Therefore, it may be argued that the ability of front-line service employees to take initiative (Frese & Fay, 2001) and engage in proactive behaviour (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006) is critical for successful service delivery.

Raub and Liao (2012) also suggested that in the hospitality service industry, proactive customer service performance is important for customer satisfaction. Furthermore, Bitner *et al*. (1990) argued that unexpected service extras which are not prescribed by service standards or triggered by service delivery failures are particularly relevant to customers' perceptions of service quality. Raub and Liao (2012) attributed these unprompted and unsolicited aspects of the service delivery to proactive behaviours and initiative of front-line service employees. Moreover, they added that high quality service requires anticipatory actions that help prevent service delivery failures.

In a qualitative study linking effective service recoveries to beneficial outcomes, Bitner *et al*. (1990) found that 23% of the satisfactory encounters were due directly to an employee's response to a service failure, and 43% of the dissatisfactory encounters were due to poor employee response to service failures. Research by Gwinner, Bitner, Brown, and Kumar (2005), and Hennig-Thurau, Houston, and Sridhar (2006) showed that investment in front-line employees facilitates the delivery of quality services; plays an important role in marketing by creating satisfied customers and building customer relationship; and positively influences front-line employees' perceptions of their capability to deliver high quality service.

Not surprisingly, service organisations view training as a critical factor for improving the performance of their employees (Scaduto, Lindsay, & Chiaburu, 2008; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Furthermore, Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, and Avci (2003) suggested that training front-line staff is essential, and that the presence of customer service training programmes demonstrate to front-line employees management's commitment to service quality. Berry and Parasuraman (1991), nevertheless, posited that employees do not often receive adequate or the required training; they may receive technical skills training but do not acquire sufficient knowledge.

Improving service employees' performance requires not only training but also empowerment by enabling them to think, behave, take action, control work and make autonomous decisions (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). Burke (2003) viewed empowerment as a process of enhancing employees' self-efficacy, allowing them to express trust and commitment and to accept greater responsibility and exercise more control over the way they perform their work. Wright and Kim (2004) pointed out that organisations are increasingly looking at employee empowerment as a unique asset that can improve performance. Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2012) found that empowerment practices aimed at providing employees with access to job related knowledge and skills and at granting them discretion to change work processes have a positive influence on their performance.

Undoubtedly, employees' performance is also influenced by their motivation to work, requiring management to institute reward systems to recruit, retain and motivate high potential employees and as a result getting higher levels of performance (Fay & Thompson, 2001). Bragg (2000) suggested that management must influence their

employees' perceptions of how they are rewarded for their behaviour and performance in order to change their behaviour and motivate them to improve their performance. Perceived organisational support is used to represent and measure an organisation's treatment of employees in terms of valuing and supporting their work roles (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). In particular, organisational policies, practices and treatment of staff point to the extent to which the organisation cares about promoting employees' wellbeing (Kraimer &Wayne, 2004). Perceived organisational support has also been related to job satisfaction (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997) and to individual employee performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Kowalewski and Phillips (2012) studied the importance of rewarding and motivating employees in small business organisations; they found that employees in these organisations valued social rewards more than economic reward. Chen and Wallace (2011) studied the effect of multi-skilling of front-line hotel service managers on increased service quality, retention, and job satisfaction. They found that increased attention to multi-skilling may help these managers to deal with the problem of high turnover rate of staff, and that multi-skilling training can increase service quality.

Customer service, Stewart (2003) noted, requires front-line provider employees to be able, willing, flexible to the needs of the customers, and skilful at resolving problems which might occur during the service encounters. These qualities, he stated, is a function of their training and the culture they operate within. More than two decades ago, writers, such as, Bitner (1990); Grönroos (1984); Heskett (1987); Bowen and Schneider (1988); Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1988); and others, recognised the importance of culture in the service encounters and its influence on customer perceptions of service quality. Much later, Stewart (2003) also suggested that culture derived improvement is a central theme in the literature for improving service quality, and that the interaction between front-line service providers and customers during the encounter is the source of positive and negative customer perception.

Studies showed that attitudinal and behavioural responses of front-line employees affect service quality and customer satisfaction, and that the success of a service provider in service delivery depends to a large extent on the attitudes and behaviours of these employees (see, for example, Bitner, 1990; Susskind, Borchgrevink, Kacmar, & Brymer, 2000). Furthermore, Kusluvan and Kusluvan (1999) noted that the service experience of customers depends on the performance of front-line employees. These

authors pointed out that although most of the published research on customer service is focused on service quality and customer satisfaction, few studies dealt specifically with the front-line employees who provide customer service. This area, they thus noted, remains under-researched, particularly in tourism and hospitality contexts, and research from employees' perspective within service situations is rather thin (Tsang, 2007). Given this research shortcoming, Tsang (2007) called for studies from employees' perspectives to establish robust constructs of their behaviours and attitudes in the hospitality context. This he saw as necessary to enhance knowledge of how these employees perceive the value of their service provision. He further claimed that no research has been undertaken to investigate the relationship between service culture and front-line service providers' attitudinal and behavioural responses in a cultural setting. In the same study, Tsang (2007) hypothesised and established such a relationship.

Since customer service is viewed as having a functional quality, front-line service providers' function is critical in understanding, interpreting and transferring information and resources between their organisations and customers (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000). The attitude and behaviour of the service provider's front-line employees, especially in services with a high level of interaction with customers, invariably determine the degree of success of their service delivery (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000). The interpersonal component of service performance, particularly at the time of interaction with the customer, is viewed as a significant factor influencing the quality of service and customer satisfaction (Adelman, Ahuvia & Goodwin, 1994; Bitner, 1990; King & Garey, 1997). In a study on the service quality of a restaurant chain, Coyle and Dale (1993) found that customers gave top rankings to behaviourally based attributes, such as, responsiveness and reliability; while tangibles, such as, employee dress and appearance, were given middle rankings. This, Tsang (2007) suggested, indicates the importance of front-line employees' behaviours and attitudes, particularly how they consider and value their jobs and assigned tasks. Additionally, Hartline and Ferell (1996) found that the attitudes and behaviours of the provider's front-line employees have positive and negative influences on customer perception of service quality. They found that role conflict and role ambiguity were the main attitudinal and behavioural responses that result in negative effects in the interaction between front-line employees and their customers. This, they argued, may arise in situations where front-line

employees experience conflict between what management asks them to do and their values, self-image and self-esteem.

Herbig and Genestre (1997) contended that service culture is only obtainable if front-line employees feel that the service they offer is important; that this feeling is a result of what they believe in rather than what they are told by their managers. This contention, however, is not easily achievable because interactive service work is by its very nature work on people. When instituting quality control in such a work role, standardising some aspects of the employees' personal attributes, though inevitable (Leidner, 1993), is a very difficult if not impossible task to undertake successfully (Zeithaml *et al*., 1990). Hartline and Ferell (1996) further suggested that job satisfaction, self-efficacy and adaptability of front-line employees positively influence their ability to offer customers enhanced service quality. Tsang (2007) found that employees who feel valued by management were motivated to provide quality service to their customers, particularly, in the tourism and hospitality industry. He found that service providers in this industry feel that the interactions and relationships between their front-line employees and customers are a central aspect of their service. Nevertheless, Tsang (2007) believed that it is difficult for these employees to form and keep such relationships; this is because in the current global tourism and hospitality service industry, the provision of services is offered for culturally diverse customers. The above exposition of the literature consistently points to the importance of service provider's attitude and behaviour and its effects on service quality in the service encounters (e.g. Stewart, 2003; Bitner, 1990, 1992; Armstrong et al., 1997; Tsang, 2007; Mattila, 1999; Liu *et al*., 2000; Hartline & Ferell, 1996; Herbig & Genestre, 1997; Ang *et al*., 2007). As such, the focus will be on the characteristics of front-line service employees, particularly on their personality, intelligence and job performance.

2.4 Intelligence

The concept of intelligence is a complex one (Sternberg, 1986). Schmidt and Hunter (2000) viewed intelligence as the ability to form and deal with abstract ideas and to solve problems. They defined intelligence as the ability to apply acquired knowledge to solve new problems (see also, Horn, 1986). Bergh and Theron (2006) further elaborated the notion of intelligence; they saw it as the individual ability, not only to solve problems, but also to adapt to new situations through conscious thought processes. This functional view of intelligence has its roots in Wechsler (1944, cited in

Sternberg & Lubart, 2002) who viewed intelligence as the global ability of an individual to think rationally and act purposefully and effectively. Early research associated intelligence with academia, however, there is a general acceptance that intelligence may be displayed in other settings (Sternberg & Detterman, 1986). Consequently the idea of multiple intelligences came into use, constituting a much broader range of skills, abilities and intelligences (Green, Hill, Friday, & Ve Friday, 2005). In real life situations, intelligence is concerned with specific content; for example, social intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008), emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios, 2003), and practical intelligence (Sternberg *et al.*, 2000). Emotional intelligence is potentially relevant to this study as it has witnessed increased interest since the 1990s and grown in importance as academics became enthusiastic about its application as a performance predictor in organisations (Conte, 2005). Nevertheless, Conte, 2005; and Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2002) asked some critical questions regarding its concept, theory and measurement. Emotional intelligence is the mental process concerned with being aware of, using, understanding, and managing one's own and other peoples' emotional states, and to help solve problems and adjust behaviour (Brackett & Salovey, 2006; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This view, according to Brackett and Salovey (2006), is about a person's capacity to reason and use information about emotions to enhance cognitive processes. Emotional intelligence appears to differ from personality attributes (Brackett & Salovey, 2006) in that it is rooted in one's ability and competence (Saarni, 1999) rather than in personality traits (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Mayer *et al*., 2003).

Although Conte (2005) found that emotional intelligence measures generally demonstrate satisfactory consistency reliability, he nevertheless questioned whether these data are in fact measures of other much more established constructs, such as the Big Five personality traits. He pointed out that some of the sub-scales of emotional intelligence measures display marginally acceptable consistency and reliability, and that validity evidence of emotional intelligence measures is even weaker than reliability evidence. He further added that content validity evidence of emotional intelligence measures is unobtainable because of the lack of robust theoretical underpinnings and because the content of the measures varies widely. The shortcomings of emotional intelligence measures, Conte (2005) stated, extend to construct validity and the lack of a common convergent construct, and also that these measures appear to assess personality traits or emotional abilities rather than intelligence. These and other

concerns about all the emotional intelligence measures led Conte (2006), Gowing (2001) and Mayer et *al.* (2003) to caution against their use as predictors of performance outcomes and selection. Furthermore, as there is evidence to suggest that emotional intelligence is likely to be culturally bound (Mayer *et al*., 2003), Conte (2005) called for the need to develop the various emotional intelligence measures to allow for investigating cross-cultural similarities and differences. Conte (2005) appeared to have overlooked the development of cultural intelligence by Earley (2002) and Earley and Ang (2003) as a result of intercultural interactions.

Organisational research flourished in the 1960s, laying the roots for cultural intelligence studies (Earley & Ang, 2003). Later, researchers in the fields of culture and intelligence integrated these concepts in two approaches (Ng & Earley, 2006). The first is cultural variation theory of intelligence (Sternberg, 1986; Ng & Earley, 2006); it looked at the concept of intelligence as culture bound, where its meaning and evaluation are embedded in cultural contexts (Berry & Ward, 2006). The second is the concept of cultural intelligence (Earley, 2002), where it is claimed to be culture free, concerned with the ability to adapt effectively in different cultural situations. Ng and Earley (2006) thus pointed to an interrelationship between these two concepts; culturally intelligent individuals must understand what intelligent behaviours are in different cultures.
As stated in the introduction chapter of this thesis the notion of cultural intelligence has been variously referred to as: intercultural sensitivity (Sizoo *et al.,* 2005; Sizoo, 2006), describing the ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural differences; intercultural effectiveness (Cui & Awa, 1992), referring to the general assessment of the ability for effective intercultural communication; and intercultural competence (Friedman & Antal, 2005), describing the ability to think and act in appropriate ways with people from other cultures. In this thesis, Earley and Ang's (2003) conceptualisation of cultural intelligence will be adopted to describe individuals' ability to communicate and act effectively in intercultural interactions, because it has the most established scale and also frequently used in the literature (see, for example, Moon, 2010a & 2010b; van Emmerik, Gardner, Wendt, & Fischer, 2010; Ward *et al.*, 2009). Besides being central to this research, in the global business environment, cultural intelligence has assumed greater significance as individuals are increasingly required to adapt to the different cultures they encounter. Undoubtedly, a high level of cultural intelligence requires considerable time and effort to form and develop, and individuals vary in their potentials to develop such intelligence (Ang *et al.*, 2006).

Schmidt and Hunter (2000) viewed cultural intelligence as a form of intelligence which focuses on the ability to grasp reason and behave effectively in culturally diverse settings. It describes an individual's malleable capability to deal effectively with people (Ang *et al*., 2006; Ng & Earley, 2006). Thus, an individual who possesses high cultural intelligence is able to recognise behavioural features of people from different cultures and respond to them favourably (Triandis, 2006).

Earley and Ang (2003) viewed cultural intelligence as distinct from other intelligences in that it is a multi-faceted construct, while other intelligences are more cognitive (see also Jones & Schneider, 2006). Cultural intelligence has its roots in the theory of multiple intelligences (Sternberg & Determan, 1986); as such it is both similar and different from other intelligences. Its similarity is demonstrated in that it is a set of capabilities rather than ways of behaving (Ang *et al*., 2007). It differs from other intelligences in that it does not only focus on cognitive abilities but also on behavioural and motivational aspects of intelligence in culturally diverse situations (Ang *et al.*, 2007). Cultural intelligence is a new development of the two earlier concepts of emotional intelligence and intelligence quotient (Thomas & Inkson, 2003). Cultural intelligence, like emotional intelligence, transcends academic and mental intelligences. Unlike emotional intelligence, whose concern is with the ability to deal with personal emotions, cultural intelligence focuses on the ability to perceive and manage emotions without regards to cultural contexts (Ang *et al.*, 2007). Early and Ang (2003) argued that because emotions are largely symbolic and historic within culture (see also Fitch, 1998), encoding and decoding emotions in one's own culture does not necessarily transfer to other cultures. Consequently, Ang *et al*. (2004, 2007) found that an individual with high emotional intelligence in one culture may not be as emotionally intelligent in another culture. They also demonstrated that cultural intelligence is a much better predictor of performance than general cognitive ability measures. This is an important reason why this research adopts cultural intelligence in preference to emotional intelligence. In this section, a brief introduction was given of the notion of intelligence and a distinction was drawn between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. In later sections, an argument will be developed to explain why the latter is more suitable than the former in a cross-cultural interaction environment. The argument also necessitates a more elaborated discussion of the notion of cultural intelligence, which is undertaken in the following section.

2.5 Cultural Intelligence

As mentioned in the previous section, the construct of cultural intelligence is new and novel in academia (Ang *et al*., 2006) and in the field of diversity management (Thomas & Inkson, 2004). Its pre-runner concepts include the concept of intercultural effectiveness (e.g., Cui and Awa, 1992) and intercultural competence (e.g., Redmond, 2000). Since the inception of the term cultural intelligence, Earley and Ang (2003) and other collaborating authors have published a large number of academic articles, reviews and books, explaining, elaborating and applying the concept in management and leadership in multi-cultural environments (e.g., Ang *et al*., 2007; Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Ang & Van Dyne, 2008, 2015; Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2009; Ang, Van Dyne & Tan, 2011; Leung, Ang & Tan, 2014; Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2012). The original Earley and Ang's (2003) formulation of cultural intelligence and its application as a measure, however, remained in use until it was expanded to an 11 factor concept by Van Dyne *et al*. (2012). This latest theoretical development is discussed in sub-section 2.5.1.
Ang *et al*., (2007) found that work on individual capabilities relating to intercultural effectiveness, though growing, is sparse and unsystematic; this work, they suggested, left a gap in knowledge as to why individuals differ in their effectiveness in culturally diverse contexts. Not surprisingly, the notion of cultural intelligence is not universally agreed or accepted (see, for example, Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas *et al*., 2003; and others). It is also acknowledged that the concept of cultural intelligence is related to the much older and more established psychological notion of emotional intelligence (Plum, 2008; Bucher, 2008). Moreover, a closer look at the literature shows that there are differences between academics in the field over three aspects of cultural intelligence: 1) schools of thought, 2) definition, and 3) dimensions.

In relation to the first, there are two schools of thought underpinning cultural intelligence, one is based in the psychological discipline focusing on the mental (meta-cognitive and cognitive) abilities, motivational and behavioural aspects of the individual (Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas *et al*., 2003; Walker, 2003). The other school is interactional based on cultural engagement and intercultural communication (Plum, 2008; Bucher, 2008). Further, it appears that academics consider cultural intelligence not just as a concept with content but also as a process (Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas *et al.*, 2003).
As for the definitions of cultural intelligence, Earley and Ang (2003: 514) defined it as "an individual's capabilities to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse

settings"; this intelligence, it is argued, can be developed and enhanced through interventions (Ang *et al*., 2007). Petersen (2004) elaborated upon this definition further by proposing that cultural intelligence is not only the ability to be involved in a set of behaviours and skills, whether interpersonal or language skills, but it also includes personal traits, such as endurance and resilience in the face of cultural uncertainty. As cultural intelligence is in its infancy, looking at other established fields, it is not unreasonable to expect that further definitions of the concept will be developed as the field matures.

In terms of the dimensions of cultural intelligence, there are a number of models, each with apparent different dimensions. From the psychological school, based on the original work of Sternberg and Detterman (1986) on multiple intelligences, Earley and Ang (2003) developed a framework which examines individuals' capacity to adjust to new cultures by measuring the meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions of their cultural intelligence. They viewed meta-cognitive intelligence as mental processes used by individuals to gain and understand cultural knowledge; and cognitive intelligence as acquired knowledge about a culture, reflecting cognition of norms, values, traditions and customs of that culture. They also saw motivational intelligence as the extent to which individuals believe in their capabilities to engage in intercultural interactions and their satisfaction with doing so; and behavioural intelligence as having a set of personal behaviours, including needed responses to certain situations.

Similarly to Earley and Ang (2003), Thomas *et al*. (2003) substituted knowledge for cognitive and meta-cognitive dimensions, mindfulness for motivation, but they kept the behavioural dimension. Later, Thomas and Inxon (2004) replaced awareness for motivation; they defined awareness as establishing a thoughtful approach for intercultural interactions. Walker (2003) did not significantly differ from either Earley and Ang (2003) or Thomas *et al*. (2003) since he reaffirmed knowledge as a key dimension of cultural intelligence but referred to it as "cultural knowledge", to mindfulness as "self-awareness", and to the behavioural dimension as "open attitude" and "other awareness" (see figure 2.1).

From the cultural interactional school, Plum (2008) advanced three cultural intelligence dimensions, she referred to them as: intercultural engagement, cultural understanding, and intercultural communication. In a similar vein and from the same school, Bucher (2008) reiterated Plum's three dimensions. However, he seemed to replace

“intercultural engagement” dimension by the terms: “checking cultural lenses”, “managing cross-cultural conflicts” and “multicultural teaming”. He also substituted the “cultural understanding” dimension by “understanding one’s own cultural identity”, and he kept the “intercultural communication” dimension. Bucher also added four more dimensions: “global consciousness”, “shifting perspectives”, “dealing with bias”, and “understanding the dynamics of power”.

Figure 2.1 Cultural intelligence: Schools, definitions and dimensions

School	Definition	Dimensions	Author
Psychological	Individual's capabilities	1. Meta-cognitive 2. Cognitive 3. Motivational 4. Behavioural	Earley & Ang (2003)
Psychological	Individual's capabilities	1. Knowledge 2. Mindfulness/Awareness 3. Behavioural	Thomas, et al. (2003); Thomas & Inkson (2004)
Psychological	Individual's capabilities	1. Cultural knowledge 2. Self-awareness 3. Open attitude & other awareness	Walker (2003)
Psychological	Individual's capabilities and personal traits	-	Petersen (2004)
Interactional	Individual's capabilities	1. intercultural engagement 2. Cultural understanding 3. Intercultural communication	Plum (2008)
Interactional		1. Checking cultural lenses, managing cross-cultural conflicts and multicultural teaming 2. Understanding one's own cultural identity 3. Intercultural communication 4. Global consciousness 5. Shifting perspectives 6. Dealing with bias 7. Understanding the dynamics of power	Bucher (2008)

Tan (2004) posited that cultural intelligence is higher-order thinking, not only because it refers to what is learnt but also to how it is learnt. In addition, an important attribute of cultural intelligence is developing the ability to suspend judgment until enough information is at hand (Triandis, 2006). The utility and predictive ability of cultural intelligence is growing, although the construct is still in its infancy and empirical research remains sparse (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). For example, a number of studies, conducted by Ang *et al*. (2004) found that cultural intelligence can predict task performance and adjustment in situations of cultural diversity and thus help in making cultural judgments and decision making over and above demographic characteristics and cognitive ability. Other researchers showed the connectedness of the construct to individual and situational factors. Ang *et al.* (2006), for instance, explored the relationship between cultural intelligence and personality traits; they found measurable links between conscientiousness and meta-cognition; agreeableness and emotional

stability with behaviour; extraversion with cognition, motivation, and behaviour; and openness with all the cultural intelligence dimensions. They found that openness to experience is an important trait to function effectively in culturally diverse settings. Also, Allik and McGrae (2004) suggested that extraversion and openness are valued and endorsed in Western cultures. Furthermore, Triandis (2006) posited that individual attributes, for example, idiocentrism - allocentrism must be studied in dyadically different cultural relationships. Other studies (e.g., Crowne, 2013) found that experiences abroad influence cultural intelligence: education and employment increases cognitive and behavioural aspects; motivational aspects are higher for those who visited more countries. The results also showed that cultural intelligence is best developed through engaging in intimate cross-cultural interaction; and passive activities are less effective (Karma & Vedina, 2009). Having presented the above brief review of the construct of cultural intelligence, a more detailed and comprehensive treatment is now appropriate as it has bearing on this research.

Earley and Ang (2003) conceptualised cultural intelligence as a multi-faceted notion, consisting of: meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural components. The meta-cognitive component indicates the cognitive strategies to acquire and develop coping mechanisms (Earley & Ang, 2003); the level of cultural mindfulness during intercultural interactions (*Ang et al., 2004*); and the mental processes that individuals use to acquire and understand cultural knowledge (Ang *et al*, 2007). Ang *et al*. (2007) suggested that individuals with high meta-cognitive cultural intelligence possess high-order thinking, which enables them to exercise control over cognitive processes, enhancing their learning about a new culture. They argued that in this learning process, individuals; a) plan their learning approach about the new culture, b) monitor their own understanding, and c) evaluate their progress towards this understanding. They saw the importance of the meta-cognitive component in: enhancing active thinking of different cultural situations, decreasing reliance on rigid cultural assumptions, and forcing individuals to review their strategies to obtain more successful cross-cultural interactions (Ang *et al*., 2004). Similarly, Brislin, Worthley, and MacNab (2006) found culturally intelligent individuals as those people who have the skills to recognise culturally influenced behaviours.

While meta-cognitive cultural intelligence involves higher-order cognitive processes, cognitive cultural intelligence refers to knowledge of the values, beliefs, norms,

practices, and conventions of a different culture, gained through education and personal experiences. Such knowledge may be declarative concerning economic, political, legal and social systems; or procedural referring to how things are performed within this culture (Ang *et al*., 2004; Triandis, 1994), and the basic cultural value structures (Hofstede, 2001). Individuals possessing high cognitive cultural intelligence are more able to understand similarities and differences between cultures (Brislin *et al*., 2006). Ang *et al*. (2004) stated that declarative knowledge is obtained through observation and encounters with people from that culture, and procedural knowledge through mimicry. Thus cognitive cultural intelligence is important as individuals gain a better understanding of the systems and specific patterns of social interactions within a new culture (Ang *et al*., 2004).

The third component, motivational cultural intelligence, is concerned with the individual's desire and capability to focus attention and energy on learning about, adapting and functioning in a new culture (Earley & Ang, 2003). Kanfer and Heggestad (1997) argued that motivational capacities "provide a genetic control of affect, cognition and behaviour that facilitate goal accomplishment" (p. 39). In the expectancy-value theory of motivation, the direction and magnitude of energy channelled toward a particular task involves two elements – expectations of success and value of success (DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Therefore, individuals with high motivational cultural intelligence are genuinely more interested and open to new cultural experience and more able to direct attention and energy toward cross-cultural interactions. Their energy and motivation is based on intrinsic interest (Bragg, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 1985) and confidence in their cross-cultural effectiveness (Bandura, 2002). Thus motivational cultural intelligence highlights individuals' values and self-efficacy in functioning in a new culture. Furthermore, Raub and Liao (2012) noted that employees with high self-efficacy are able to positively assess the likelihood that they will be able to cope successfully with arising demands of customers' service performance. These employees, they added, have the required confidence to persist in investing personal efforts in uncertain environments. Similarly, Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) argued that self-efficacy enables employees to adapt to new and challenging environments. Indeed, Speier and Frese (1997), Tierney and Farmer (2002), and Liao, Liu and Loi (2010) showed that self-efficacy affects employees' initiative and customer service performance, and enables them to handle ambiguous situations and to formulate new and creative ideas.

Bandura (2002) and Tsang (2007) viewed self-efficacy as individuals' beliefs in their ability to perform job related tasks. Individuals high in self-efficacy believe in their own ability to deal with different cultural perspectives and settings, as well as handling complex and uncertain situations (Ang *et al*., 2004). Individuals possessing high motivational cultural intelligence are able to face failures, and re-engage rather than withdraw from the situation. As such, motivational cultural intelligence is important as it triggers effort and action as well as enhancing an individual's search for the best way to adapt to a new culture (Earley & Ang, 2003).

Behavioural cultural intelligence, according to Sternberg (1986), Ang *et al*. (2004, 2007), and others, refers to visible, overt actions of people rather than their thoughts in different cultural situations. These authors saw behavioural cultural intelligence as the extent to which an individual acts appropriately, verbally and non-verbally, in new cultural settings. More than five decades ago, Hall (1959) also found that cultural understanding and motivation require mental capabilities as well as ability to exhibit appropriate verbal and non-verbal actions. Accordingly, behavioural cultural intelligence in a specific cultural situation must include having a wide repertoire of behaviours. Individuals possessing high behavioural cultural intelligence will exhibit appropriate behaviours in a new cultural surrounding based on their broad range of verbal and non-verbal capabilities, such as; culturally appropriate words, symbols, tone, gestures and facial expressions (Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, & Chua, 1988). Reisinger and Turner (1998a, 1998b) pointed out that these cultural differences exist despite the fact that some behaviour is universally recognised, such as: being polite, honest, friendly, and respectful. Gudykunst *et al*. (1988) argued that these individuals are flexible and able to change their behaviours to meet the needs of the cultural situation in which they find themselves. They added that these individuals are sensitive to the enacted range of behaviours: the culture-specific rules of non-verbal expressions, the meanings attributed to certain non-verbal behaviours; and able to know and elicit the appropriate response and overcome learned habits. In the hospitality industry, Tsang (2007) argued that front-line employees' attitudes and behaviours can be influenced by the cultural value system, and proposed that understanding the difference in cultural values would offer insights into these employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses to their service provision.

2.5.1 Conceptual development post data collection

Post the completion of the data collection for this thesis, a new study by Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) was published. These authors expanded on the original conceptualisation of cultural intelligence. This new study might have influenced the design of the cultural intelligence questionnaire used in the thesis and consequently the findings.

Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) felt the need for an expanded cultural intelligence conceptualisation for a number of reasons. Gelfand, Imai, and Fehr (2008) observed that one of the contributions of cultural intelligence is its ability to facilitate theoretical understanding by offering a simple theory to explain effective cultural adaptation. It demonstrates its parsimony by focussing on "a small number of facets (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, behavioural) at a higher, abstract level of generality" instead of treating "a larger number of dimensions at a more specific level." (Gelfand *et al*., 2008: 376). Recognising this shortcoming (Ang *et al*., 2011) and responding to better understanding of the four dimensions of cultural intelligence, Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) presented an expanded 11-factor theoretical conceptualisation of cultural intelligence that identifies the sub-dimensions of each of its meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural primary dimensions. Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) drew on the meta-cognition studies of O'Neil and Abedi (1996), and Pintrich and De Groot (1990) to identify "planning", "awareness", and "checking" as sub-dimensions of meta-cognitive cultural intelligence. Also, following from Cushner and Brislin (1996) and Murdock (1987), they differentiated "culture-general knowledge" from "context specific knowledge" as sub-dimensions of cognitive cultural intelligence. They further drew on Deci and Ryan's (1985) and Bandura's (2002) motivational perspective to identify "intrinsic interest", "extrinsic interest" and "self-efficacy" as sub-dimensions of motivational cultural intelligence. Ang and Van Dyne (2008) also identified "verbal behaviour", "non-verbal behaviour" and "speech acts" (Spencer-Oatey, 2008) as sub-dimensions of behavioural cultural intelligence. Eleven sub-dimensions were thus specified in the expanded conceptualisation of cultural intelligence: three sub-dimensions for meta-cognitive, two for cognitive, three for motivational, and three for behavioural (see Figure 2.2). A brief description is now given to each of these sub-dimensions.

Figure 2.2 The 11-factor cultural intelligence construct

Construct	Cultural intelligence			
Dimension	Metacognitive	Cognitive	Motivational	Behavioural
Sub-dimension	Awareness Planning Checking	Culture-general knowledge Context-specific knowledge	Intrinsic interest Extrinsic interest Self-efficacy to adjust	Verbal behaviour Non-verbal behaviour Speech acts

Van Dyne *et al*. (2012: 299) viewed awareness as "the capability of making sense of self, others, and the situation in specific cultural contexts" (see also, Ridley, Schutz, Glanz, & Weinstein, 1992; Sitzmann, Bell, Kraiger, & Kanar, 2009; Sitzmann & Ely, 2011).

Planning is strategising in preparation for a culturally diverse encounter (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2008; Jacobs & Paris, 1987). Careful anticipation and thinking about the actions of others and the particular cultural context is seen to enhance understanding (Endsley, 1995; Schmidt & Ford, 2003; Van Dyne *et al*., 2012).

Checking is reviewing assumptions, adjusting mental maps (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2008), and comparing expectations and actual occurrences during inter-cultural interactions. Checking, Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) observed, derives from conscious reflection (Keith & Frese, 2005) and unconscious associative learning (Bubic, von Cramon, & Schubotz, 2010); it is an adjustment mental process which requires checking cultural assumptions about self and culturally different others, and reflections after the interaction (see also, Savani, Morris, Naidu, Kumar, & Berlia, 2011). In their totality, Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) argued, these meta-cognitive sub-dimensions represent proactive thinking in intercultural settings, challenging rigid cultural assumptions, and adapting culturally appropriate strategies to bring about the desired outcome in intercultural encounters. As such, Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) posited, these sub-dimensions are critical components of cultural intelligence.

Van Dyne *et al*. (2012: 301) defined culture-general knowledge as "knowledge of the universal elements that constitute a cultural environment". They argued that having knowledge of the general elements of a culture is necessary if one is to understand why cultures might be similar and different. On the other hand, they defined context-specific knowledge as "declarative knowledge about manifestations of cultural universals in a specific domain and procedural knowledge of how to be effective in a specific cultural context" (p. 302) (see also, Triandis, 1994). Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) pointed out that both sub-dimensions of cognitive cultural intelligence - culture-general

knowledge and context-specific knowledge - are important and complementary, as having a broader knowledge of the elements of a culture enables a deeper understanding of how people in that culture think and behave. They thus argued that individuals with high culture-general knowledge are able to understand the different cultures they encounter, and have context specific knowledge to act effectively within these cultures.

The motivational sub-dimension of intrinsic interest is defined as valuing culturally diverse experience as it, in itself, inherently satisfying (Deci, 1975; Van Dyne *et al*., 2012). Intrinsic satisfaction, Van Dyne *et al.* (2012) posited, may be gained from intercultural interactions and from enjoying working with people from different cultures. Such intrinsic satisfaction from intercultural experiences, they added, is important as it is self-generated rather than being dependent on other people or on the situation. Ryan and Deci (2000) defined extrinsic interest as valuing the tangible, personal benefits that can be derived from diverse cultural experiences, such as; an enhanced reputation, a sense of increased employability, and promotion opportunities derived from having intercultural work experiences (Van Dyne *et al*., 2012).
Self-efficacy to adjust, as having task-specific confidence (Bandura, 1997, 2002; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) in culturally diverse situations, is about feeling confident of one's ability to deal with the stress of adjusting to new cultures, to interact with people from other cultures, and to work in culturally diverse environments. Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) argued that these three sub-dimensions are motivating because; extrinsic interest provides tangible benefits, intrinsic interest provides personal satisfaction, and self-efficacy to adjust reflects people's inclination to exhibit their strengths and capabilities. Together, these motivational cultural intelligence sub-dimensions, Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) posited, energise and sustain effective functioning in difficult inter-cultural environments.

Verbal behaviour, according to Victor (1992), is the capability to flex verbal behaviour, such as: speaking faster or slower; louder or softer; varying the amount of inflection; and changing the amount of warmth, enthusiasm, and formality through the expression style. Beamer and Varner (2001) also included in verbal behaviour flexibility in using pause and silence to suit different cultural encounters. In contrast, non-verbal behaviour is viewed as flexibility in communication in diverse cultural settings, conveyed by gestures, facial expressions, body positioning, physical and eye contact,

body language, and appearance (Knapp & Hall, 2010; Westphal, Seivert, & Bonanno, 2010).

Speech acts is viewed as flexibility in manner of communicating specific types of messages such as: requests, invitations, apologies, gratitude, and disagreement; these messages need to be expressed appropriately using the local standards of a culture (Bowe & Martin, 2007). Speech acts' flexibility is important as different cultures have different conventions of what is seen as appropriate behavioural style of conveying some sorts of messages (Spencer-Oatey, 2008).

Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) observed that in intercultural settings, individuals with high behavioural cultural intelligence are able to exhibit their behavioural flexibility by overcoming the tendency to rely on habits. These individuals are capable of code-switching to adjust to the cultural context (Molinsky, 2007).

Verbal flexibility in cross-cultural encounters, Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) argued, facilitates effective communication, non-verbal flexibility shows respect for different cultural norms, and speech-acts flexibility demonstrates "nuanced understanding of communication conventions and puts others at ease" (p. 306). Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) further observed that as behavioural actions are most visible in interactions with people from other cultures, the three behavioural sub-dimensions may be seen as the most critical aspects of cultural intelligence.

In this section, a detailed discussion was provided of the relatively new construct of cultural intelligence. The discussion covered its school of thought, definitions, and dimensions. As the central focus of this thesis is to explore and develop relationships between cultural intelligence and service quality, in the next section (section 2.6) the construct of service quality will be discussed.

2.6 Service quality

A widely accepted definition of service quality is Wyckoff's (cited in Stewart, 2003: 247) value based notion, where he viewed service quality as "the degree of excellence intended, and control of variability in achieving that excellence in meeting the customer's requirements." In the service industries, 'controlling variability' is seen as an insurmountable task, particularly, in the hospitality and tourism industry, where the service encounters between the customers and service employees are seen to have a major impact on customer satisfaction and service quality (Stewart 2003).

Referring to Johns and Howard's (1998) work in food service operations, Chow *et al.* (2007) characterised service quality perception as "individualised, intangible, and subjective" (p. 700). Moreover, Fuller and Smith (1991) pointed out that service quality requires employees to use their interpersonal skills and affective attributes, derived from their culture, values, beliefs and emotions. These capabilities, they posited, are not easily categorised, or standardised. Drawing a distinction between the manufacturing and service industries, Parasuraman *et al*. (1988) argued that service quality is much more difficult for customers to evaluate than the quality of manufactured goods, that customers do not only evaluate the outcome of service quality but also the process of service delivery. They added that the sole criteria that should count in evaluating service quality are those of the customers, whose judgments are the only ones that count. Furthermore, in discussing service quality in hotels, Crick and Spencer (2011) pointed out that while hospitality service providers focus on a number of service elements; guests only see the totality of the service experience. Accordingly, they argued that the emphasis must be on this totality, and urge service providers to understand how to "address the multiplicity of perceptions that are contingent on that subjective totality, which is being assessed by guests" (p. 468).
Recognising the work of Parasuraman *et al*. (1985), Nickson *et al*. (2005) argued that both tangible and intangible aspects of the service process are important in how customers judge service quality; and that key within this process of determining service quality are front-line service employees.

There has been a continuing debate in the literature on how and what aspects of service quality should be measured and on what dimensions (e.g., Brown, Churchill, & Peter 1993; Coulthard, 2004; Cronin & Taylor 1994; Kang & James, 2004; Ladhari, 2008, 2009 & 2010; Parasuraman *et al*. 1988; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1994; Sureshchandar, Rajendra & Kamalanabhan, 2001). Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1991) carried out empirical studies on restaurants, and developed two service quality dimensions: process quality and output quality; they further illustrated the existence and explicitness of these dimensions. Mels, Boshoff, and Nel (1997) suggested two factors of service quality, which they termed: intrinsic and extrinsic service quality. Grönroos (1984), on the other hand, classified service quality into technical and functional quality. Technical quality, he explained, refers to what is delivered to the customer (e.g., the meal or food quality in a restaurant). Functional quality, he added, is concerned with psychological and behavioural aspects and the way in which the

service is delivered to the customer through interaction and atmosphere. He further considered the functional side of quality to be more important than the technical side. Rust and Oliver (1994) proposed a service quality model, which consists of three factors: customer-employee interaction, service environment, and service outcome. Very similar to Rust and Oliver's (1994) model, Brady and Cronin (2001) conceptualised a three-factor model of service quality comprising: interaction quality, physical environment quality, and outcome quality. They argued that interaction quality is measured by attitude, behaviour, and expertise; physical environment quality is measured by ambient conditions, design, and social factors; and outcome quality is measured by waiting time, tangibles, and valence. Chow *et al*. (2007) tested Brady and Cronin's (2001) three-factor model and found that these factors have significant positive effects on service quality.

Parasuraman *et al*.'s (1988) perspective of service quality looked into the characteristics of the service encounter between customers and employees. It used the terms of reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurances, and tangibles, to describe this encounter.

Brady and Cronin (2001) noted that there is no consensus as to which perspective is more appropriate, and no attempt made to relate the differing views or to reach agreement over the nature or content of the multiple dimensions of service quality. They further pointed out that, in general, researchers adopted Grönroos' (1984) perspective or Parasuraman *et al*.'s (1988) perspective, with the latter dominating the literature.

Parasuraman *et al*. (1988, 1994) approached the service quality definition from the view that there is a gap between customers' expectations from the service and their perceptions of what is delivered. They developed SERVQUAL as a scale to measure this gap. In this 'gap model', they suggested that the higher the perception of the service received as compared to the expectation of the service desired, the higher the service quality. Originally, they identified ten dimensions: reliability, responsiveness, courtesy, competence, credibility, security, communication, access, understanding, and tangibles. However, in developing the SERVQUAL instrument, statistical correlation analyses enabled them to consolidate these dimensions into five dimensions, retaining reliability, responsiveness, and tangibles dimensions unchanged, while grouping the other seven dimensions into two new ones: assurance and empathy. Parasuraman *et*

al. (1988) posited that the reconstructed five quality dimensions capture the meaning and essence of the original ten.
They defined: reliability as the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately; responsiveness as willingness to help and provide prompt service to customers; assurance as knowledge, courtesy and ability of employees to convey trust and confidence; empathy as caring, providing personal attention to customers; and tangibles as appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and others (p. 26). They further found that in the service industry, reliability has always come up the most important dimension and tangibles the least important. The SERVQUAL instrument was designed to measure customers' expectations of a service provider performance, using the five dimensions, and their perceptions of that performance after consuming the service. The expectation and perception scales are compared using difference scores or gaps. Parasuraman *et al*. (1988) pointed out that by examining the content of these two scales, SERVEQUAL has consistently proved to be dependable. Rust and Oliver (1994) noted that because the expectation scale of SERVQUAL was originally designed with reference to an ideal company delivering service of excellent quality, it provides a comparison between the actual service offered to the customer and excellent service.

Although SERVQUAL was widely used and accepted in various service industries, nevertheless, it was also widely criticised. Much of the criticism has centred on the notion of 'expectations' as a standard against which the perception of quality should be measured. In this context, Cronin and Taylor (1992, 1994) stressed that 'expectations' do not contribute more useful information as far as measuring service quality is concerned (see also, Brady, Cronin & Brand, 2002; Babakus & Boller, 1992; Carmen, 1990; Teas, 1993, 1994; Boulding, Kalra, Staelin and Zeithaml, 1993). These authors advised that using a performance-only scale, what they called, SERVPERF, instead of the gap-based approach of SERVQUAL works better for measuring service quality. A number of tourism and hospitality versions of SERVQUAL were developed, for example, Albacete-Sáez, Fuentes-Fuentes, and Lloréns-Montes' (2007) scale to measure service quality in rural accommodation; Khan's (2003) ECOSERV to measure eco-tourists' quality expectations; Frochot and Hughes' (2000) HISTOQUAL to evaluate service quality provided in historic houses; and Luk and Layton (2004), and Yilmaz (2009) advocated the use of the performance-only scale in the hotel industry. Wong, Dean, and White (1999) developed the HOLSERV model which applied the

SERVQUAL specifically to hospitality. There are three dimensions of service quality in their model: employees, tangibles, and reliability. They argued that in this model, the employee dimension emerged as the best predictor of overall service quality as it encapsulates the intangibles elements of empathy, responsiveness and assurance. The HOLSERV model thus places emphasis on the role of the employee in hospitality service quality (Crick & Spencer, 2011). A further development in the hospitality industry is the work of Parayani, Masoudi, and Cudney (2010). These authors used SERVQUAL as a basis for applying the quality function deployment (QFD) method, which captures the voice of the customer and infuses it into service. Crick and Spencer (2011) stated that the "QFD approach to the measurement of hospitality services views service delivery as a process and itemises each stage by converting customer needs into organisational processes"; providing "a more holistic view of service delivery" (p. 469).

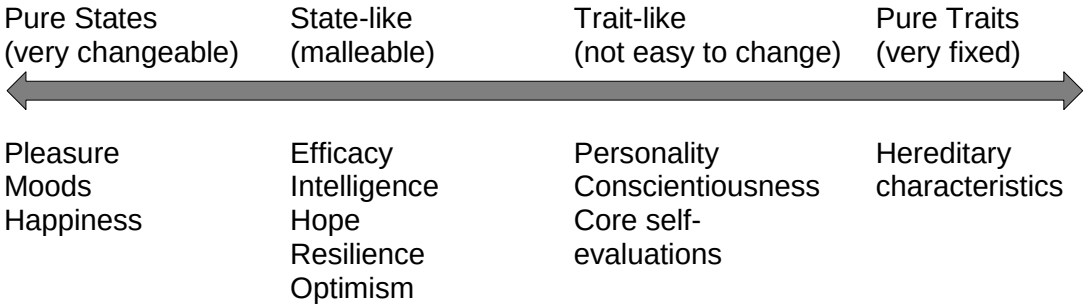
Having discussed the notions of cultural intelligence (section 2.5) and service quality (this section), and as the literature on cross-cultural interactions does not show any direct relationships between cultural intelligence and service quality, it was necessary to look for a third construct which might mediate the relationship between these two constructs; this is undertaken in section 2.7, next.

2.7 Potential mediator: Cultural intelligence to service quality

There are a number of diverse constructs which can explain individual differences, such as, personality, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, and others. There is also an ongoing debate in Psychology over the distinction between traits and states (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010). Luthans *et al*. (2010) suggested that these two concepts mark the opposite ends of a continuum, where at one end lie pure states, such as, pleasure, moods, and happiness which are momentary and very changeable. Moving along the continuum, they added, come state-like constructs, such as efficacy, intelligence, hope, resilience, and optimism which are more malleable and lend themselves to development; these are referred to as an individual's psychological capital (PsyCap) (Luthans, *et al.*, 2010) . Next on the continuum are trait-like constructs, such as, personality conscientiousness and core self-evaluations which are more fixed and not easy to change. The far end of the continuum marks the relatively pure traits such as hereditary characteristics; these are very fixed and very difficult to change. Luthans *et al*. (2010) saw the psychological capital resources of efficacy,

hope, resilience, and optimism as more stable than states, such as, moods or emotions, but not as stable as personality traits, such as, conscientiousness or core self-evaluations. The continuum is represented in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 The trait-state continuum



In their work on individual differences, Chen, Gully, Whiteman, and Kilcullen (2000) also argued that trait-like individual personality differences are not task-specific or context-specific, and that they are relatively stable over time. State-like individual differences, such as, anxiety and self-efficacy, on the other hand, are specific to certain tasks and situations; they are malleable over time (see also, Bandura, 2002; Luthans &Youssef, 2007). Chen *et al*. (2000) elaborated these notions further; they viewed trait-like personality as a distal predictor of state-like more proximal intelligence characteristics, where personality is made visible through intelligence as the individual undertakes a specific task (see also, Austin & Klein, 1996; Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997). It may, therefore, be argued that in service encounters, intelligence, being a proximal and state-like construct that can be demonstrated in certain situations or through task performance, is likely to be more relevant than personality. Furthermore, in culturally diverse settings, Ang *et al*. (2006) explored the relationships between the meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence, and the Big Five personality traits. They found that there are significant links between: a) meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and conscientiousness; b) behavioural cultural intelligence and agreeableness and emotional stability; c) cognitive, motivational, and behavioural cultural intelligence and extraversion; and d) all four cultural intelligence dimensions with openness. Following from Chen *et al*. (2000), Ang *et al*. (2006) argued that personality is a distal construct and cultural intelligence is a proximal one. There is thus an acknowledgement, on their part, of the difficulty with considering these two constructs as separate from each other, as both constructs are parts of the same

"nomological network" (p. 101). It thus appears that the relationship between cultural intelligence and personality is not as straightforward as Ang *et al*. (2006) suggested; that this relationship is rather circular and, therefore, problematic.

From a different angle, McDaniel and Frei (1994) found that
customer service measures were positively related to personality dimensions of agreeableness, emotional stability, and conscientiousness. Other authors attempted to link personality traits with service quality, for example; Ekinci and Dawes (2009). In their study on front-line service encounters which included the hotel service, Ekinci and Dawes (2009) found that the personality traits of extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness have strong links to interaction quality, which, they explained, is a constituent part of service quality. Furthermore, they emphasised that the personality trait of openness is important in interaction quality and customer satisfaction. It thus appears that there is a partial relationship between personality and aspects of service quality, where personality is seen as a potential predictor of service quality. However, as argued above, cultural intelligence, being proximal and state-like construct, which can be demonstrated in certain situations or through specific task performance, is likely to have a closer relationship to service quality than the distal trait-like personality characteristics. The potential relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality has not been studied before; it is at the centre of this study and will be elaborated later in this chapter.

Personality has also been linked to job performance (Brown, Mowen, Todd, & Licata, 2002; Hurley, 1998; Hogan & Holland, 2003). Bono and Judge (2003) also found that core self-evaluation trait is related to job performance. This construct was formulated by Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) by integrating the four self-evaluative traits of self-esteem, self-efficacy, neuroticism and the locus of control. Judge, Erez, and Bono (1998) posited that people who have high core self-evaluation are generally more motivated to perform their jobs than those with low core self-evaluation. Motivation, Bono and Judge (2003) argued, is a central determinant of job performance, as individuals with positive self-regard perform their jobs better because they have confidence in their abilities. Similarly, Erez and Judge (2001) found that the core self-evaluation personality construct is linked to motivation and that motivation mediated the relationship between core self-evaluation and job performance. Bono and Judge (2003) further suggested that core self-evaluation appears to play a central role in attitudes

and behaviours in job performance. As motivation, attitude and behaviour are some of the dimensions of cultural intelligence; this suggests that in cross cultural interactions cultural intelligence may mediate the relationship between personality and job performance, and again demonstrates that cultural intelligence is a more relevant measure of performance than personality.

Different studies also showed that the Big Five personality traits are individually related to job performance. In relating job performance to the Big Five, Hogan and Holland (2003) developed two broad job performance themes: 'getting ahead' and 'getting along'; rooting their work in socio-analytic theory and interpersonal psychology. These two themes, they presented as a model for understanding motivation and for assessing individual differences in job performance. Getting ahead and getting along share with the Big Five personality traits the individual's efforts to seek acceptance and gain approval and status through job performance (Digman, 1997; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996; Hogan & Holland, 2003). Basing their argument on the distinction between task performance and contextual (non-task) performance of Borman and Motowidlo (1993), Hogan and Holland (2003) suggested that getting ahead corresponds to task performance and getting along to contextual performance. Some of the criteria which constitute the task performance (getting ahead), they posited, are: working with energy, exhibiting efforts, and showing concern for quality (p. 16). Similarly, they stated that some of the contextual performance (getting along) criteria are: demonstrating interpersonal skills, working with others, and showing positive attitude (p.16). In service encounters, the latter criteria correspond to Stewart's (2003) treatment performance. Task performance, Srivastava, Locke, and Judge (2000) found, is also related to job satisfaction, and that task complexity partially mediates the relationship between the core self-evaluation personality construct and task satisfaction. Bono and Judge (2003) pointed out that individuals who have positive self-evaluation are more effective in solving problems than others as they are more able to use appropriate problem solving strategies; they are also more effective in high stress situations involving interpersonal encounters. Cross-cultural interactions require the interacting individual to have high core self-evaluation (Tsang, 2007) and consequently high cultural intelligence to enable that individual to perform the task effectively and at the same time derive high task satisfaction. Furthermore, an argument made earlier showed that in cross cultural service interactions, where tasks are performed, cultural intelligence is a more relevant construct than personality. This suggests that in these interactions, job performance

maybe more of an outcome of cultural intelligence than of personality characteristics. This suggestion follows from the premise that, while personality is a more distal predictor of job performance, and cultural intelligence is a more proximal one; job performance is more likely to be the outcome of cultural intelligence than of personality in these interactions. Personality will thus, from now on, take a back seat in this study.

Having used the literature to point to a potential relationship between cultural intelligence and job performance; next, studies will be cited focusing on the hospitality industry, which suggest that job performance influences customer perception of service quality. Both of these relationships will be examined in greater details later in this chapter.

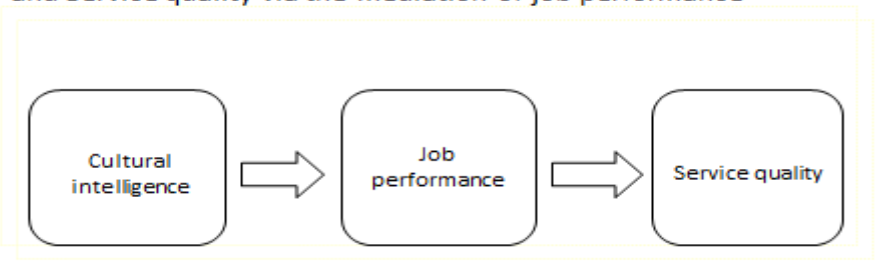
Hartline and Jones (1996) found that front-line employee performance within hotel service environments has significant effects on perceived service quality. Similarly, Gould-Williams (1999) found that performance cues used by hotel guests while interacting with service employees during the encounter impacted their perception of service quality. Studies conducted by Chase and Stewart (1994) and Stewart (2003) in the airline and hotel industries also pointed to direct relationships between employee performance and service quality. Other studies also show that employee performance and behaviour during the service encounter contribute to customers' perceptions of service quality (e.g., Berry & Bendapudi, 2003; Bitner, 1990; Bitner, Booms, and Mohr, 1994; Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1985). Furthermore, in the restaurant sector of the hospitality industry, Wall and Berry (2009) found that customers' perception of service quality was influenced not only by food quality, but also by clues customers gather from employee service performance and the ambience of the place.

In this section, using the literature, it was shown that personality is a predictor of cultural intelligence; however, it was also argued that the relationship between personality and cultural intelligence is somehow circular and problematic, as both notions were derived from the same nomological network. It was also shown that personality affects interaction quality - a sub-construct of service quality - which suggests that a partial relationship may exist between personality and service quality. It was further pointed out that personality characteristics may also predict job performance. However, using the trait-state argument, it was suggested that in service interaction, intelligence may be more relevant to job performance than personality

characteristics. It was also argued that in cross-cultural interactions, cultural intelligence might be stronger predictor of job performance than personality. Furthermore, studies were cited which indicated that job performance may strongly influence service quality.

As there is no study which directly link cultural intelligence to service quality; it is, therefore, plausible to propose that job performance may act as a potential mediator between cultural intelligence and service quality (Fig. 2.4).

Figure 2.4 Proposed relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality via the mediation of job performance



In the next section the notion of job performance is explored, starting with its origin in the manufacturing industry and moving to the service industry. The emphasis is placed on employee performance in the service encounter. Particular attention is paid to hospitality industry, as it forms the context within which this study is undertaken.

2.8 Job Performance

Work role performance was traditionally evaluated by measuring how well individuals perform their tasks as specified in their job description (Griffin *et al*., 2007). However, increasing uncertainty challenged this view of work role performance (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999) as it did not account for the full range of behaviours at work (Campbell *et al.*, 1993; Murphy & Jackson, 1999). This is because, Griffin, *et al*. (2007) argued, uncertainty affects the degree to which work roles can be formalised and whether individual employees can be more effective by complying with their formalised work role requirements or by adapting and changing. Furthermore, Ilgen and Hollenbeck (1999) pointed out that work roles cannot be separated from their contexts. Not

surprisingly, role theory has been used to relate individual work behaviour and performance to organisational context.
Accordingly, researchers have argued that models of work role performance need to become more sensitive to features of dynamic organisational contexts (e.g., Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1999). More than four decades ago, Katz and Kahn (1978) also pointed out that high contextual uncertainty limits the formalisation of work roles and increases the likelihood that work roles evolve dynamically with environmental changes. Raub and Liao (2012) thus posited that given environmental constraints, work role formalisation captures only a fraction of the scope of behaviours that are required for employees to perform effectively.

Wall, Cordery, and Clegg (2001) posited that work role uncertainty in an organisational context is due to the lack of predictability in the inputs, processes and outputs of work systems. According to Murphy and Jackson (1999), this determines whether work role behaviours can be formalised or allowed to emerge through adaptive and proactive behaviour by role players. The more uncertain an organisational context is, Griffin, *et al*. (2007) argued, the greater is the requirement for role flexibility. In an organisational context with high certainty, Raub and Liao (2012) elaborated, work roles maybe formalised through tasks, procedures and standards specified in a job description. On the other hand, if uncertainty is high, Ilgen and Hollenbeck (1999) pointed out, external control will be inappropriate as it will be difficult to anticipate all contingencies and formalise task requirements.

Currently there are a number of approaches in the human resource management and organisational behaviour literature, based on role theory, which address various aspects of the job performance domain, for example: citizenship performance (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), adaptive performance (Hesketh & Neal, 1999; Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000), proactivity (Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010), and others. These approaches, Rotundo and Sackett (2002) noted, contain partially overlapping constructs which, Griffin *et al*. (2007) argued, have “no theoretical framework for differentiating and integrating the various constructs that describe individual work performance and its link to effectiveness” (p. 327). These fragmented approaches to job performance have led Griffin *et al*. (2007) to propose their own

model of positive work role behaviours, where they integrated all these approaches into a new whole performance framework.

Griffin, *et al*.'s (2007) model identified three work role performance dimensions based on the distinction between formalised and emergent roles. These are: proficiency, the extent to which an employee achieves formalised role requirements, assessed against specified standards; adaptivity, the ability of an employee adapting to changes in work roles; and proactivity, the ability of an employee to take self-directed action to anticipate or initiate change in work roles. Adaptivity and proactivity, Griffin, *et al*. (2007) added, become more prominent when work roles cannot be formalised due to uncertainty in a work context.

Based on Griffin, *et al*.'s (2007) review of past literature on job performance and incorporating more recent literature on the subject, as well as the literature on service interaction, job performance can be classified into two domains: formalised work role and non-formalised work role. The domain of formalised work role has featured prominently in traditional job performance approaches (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell *et al*., 1993; Johnson, 2003). However, this domain has been referred to differently in different frameworks, for example, Borman and Motowidlo (1993), Chase and Stewart (1994), and Stewart (2003) referred to it simply as task performance. Campbell *et al*. (1993) saw formalised work role as: job-specific task proficiency, non-job-specific task proficiency, and written and oral communication proficiency. Johnson (2003) added the dimensions of management and administration, and supervision to Campbell *et al*.'s (1993) dimensions. Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998), on the other hand, classified formalised work role into job role behaviour and career role behaviour. While Morrison and Phelps (1999) referred to it as taking charge, Hogan and Holland (2003) as getting ahead, Griffin *et al*. (2007) as proficiency, and Grant and Parker (2009) as relationality.

Similarly, the non-formalised work role domain was differently categorised. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) used the term non-task or contextual performance, Crant (2000) also referred to contextual performance focusing on proactive role behaviour. Proactivity as a non-formalised work role also featured in Frese and Fay's (2001) conceptualisation as personal initiative; in Parker, *et al*. (2006) as proactive problem solving and idea implementation; and in Grant and Parker (2009) simply as proactivity. Alongside proactivity as a non-formalised work role, Griffin *et al*. (2007) added the term adaptivity.

Pulakos *et al*. (2000) looked at adaptivity through the dimensions of: handling emergencies or crisis situations and work stress; solving problems creatively; dealing with uncertain work situations; learning tasks, technologies and procedures; and demonstrating interpersonal, cultural and physical adaptability. Johnson (2003) saw non-formalised work role domain not only as adaptive performance, dealing with uncertain work situations, but also as conscientious initiative and citizen performance in the form of personal and organisational support (see also, Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001). Other conceptualisations of non-formalised work role domain came with yet more overlapping terms. Welbourne*, et al*. (1998) divided non-formalised work role into individual, team and organisational role behaviours. Campbell *et al*. (1993) advanced different terms for these role behaviours; they used: demonstrating effort, maintaining personal discipline, facilitating peer and team performance, supervision and leadership, and management and administration.

Podsdakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000), on the other hand, conceptualised these work role behaviours as: helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development. Hogan and Holland (2003) used the theme of getting along, and in service interactions, Chase and Stewart (1994) and Stewart (2003) coined the term treatment to describe non-formalised work role behaviour. The typologies of formalised and non-formalised work roles are displayed in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5 Job performance typologies

Author	Pre-dominantly formalised work role	Pre-dominantly non-formalised work role
Campbell *et al*. (1993)	• Job-specific task proficiency • Non-job-specific task proficiency • Written and oral communication proficiency	• Demonstrating effort • Maintaining personal discipline • Facilitating peer and team performance • Supervision and leadership • Management and administration
Borman & Motowidlo (1993)	• Task performance	• Contextual performance
Welbourne *et al*. (1998)	• Job role behaviour • Career role behaviour	• Innovator role behaviour • Team role behaviour • Organisation role behaviour
Morrison & Phelps (1999)	• Taking charge	
Podsakoff *et al*. (2000)		• Helping behaviour • Sportsmanship • Organisational loyalty • Organisational compliance • Individual initiative • Civic virtue • Self-development
Pulakos *et al*., 2000		*Adaptivity* • Handling emergencies or crisis situations • Handling work stress • Solving problems creatively • Dealing with uncertain work situations • Learning tasks, technologies, and procedures • Demonstrating interpersonal adaptability • Demonstrating cultural adaptability • Demonstrating physical adaptability
Crant, 2000		• General proactive behaviour • Context-specific proactive behaviour
Borman *et al*., 2001		Citizenship performance • Conscientious initiative • Personal support • Organisational support
Frese & Fay, 2001		Proactivity • Personal initiative
Johnson, 2003	Task performance • Job-specific task proficiency • Non-job-specific task proficiency • Written and oral communication • proficiency • Management and administration • Supervision	• Conscientious initiative Citizenship performance • Personal support • Organisational support Adaptive performance • Dealing with uncertain work Situations
Hogan & Holland (2003)	• Getting ahead	• Getting along
Stewart (2003), Chase &Stewart (1994)	• Task	• Treatment
Parker *et al*., 2006		• Proactive problem solving • Proactive idea implementation
Griffin *et al*. (2007)	• Proficiency	• Proactivity • Adaptivity
Grant & Parker (2009)	• Relationality	• Proactivity

In the service industry, Bitner *et al.* (1990) referred to non-formalised work role as unprompted and unsolicited service employee behaviours, which they found to affect customers' perceptions of service quality. These authors added that unexpected service "extras" that are not prescribed or triggered by service delivery failures are particularly important in customers' perceptions of service quality. Thus the ability of service employees to take initiative and engage in proactive behaviour is viewed as central for the success of service delivery (Frese & Fay, 2001; Parker *et al*., 2006). However, the service research literature remained largely focused on formalised work role performance behaviour with very little attention paid to employees' proactive customer service performance (see also, Borucki & Burke, 1999; Liao, 2007; Rank, Carsten, Unger, & Spector, 2007). Proactive customer service performance, according to Raub and Liao (2012), is a discretionary, self-starting, long-term oriented and forward-thinking approach to service delivery, where service employees use their initiative rather than waiting to be prompted by their supervisors, co-workers, or customers. The main concern of these approaches remains focused on improving employees' performance as individuals, members of teams, and members of organisations. These approaches did not specifically look at employees' performance as they interact with customers in the service encounter, where the focus of this study lies.

In the service industry, there has been an increased use of total quality management techniques to measure employee work performance. This is because a key factor of service business success, Hocutt, Bowers, and Donovan (2006) argued, is the effectiveness in handling customer complaints. These complaints, they added, arise from service failures, requiring the need for a recovery to move the complaining customer from a state of dissatisfaction to a state of satisfaction. As front-line employees are the ones who interact with customers, they are the first to know about a service failure (Hocutt *et al*., 2006). Tax, Brown, and Chandrashekaran (1998) called for hotel firms to instil the right working environment for employees since they are at the heart of effective service recovery efforts. In studying service failure in hotels, Masdek *et al*. (2011) found that the hotel sector actively engages in service recovery as an important effort to maintain customer goodwill, and that the quality of service recovery is often determined by the actions of front-line employees. Key recovery attributes include responsiveness and recovery initiation (Smith, Bolton, & Wagner,

1999); the latter remains a pre-occupation of total quality management academics and service industry practitioners.

In an attempt to achieve zero defects, concepts from manufacturing, such as: benchmarking (e.g., Meyer, Chase, Roth, Voss, Sperl, Menor, & Blackmon, 1999; Reisinger &Turner, 2003), diagnostic tools (e.g., Atilgan, Akinci, & Aksoy, 2003), and customer driven designs (e.g., Shoemaker & Lewis, 1999) have been used alongside service guarantees (e.g., Hogreve & Gremler, 2009), service recovery planning (e.g., Kim, Wang, & Mattila, 2010), and other concepts. Chase and Stewart (1994), however, pointed out that achieving zero defects in the day-to-day provision of services remains an immense challenge. Furthermore, Stewart (2003) noted that applying statistical process control methods used in manufacturing to services does not produce many easily measurable variables that are meaningful to the quality of service.
Using Parker *et al*.'s (2010) model of proactive motivation, Raub and Liao (2012) argued that individual proactive performance is driven by the cognitive motivational processes of the individual's perceived capability of engaging in proactive behaviours, and the individual's desire to be proactive. They thus found that general self-efficacy, which reflects an individual's perceived capability is likely to be positively related to pro-active customer service performance.

In response to the above shortcomings of the job performance technique and taking into consideration employee service pro-active behaviour, Chase and Stewart (1994) advocated the use of another Total Quality Management (TQM) technique, that of fail-safing, which has proven success in controlling manufacturing operations. They applied its principles to the job performance of front-line service employees in their service interactions with customers. They considered the TASK (formalised work performance) to be performed, the TREATMENT (proactive work performance) of the customer during the encounter, and the TANGIBLES in the environment (known as the 3Ts) as central to their approach of fail-safing the server, as they "explicitly relate fail-safing actions to specific dimensions of service" (p. 37). This, they observed, has been a short-coming of previous attempts to design services, as these attempts failed to recognise that each of the 3Ts can be addressed separately for the purpose of improving the service. Stewart (2003) called for the use of the 3Ts performance framework in service encounter design. He pointed out that the 3Ts performance framework reflects the way successful managers disaggregate the service encounter

design and management problems. He noted that although each of the 3Ts is embedded in an established body of knowledge, such knowledge is not fully articulated in the operations management literature. In this study, treatment performance, being non-formalised activity is used interchangeably with adaptive and pro-active performance.

Furthermore, using examples from airline, theme park, and hospitality case-studies; Stewart (2003) pointed to direct relationships between the 3Ts performance framework and Parasuraman *et al*.'s (1994) service quality dimensions of reliability, assurance, empathy, responsiveness, and tangibles. Stewart (2003) differentiated the 3Ts from service quality dimensions, as he considered the 3Ts as mechanisms through which managers address performance shortfalls highlighted by the assessments of service quality dimensions. He illustrated this difference by reference to the responsiveness dimension, where he argued that the latter is directly impacted by the assessment of the willingness to serve (i.e., treatment) and the actual performance (i.e., task). Tse and Ho (2009) concurred with Stewart's (2003) argument, as they found that in the hospitality industry, the most common critical incidents involve a hotel employee responding to a guest's request, performing a service task and/or providing treatment. Stewart mapped some relevant service quality literature on the 3Ts and showed how each of the 3Ts impacted the service encounter and service quality. In this thesis, Stewart's 3Ts framework is adopted as a measure of employee performance; it is discussed in the next sub-section.

2.8.1 Task, treatment, and tangibles (3Ts)

The concept of fail-safing, introduced above, is a useful concept which is used in total quality management, particularly, in manufacturing. It is commonly known as poka-yoke and was originated by Shingo (1986). This tool is employed to prevent human errors; its objective is to develop robust processes to insure that the impacts of factors outside the control of the operators are considered (Slack, Chambers, & Johnston, 2009). Chase and Stewart (1994) argued that the fail-safing tool can be profitably employed in service encounters. They called for a framework whereby the actions of the service provider, the customer and the system might be made fail-safe. Fail-safing the system is also described by Slack *et al*. (2009) as simple tools or systems incorporated in a process to minimise operator mistakes, thus preventing a defect from occurring. In manufacturing, Shingo (1986) advances two types of fail-safe devices:

“warnings” devices, signalling the existence of a problem, and “controls” devices that stop production until the problem is solved. Service operations differ from manufacturing in that: a) they must account for the service provider’s activities as well as the customers’, and b) they take place through many forms of interaction between the service provider and the customer at different locations in the service provision. These differences led Chase and Stewart (1994) to focus on applying fail-safe principles mainly to the job performance of front-line employees of service organisations, where the customer and the system interact, and where the fail-safe principles are hardly used.

These authors divided service errors into server errors and customer errors. They further classified server errors into task errors, treatment errors and tangible errors; what has become known as the ‘3Ts’. Slightly differently, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) viewed job performance constructs as task performance and contextual performance, which, as seen above, Hogan and Holland (2003) conceptualised as getting ahead and getting along.

Chase and Stewart (1994) argued that the 3Ts classification is central to the understanding of the server fail-safing because it connects fail-safing actions with specific service dimensions. They thus assigned specific items to each of the 3Ts categories.

Task errors, Chase and Stewart (1994) posited, are those concerned with the service functions; their aspects include: incorrect work, not requested work, work in the wrong order, and working too slowly. Hogan and Holland (2003) additionally saw task performance as: taking initiative, seeking responsibility, competing, and seeking recognition.

Treatment errors, Chase and Stewart (1994) suggested, are found in the interactions between the service employee and the customer; their aspects include: lack of courtesy, unprofessional behaviour, not acknowledging the customer, failing to listen to the customer, failing to react appropriately to the customer, and negative nonverbal cues. According to Hogan and Holland (2003), contextualised performance requires people to cooperate and seem to be compliant, friendly, and positive. For daily service situations, Chase and Stewart (1994) added, that behavioural standards and reward systems may be used to specify actions that produce good treatment. Tangible errors, Chase and Stewart (1994) pointed out, are about the physical aspects of the service, for example; unclean rooms, incorrect bills, unclear bills, unclean uniforms, noise,

odours, light, temperature, and incorrect document content and presentation. As can be seen, these tangible aspects of service performance are context specific; as such it can be argued that they are embedded in the contextual performance construct of both Borman and Motowidlo (1993) and Hogan and Holland (2003).
Stewart (2003) found the '3Ts' performance framework useful in that: a) it clearly separates the physical (tangible), process (task), and interpersonal (treatment) aspects of service operations and design; b) each of the '3Ts' categories is supported by an extensive body of knowledge; and c) it reflects how in practice managers separate the encounter design from management issues.

In this work, the concern was not with designing fail-safe systems; rather it was with using the employee 3Ts performance framework of task, treatment, and tangibles in an attempt to investigate the effect of the cultural intelligence of front-line service employees on foreign customers' perceptions of service quality in their service encounters. Stewart's (2003) 3Ts performance framework is favoured over Hogan and Holland's (2003) task and contextual constructs because the latter is developed for group work, while the former is designed for the service encounter between the individual service employee and the customer. In addition, the task, treatment, and tangibles dimensions of the employee 3Ts performance are used in this thesis because they are seen by Chase and Stewart (1994) as critical aspects of service that need to be managed in order to provide high quality service.
The categories of task and treatment will be elaborated in greater detail than the tangibles category. This is because the main concern of this study is with the interactions between the service provider's front-line employees and their customers; it is the encounters between these two parties that, according to Bitner, Booms, &Mohr (1994), Ekinci and Dawes (2009), and Stewart (2003), is at the heart of the problem of service quality perception. In what follows, a discussion of the task, treatment and tangibles dimensions of the '3Ts' performance will be offered.

Task

According to Stewart (2003), task is the techniques or technology; the processes, procedures, scripts and decision-making activities that transform input to the service into desired output, and is mainly intangible rather than physical. It has a temporal characteristic where there is a start and a finish. For example, the tasks of doing work: correctly, as requested, in the right order, promptly (Chase & Stewart, 1994), working

with energy, exhibiting efforts, valuing productivity, and showing concern for quality (Hogan & Holland, 2003). Stewart stated that evaluation of the task is rather subjective in nature, involving observation of closure of the gap between the beginning and the end, which requires time-based measurement. The task, Stewart (2003) observed, is designed to address and solve the service encounter, and may involve some input from the customer; such an input is visible in front-line activities rather than the back-line activities.

Treatment

Treatment is about relationship between the service employee and the customer during the service encounter, which may be seen in things like exhibiting courteous and professional behaviour, acknowledging and listening to the customer, reacting appropriately to the customer (Chase & Stewart, 1994); and demonstrating interpersonal skills, working with others, showing positive attitude, and sharing credit (Hogan & Holland, 2003). Treatment is thus concerned with service attitude, empathy, assurance, and trust, among others, to describe the service encounter; it is how the customer perceives and assesses the intentions and actions of the service employee in the encounter (Stewart, 2003). Stewart added that this social interaction is an important part of the customer's perception of the service. Tooby and Cosmides (1992) argued that human beings have developed dedicated capabilities of interaction, that these capabilities are applied unconsciously and without awareness or underlying logic to process information intelligently. Brothers (1997) identified a group of such specialised capabilities devoted to navigating social and cultural milieus; these capabilities enable the individual to interpret, for instance: facial expression, verbal intonation and other sub-consciously recognised and evaluated cues. These capabilities, according to Stewart (2003), influence our perceptions of a particular social interaction, such as, service encounter. Drawing on examples of treatment from a hotel chain, Chase and Stewart (1994) noted that guests' repeat business is acknowledged by the receptionist greeting them with a warm "welcome back". Stewart (2003) suggested that evaluating treatment is subjective, based on the individual's belief of what is appropriate for the encounter. As such, its assessment requires perceptual measures; moreover treatment is highly reactive to the particular customer. Paying attention to treatment, Stewart (2003) added, is important in services where there are cultural differences between service employees and customers, where services are highly emotionally charged and stressful, and where there is high employee turnover. These characteristics are

commonly found in the hospitality industry (Seymour, 2000; Tsang, 2007; Warhurst & Nickson, 2007), the context within which the research for this thesis was undertaken.

Tangibles

In a service context, tangibles are concerned with the physical realm, facilities and artefacts that mediate the service encounter (Stewart, 2003), which Bitner (1992) referred to as servicescape. In the hospitality service, tangibles, Chase and Stewart (1994) indicated, can be things, such as; dirty waiting rooms, incorrect bills, unclean facilities and uniforms, bad odours, loud noise, high temperature, and intense light. Bitner (1990) added other tangibles to this list, including: textures, colours, and comfort of furnishings, which she suggested may influence perceived performance in the service encounter. Stewart (2003) stated that because tangibles are physical aspects of the service, their evaluation criteria are normally objective and the measurement of performance is relatively simple. He further pointed out that as tangibles are generally available before the service encounter and last beyond it, the planning period for them is long; this allows the associated work to be performed in low contact areas of the service. The management of tangibles, Stewart added, necessitates understanding their impacts on the behaviour and perception of the customers.

The 3Ts Interrelationships

Stewart (2003) further argued that task, treatment and tangibles are complementary and mutually supporting parts of the service experience; acting as a framework where each part offsets the weakness of the other parts. In mapping the 3Ts on the service quality literature, Stewart found examples demonstrating these mutual support relationships. He pointed out that treatment can be made more robust by focusing on how task and tangibles can be used to support the treatment. Good treatment, he emphasised, is particularly important in services with high employee turnover, where cultural differences exist between service employees and customers, and where the service situation is emotionally charged or stressful. Bitner's (1992) notion of servicescapes shows how tangibles can be designed and used to elicit task-supporting behaviour from the customer and prompt favourable service interactions, supporting the treatment. Thinking of task, treatment and tangibles as a mutually supporting framework, Stewart posited, is useful in explaining why attention is focused on culture in services that have little or no task commonality. In these services, culture based quality improvement, he pointed out, is more than likely to offset shortfalls in the task,

as the latter cannot be undertaken with the same precision of other more consistent services. He, similarly, argued that improving treatment through service culture can make up for the shortcomings of the tangible aspects of the service. In what follows, and drawing mainly on Stewart's (2003) examples from the literature, these mutually supporting relationships will be briefly demonstrated.

Enhancing treatment through task and tangibles

Four decades ago; citing examples from a hotel service, Hostage (1975) showed how a task, such as; checking a guest's luggage tags can be used by the service employee to support treatment by, for example, starting a conversation relevant to the guest's hometown. Tansik and Smith (1991) demonstrated how, through the scripting of employees' behaviour, task can support treatment; Victorino and Bolinger (2012) also found that task scripting may support treatment efforts. Stewart (2003) gave examples to show how task oriented fail-safing can be used to influence treatment; and Hart, Heskett and Sasser (1990), Sinha (1993), and Zemke (1993) showed how service recovery tasks may be instituted to offset poor treatment. Moreover, Schlesinger and Heskett (1991) highlighted the opposite effect; they viewed the deskilling of tasks as an example to show how it can result in lower skilled, less well paid, and less motivated staff, and consequently poor treatment.

Tangibles may also support treatment as they set expectations for, and influence perceptions of treatment; they can help service employees to treat customers well (Stewart, 2003). Tangibles-supported treatment is highlighted by Kingman-Brundage's (1991) study of Disney theme parks. Chase and Stewart (1994) also suggested that physically oriented fail-safing can be used to ensure good treatment. Stewart (2003) again offered examples to show how tangibles are used to support treatment directly and indirectly (see also, Hallowell & Heskett, 1993; O'Rielly & Pfeffer, 1995). Furthermore, Bitner's (1992) work on servicescapes also provides ample scope to demonstrate how tangibles can influence treatment.

Enhancing task through tangibles and treatment

Task, Stewart (2003) elaborated, can also be made more robust through the influence of treatment and tangibles, particularly in highly customised, complex, and interactive services.

Tangibles, he suggested, can help decrease task failures. He drew on early examples from Lovelock (1975) to show how equipment can be used to support the required task,

and on O'Rielly and Pfeffer's (1995) case studies from hospitality and airline businesses to explain how the tangibles of the service can be used to elicit desirable scripts from the customers. Improving the visibility of important cues to help reduce human errors, Stewart (2003) argued, is another way in which tangibles can be used to support the task; it is also the basis underlying most fail-safing techniques (Chase & Stewart, 1994). Standardising equipment and layout to allow task consistency, Stewart (2003) noted, is another way of how tangibles can help the task.

Task can also be made more robust through treatment support, as better treatment is shown to promote better task performance; it encourages customers, driven by their satisfaction with the treatment (Bettencourt, 1997) to engage in their own service recovery activities (Youngdahl & Kellogg, 1997). Stewart (2003) observed in an airline case-study that treatment, rather than tangibles, is used to support boarding tasks.

Enhancing tangibles through task and treatment

Tangibles, Stewart (2003) argued, may also be made more robust if supported by task and treatment. Giving an example from the hospitality service industry, he showed that task can even take the place of tangibles. Identifying a restaurant head-waiter, he pointed out, does not necessarily require wearing a dinner jacket, the head-waiter may simply stand in the correct location with the correct mannerisms to be identified by the customers. Citing Hallowell and Heskett (1993), and again drawing on examples from airline and Disney theme park case studies, Stewart (2003) demonstrated how tangibles are enhanced by task and treatment. Hart *et al*. (1990), Sinha (1993), and Zemke (1993) found service recovery activities the most prevalent forms of tasks that are used to support tangibles; and Chase and Stewart (1994) suggested using fail-safing techniques to support important tangibles aspects of the service.

Shortfalls in tangibles, Stewart holds, can also be alleviated through treatment; he offered an airline example, where cabin staff spice up the delivery of their peanuts-only meal service with "good attitudes, wisecracks, and aggrandisement" (p. 262). He also cited the very basic accommodation which one hotel chain offers, and which guests accept because of the fun and excellent treatment offered by the hotel staff.

Although Stewart (2003) found interlocking supporting relationships between task, treatment and tangibles; he, nevertheless, did not develop the employee '3Ts' performance framework into a performance measuring scale. Moreover, no applications of the 3Ts performance were found in the cross-cultural service

encounters literature or anywhere else, except in one public transport study, where Utley, Hensley, and Dobie (2011) used a questionnaire to investigate the perceptions of 73 bus drivers of service safety. They collapsed nine safety-related attributes into task, treatment and tangibles, and found strong correlation between task and treatment (r = .878, p < .0001).

In this section, using work role, the literature on job performance was discussed citing studies and approaches from the manufacturing and service industries. Work roles were classified as: a) formalised task performance, and b) non-formalised, contextual performance. In these approaches, work roles were focused on measuring employees' performance as individuals, members of teams and members of organisations. A service encounter employee 3Ts performance framework which looks at employees' interactions with customers was also introduced and discussed at length. This framework will henceforth be referred to as 'employee performance'.
The purpose of this thesis is not to discuss employee job performance in their work roles as individuals, members of teams and organisations; rather its purpose is to look at the performance of employees in the service encounter with customers. As such, it adopts the service encounter employee performance framework.
In the next section of the literature review (section 2.9), the relationships between cultural intelligence, employee job performance and service quality will be investigated.

2.9 Deducing and developing relationships

In this section, first, the relationship between cultural intelligence and employee performance will be discussed (sub-section 2.9.1). Second, the relationship between employee performance and service quality will be explored (sub-section 2.9.2). Third, these two relationships will be used to develop a theoretical model of relationships indirectly linking cultural intelligence and service quality through the mediation of employee performance (sub-section 2.9.3).

2.9.1 Linking cultural intelligence to employee performance

In a study of cross-cultural samples of students and managers, Ang *et al*. (2007) argued that the meta-cognitive cultural intelligence of individuals allows them to evaluate and revise their mental maps as a result of their interactions in a cultural context (see also, Watkins & Gnoth, 2011). They suggested that individuals with high meta-cognitive cultural intelligence understand when and how to use their cultural

knowledge; these individuals choose from a number of context specific knowledge structures rather than depend on habitual ones. Defining cultural judgment and decision-making (CJDM) as information processes designed for making decisions regarding a different culture, Ang *et al*. (2007) found that meta-cognitive cultural intelligence is positively related to CJDM effectiveness. Triandis (2006) posited that incorporating unique individual characteristics enables individuals with high meta-cognitive intelligence to understand people from different cultures and make better cultural decisions which enhance their task performance. Ang *et al*. (2007) thus found that in an expatriate multi-cultural environment, meta-cognitive cultural intelligence positively affects task performance ($\beta = 0.30$, $p < 0.05$); however, this relationship has not been investigated in cross-cultural service interactions.

Ang *et al*. (2007) also established that cognitive cultural intelligence is positively related to CJDM effectiveness; that individuals with high cognitive cultural intelligence have complex cultural schemas or mental representations of social interactions with particular cultural groups. They argued that CJDM tasks require calculated reasoning, evaluation of evidence and comparison between alternatives. Earley and Ang (2003) saw cognitive cultural intelligence as critical in dealing with the process by which information is encoded, stored, retrieved and used by the brain in performing cognitive tasks. This, Ang *et al*. (2007) argued is because knowledge about cultural differences is central to decision-making and to the design and execution of tasks in cross-cultural settings. Although this argument points to a positive link between cognitive ability and task performance, such a link was not found to be statistically significant. Furthermore, this relationship has not been explored in a cross-cultural service interaction context, where, based on the above literature, cognitive cultural intelligence is likely to affect task performance.

Stone-Romero, Stone, and Salas (2003) found that individuals with high motivation had higher task performance than others because they spent energy learning role expectations, particularly, when the cues from the sender were unclear due to cultural differences. Ang *et al.* (2007) argued that individuals, who possess energy and persistence, adopt new behaviours and, through practice, enhance their performance. In the hospitality industry, Raub and Liao (2012) drew on Parker *et al*.'s (2010) model of proactive motivation to suggest that front-line service employees' engagement in proactive customer service performance is driven by cognitive motivational processes.

Raub and Liao (2012) thus suggested that self-efficacy positively affects proactive customer service performance. Similarly, Tsang (2007) placed much importance on employees' self-efficacy and adaptability; he viewed self-efficacy as employees' beliefs in their ability to perform job related tasks. He further added that as employees exert more effort to cope with task related problems, their self-efficacy increases; that when customers are served by front-line service employees who are motivated and believe in their own abilities they are more likely to be satisfied with the quality of service and treatment. This requires service employees to be adaptable and have the ability to change their behaviour to suit the interactive demands of the cross-cultural encounter (Ang *et al*., 2007; Hartline & Ferell, 1996). In a multi-cultural expatriate setting, Ang *et al*. (2007) proposed a relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance; however, they found that this relationship was not statistically significant. Chen *et al*. (2010), on the other hand, conducted a study on a sample of 556 expatriates; they found that through the mediation of their work adjustment, motivational cultural intelligence positively predicted expatriates' job performance. In study of 305 agents from 26 real estate firms focusing on sales performance, Chen, Liu, and Portnoy (2012) demonstrated that individuals' motivational cultural intelligence positively affected their sales to clients from different cultures. Furthermore, in another study on adaptive performance, Oolders, Chernysherdco and Stark (2008) showed that cultural intelligence mediated the relationship between openness and adaptive performance. It should be noted again that all these studies were not conducted in a cross-cultural service interaction environment. Nevertheless, other cited literature (e.g., Tsang, 2007) indicated that in cross-cultural service interactions, front-line service employees require high motivation to respond to the needs of customers. This included performing the assigned tasks and adapting to people from a different culture and offering them appropriate treatment performance.

Behavioural cultural intelligence refers to the behaviour of individuals engaging in interactions with people from a different culture, and their ability to adapt, persevere and possess the needed responses (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004); this is demonstrated through their task and adaptive performance. Most behavioural studies also tend to examine individuals' actions rather than their mental processes (e.g., James, 2007). Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, and Ferzandi (2006) found cross-cultural performance to be positively affected by behavioural flexibility. Similarly, Ang *et al*. (2007) argued that individuals with high behavioural cultural intelligence adapt their

verbal and non-verbal behaviours to meet the expectations of people from different cultures. In a cross-cultural service environment this points to a direct relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment performance. Campbell (1999) observed that task performance is a function of knowledge, skills, abilities, and motivation focused at role-defined behaviour. In a multi-cultural expatriate environment, Ang *et al*. (2007) established a positive relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and task performance. It may, therefore, be proposed that in cross-cultural service interactions, service employees' behaviour is likely to be directly positively related to their task execution and treatment performance.

The literature thus showed that, in a multi-cultural expatriate environment, metacognitive, motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence were likely to be related to task performance (e.g., Ang *et al*., 2004; Ang *et al*., 2007; Shaffer *et al*., 2006; Chen *et al*., 2012; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Ghen, Kirkman, Kim, & Tangirala, 2010; Oolders *et al*., 2008; Tsang, 2007). It may, therefore, be proposed that in cross-cultural service environments, these cultural intelligence dimensions may also positively affect employee task performance, leading to the following set of hypotheses:

> Hypothesis set H1: Meta-cognitive (H1a), motivational (H1c), and behavioural (H1d) dimensions of cultural intelligence, are directly positively related to task performance.

Furthermore, although the literature did not establish a relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and employee task performance; it nevertheless pointed to such a relationship. Accordingly, the following additional hypothesis within hypothesis set H1 may be proposed.

> Hypothesis H1b: Cognitive cultural intelligence is directly positively related to task performance.

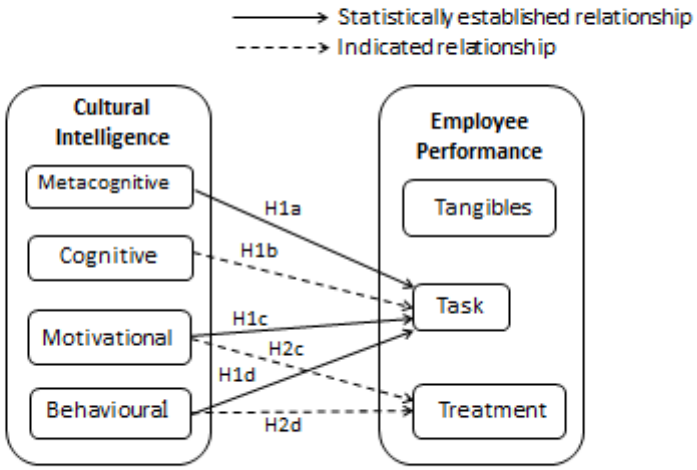
Moreover, the literature suggests that treatment performance takes place in the contact between front-line service employees and customers where treatment errors can occur (Chase & Stewart, 1994; Stewart, 2003). Research in the service industries (Hartline & Ferell, 1996) and, particularly, in the hospitality service industry (Tsang & Ap, 2007; Raub & Liao, 2012; Tsang, 2007) highlighted the importance of employees' adaptability, that is; their ability to change their behaviour to suit the interpersonal requirements of the service encounter. Thus in a dynamic and complex multi-cultural

environment, the literature pointed to, but did not adequately examine or establish, a positive relationship between motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence, on the one hand, and treatment performance, on the other. Accordingly, it can be proposed, that in cross-cultural service environments employee behavioural and motivational cultural intelligence are likely to be positively related to their treatment performance, hence hypotheses set 2.

> Hypothesis set H2: Motivational (H2c) and behavioural (H2d) dimensions of cultural intelligence are directly positively related to treatment performance.

These two sets of proposed hypotheses are schematically shown in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6 Linking cultural intelligence to employee performance



Also, because of the mutually interlocking relationships within the employee performance framework, as pointed out above in section 2.8, the dimension of tangibles performance may have indirect positive relationships with all the cultural intelligence dimensions. These relationships are represented in hypothesis set H3 below. Moreover, the 3Ts' interlocking relationships may give rise to other indirect links between the cultural intelligence dimensions and employee performance dimensions.

> Hypothesis set H3: Meta-cognitive (H3a), cognitive (H3b), motivational (H3c), and behavioural (H3d) dimensions of cultural intelligence, are indirectly positively related to tangibles.

2.9.2 Linking employee performance to service quality

Hartline and Jones (1996) investigated employee performance within a hotel service environment; they found that employee performance cues play an important role in the service encounter as they serve as signs of quality and value to consumers. They singled out, as particularly important, the performance of front-line employees as they create and deliver service quality. As such, they found that front desk, housekeeping, and parking employees' performance to have significant effects on perceived service quality.

Similarly, in a study in a hotel establishment, Gould-Williams (1999) found that performance cues were used by guests when interacting with employees during the service encounter, and that these cues impacted guest perception of service quality, and of value and guest loyalty. He suggested that key performance cues need to be identified in order to optimise guest perception of service quality as well as increasing guest loyalty to the hotel.

Studying the determinants of customer perception of restaurant service quality, Wall and Berry (2009) viewed dining in a restaurant as a multi-layered experience where customers' perception of service quality is influenced not only by food quality, but also by clues customers gather from the ambience of the place and employee service performance. They found that while customers' perceptions of ambience clues were positively related to their expectations of the service, clues from service performance dominated the influence of the ambience clues. Thus, they argued that, while ambience clues may initially influence customers' expectations, performance clues play a prominent role in delivering these expectations through the service provider's performance.

Studies in a multi-national hotel chain conducted by Liao and Chuang (2004); Liao, Toya, Lepak, and Hong (2009); and Raub and Liao (2012) have also shown that the service performance of front-line employees directly affects customer perception of service quality. Other past and recent studies in the service industries provide ample evidence which shows that employee performance and behaviour during the service encounter contributed to customers' perceptions of service quality (e.g., Berry & Bendapudi, 2003; Bitner, 1990; Bitner, Booms, & Mohr, 1994; Bitner *et al*., 1990; Parasuraman, *et al*. 1985; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993).

Although the literature which showed the influence of employee service performance on service quality predominantly focused on formalised task performance,

nevertheless, as seen above, other studies looking at non-formalised proactive performance began to emerge. For example, Raub and Liao (2012); Liao and Chuang (2004); and Liao *et al*. (2009) found that proactivity, in the form of unprompted and unsolicited service employee behaviours is very important for customers' perceptions of service quality (see also, Bitner *et al*., 1990). Frese and Fay (2001) also observed that the ability of front-line service employees to engage in proactive behaviour (Parker *et al*., 2006), taking initiative, is critical for successful service delivery.

Furthermore, based on qualitative studies in the airline and hotels industries, and referring to Zeithaml *et al*.'s (1990) definition of service quality, Stewart (2003) argued that as the reliability dimension of service quality is concerned with the ability to perform the service dependably and accurately, it is directly related to task performance. Also the reliability terms; 'dependably' and 'accurately', he continued, suggest that reliability is likely to be related to employee treatment performance. Stewart (2003) further referred to Zeithaml *et al*.'s (1990) definition of responsiveness and explained that as responsiveness is willingness to help, it has a direct relationship to employee task performance; and as responsiveness is also about providing prompt service it is directly related to treatment performance. Again basing his argument on Zeithaml *et al*.'s (1990) definition of assurance which encompasses courtesy and ability to convey trust and confidence, Stewart (2003) further argued that the assurance dimension of service quality is directly related to treatment performance. Similarly, the dimension of empathy defined by Zeithaml *et al*. (1990) as caring and providing personal attention to customers, was seen by Stewart as directly related to treatment performance.

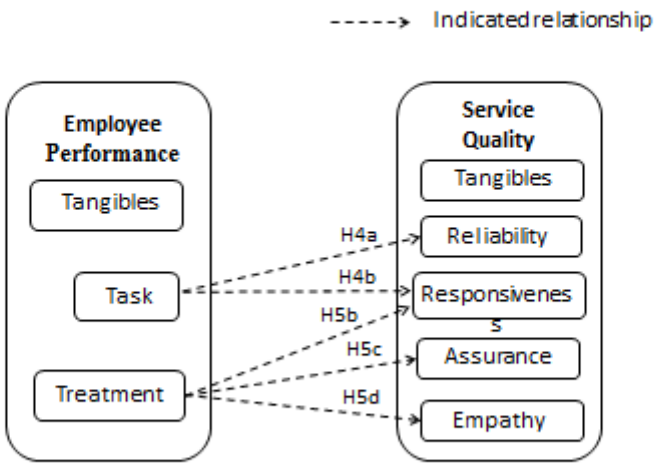
Based on the above argument derived from a qualitative study in the airline and hospitality industries, Stewart (2003) developed but did not provide statistical evidence, that employee task performance and treatment performance were directly related to Zeithaml *et al*.'s (1990) service quality dimensions of: reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy and tangibles. He argued that reliability primarily results from task performance; assurance and empathy mainly from treatment endeavours; and tangibles from tangibles. He further added that responsiveness is driven by both treatment efforts and task performance. These relationships are hypothesised as follows and shown in Figure 2.7.

Hypothesis set H4: Task performance is directly positively related to reliability (H4a) and responsiveness (H4b).

Hypothesis set H5: Treatment performance is directly positively related to responsiveness (H5b), assurance (H5c), and empathy (H5d).

It should also be remembered that the dimensions of task performance, treatment performance, and tangibles performance are used in this study because they are seen as critical aspects of service that need to be managed in order to provide an enhanced service quality (see Chase & Stewart, 1994; Stewart, 2003). In sub-section 2.8.1, it was proposed that the dimensions of task, treatment, and tangibles are tied up in a framework of mutually interlocking relationships (Stewart, 2003). The nature of these relationships suggests that in addition to the direct effects which they are likely to have on service quality dimensions, as proposed in hypothesis sets H4 and H5 above, each may also exert indirect influences on other service quality dimensions where no direct influences were inferred.

Figure 2.7 Linking employee performance to service quality



2.9.3 Linking cultural intelligence to service quality through employee performance

It was proposed, in section 2.9.1, that task performance is likely to have positive direct relationships with the meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural dimensions of cultural intelligence (hypothesis set H1). It has also been argued, in

section 2.9.2, that task performance is likely to have direct positive relationships with the reliability and responsiveness dimensions of service quality (hypothesis set H4). Through these direct relationships, one can propose that indirect positive relationships may exist between all the four cultural intelligence dimensions, on the one hand, and the service quality reliability and responsiveness dimensions, on the other, through the mediation of task performance. These indirect relationships give rise to the following sets of hypotheses.

> Hypothesis set H6: meta-cognitive cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H6a) and responsiveness (H6b) by task performance.
>
> Hypothesis set H7: cognitive cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H7a) and responsiveness (H7b) by task performance.
>
> Hypothesis set H8: motivational cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H8a) and responsiveness (H8b) by task performance.
>
> Hypothesis set H9: behavioural cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H9a) and responsiveness (H9b) by task performance.

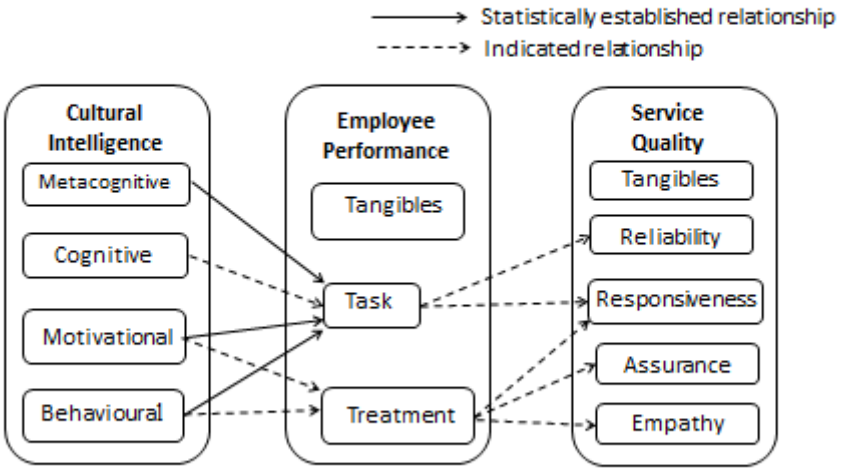
It was also argued that treatment performance is likely to be positively directly related to the motivational and behavioural dimensions of cultural intelligence (hypothesis set H2). It was further shown that treatment performance is likely to have positive direct relationship to the responsiveness, assurance and empathy dimensions of service quality (hypothesis set H5). Through these direct relationships, it can be proposed that indirect relationships are likely to exist between the motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence dimensions, on the one hand, and the responsiveness, assurance and empathy dimensions of service quality, on the other, through treatment performance. These indirect relationships are represented in the following sets of hypotheses.

> Hypothesis set H10: motivational cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to responsiveness (H10b), assurance (H10c), and empathy (H10d) by treatment performance.

Hypothesis set H11: behavioural cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to responsiveness (H11b), assurance (H11c), and empathy (H11d) by treatment performance.

The full theoretical model of hypotheses is shown in figure 2.8.

Figure 2.8 A theoretical model linking cultural intelligence to service quality via employee performance



2.10 Conclusion: The research problem

In this chapter, an interpretive, multi-disciplinary reading of the literature on cross-cultural and service interactions was undertaken, focusing on the hospitality industry. The purpose of this reading was to understand the dynamics of this interaction and examine whether the cultural intelligence of front-line service employees affects the service quality they offer their foreign guests. In this effort, an argument was presented which showed that service culture shapes the attitudes and behaviours of front-line service employees and affects customer perception of service quality. In a service environment, this argument led to the examination of the interplay between the personal characteristics of service employees, especially, their personality, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, and job performance, as well as customer perception of service quality. A further argument was then developed which showed that in service interactions, intelligence is more relevant than personality, and in cross-cultural service interactions, cultural intelligence is more relevant than emotional intelligence. Subsequently, an analysis of the literature on cultural intelligence was undertaken to

help identify the cultural intelligence version to use and its dimensions. As the relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality has not been previously studied, an indirect relationship was developed by the use of a mediating construct. Based on numerous studies (e.g., Berry & Bendapudi, 2003; Bitner, 1990, 1992; Bitner *et al*., 1990; Bitner *et al*., 1994; Stewart, 2003; Zeithaml *et al*., 1993; Parasuraman *et al*., 1985) which show that employees' performance affect service quality, the notion of job performance in the form of employee 3Ts performance framework (Chase & Stewart, 1994) was proposed as a mediator. This was undertaken by problematising the relationship between cultural intelligence and employee performance, on the one hand, and between employee performance and service quality, on the other hand. Thus, through the mediation of employee performance framework, a theoretical model was developed hypothesising indirect relationships between cultural intelligence of service employees and customers' perceptions of service quality; this model is shown in Figure 2.8. This theoretical model required empirical investigation in a cross-cultural hospitality service setting. First, the model's proposed relationships were explored in a qualitative study in hospitality setting looking into service interactions between front-line employees and foreign guests; the aim was to gain further insights into the relationships between cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality. Second, these relationships were tested through a quantitative study in the same hospitality service setting. These endeavours formed the research problem for this thesis.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a brief note on the philosophy of research will first be given. A discussion of philosophical issues associated with research (section 3.2) will then be undertaken, where an overview is given regarding the nature of reality and the ways of obtaining knowledge about this reality. In sub-section 3.2.1, the role of the researcher in the process of research will be looked at. This is followed by exploring different research approaches that are relevant to her study, where she enters into a discussion about positivism in subsection 3.2.2, interpretivisim in subsection 3.2.3, and realism/pragmatism in sub-section 3.2.4. She explains and gives the rationale to why she opted for a pragmatic two-stage mixed method approach. The staged research methodology adopted in this thesis is explored in section 3.3.

In stage 1 exploratory qualitative research (sub-section 3.3.1), the coding of interview data for themes (sub-section 3.3.1.1) and the credibility and dependability of the research inquiry (sub-section 3.3.1.2) are discussed.

In stage 2 explanatory quantitative research (sub-section 3.3.2), the researcher discusses the technique of factor analysis (sub-section 3.3.2.1) and shows how the measure scales were developed using this technique (sub-section 3.3.2.2) This is followed by a brief exposition of the sampling procedure (sub-section 3.3.2.3) and issues of validity and reliability associated with the development of the scales (sub-section 3.3.2.4). Multiple regression analysis, using SPSS 22 statistical techniques for testing the direct and indirect hypotheses of the proposed model of relationships, is explained in sub-section 3.3.2.5.

Ethical issues concerning this research are dealt with in section 3.4; and a conclusion to this chapter, is given in section 2.5.

3.2 Being and knowledge

Researchers always take a philosophical stance in undertaking their research; nevertheless, any philosophical stance a researcher adopts can be immediately challenged. This, Flowers (2009) indicated, is because the philosophical stance undertaken in obtaining knowledge rests on a number of assumptions regarding the nature of truth, the extent to which the representation of this truth can be neutral, and

whether the social reality the researcher is investigating can be said to have independent existence. He, therefore, emphasised the necessity to consider different research paradigms and issues of ontology and epistemology, as these issues describe the perceptions, beliefs, assumptions, and the nature of reality and truth. Understanding the ontological and epistemological stances, James and Vinnicombe (2002) and Blaikie (2000) added, allows the researcher to adopt approaches compatible with the aims and nature of the inquiry and to reveal and minimise the researcher's prejudices. According to Blaikie (1993), these issues are highly relevant to research in the social sciences, as compared to the natural sciences, because of the complexity introduced by the human characteristic of free will. Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) posited that different paradigms encourage researchers to study phenomena from different philosophical perspectives. Nevertheless, Denzin and Lincoln (2003), and Kvale (1996) pointed out that these different philosophical positions can give rise to tension amongst academics.

Ontology is a philosophical term concerned with the study of the nature of being and its relations. It deals with what entities exist and how they can be grouped, related and sub-divided into categories along similar and different characteristics (Gill & Johnson, 2010). These authors viewed ontology as analytic philosophy which can aid in determining whether a particular classification of being is fundamental, and to what extent the items in that classification can be said to exist. Ontology is defined by Blaikie (1993) as the science or study of being; the nature of reality, and whether this reality is an objective one that really exists, or a subjective one created in the mind (see also, Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). In this respect, Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) highlighted the complexity which studying phenomena such as culture or power can introduce, and whether such phenomena really exist or are they merely an illusion. They thus enlarged the discussion about how reality is determined; does it exist through people's experience of it, or does it exist independently; the former belongs to the realm of subjectivism and the latter to the realm of objectivism. For positivist writers, there is only one true reality which can be captured, identified, quantified and measured; such a view of reality has come to be known as naive realism (Ponterotto, 2005). In contrast, interpretivist, constructionist writers hold the view that there are multiple realities which are constructed subjectively, influenced by the individual's experience and the social context surrounding these realities (Ponterotto, 2002).

Allied with the concept of ontology and its concern of what constitutes reality is the notion of epistemology; the ways of inquiring into the nature of reality (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008), and what is knowledge, its sources, and the limits of this knowledge (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Similarly, Blaikie (1993) viewed epistemology as a theory of the method of knowledge, and expanded this definition to include a set of claims and assumptions about ways and criteria for obtaining knowledge of reality. Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) emphasised the need for criteria to discriminate good knowledge from bad knowledge, and highlighted the inter-dependent relationship between epistemology and ontology; how they inform each other. Important in this link are the issues of objectivity and subjectivity. One can argue that as the ontological view of reality can be either objective or subjective, so can the epistemological view - the way of obtaining knowledge about reality. In this regard, the need to understand the position of the researcher becomes rather obvious; a certain ontological position or assumption held by a researcher consequently influences the epistemological choices which the researcher has to make (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). An objective epistemology, according to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008), points to the existence of a world that is external and theory neutral; and subjective epistemology presumes that no access to external world can exist outside our own observations and interpretations. Consequently, Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2007) pointed out that some researchers contend that data collected from social phenomena that exist independently from the researcher is less bias and more objective. Such data, they argued, can only be authoritative if it is presented in a statistical form. This contention is challenged by Blaikie (1993) and others who viewed social research as involving a number of choices where the researcher's values and preferences influence the research process, making it difficult to achieve objectivity. Epistemologically, the positivist position is one of dualism, where the researcher, the research participant, and the research topic are assumed to be independent of each other; and of objectivism where, through rigorous procedures, the research participant and the research topic can be examined by the researcher without bias or prejudice (Ponterotto, 2005). The interpretivist, constructionist epistemological view is a subjective one which stresses that reality is socially constructed and that the interaction between the researcher and the participant is necessary to capture and describe the lived experience of the participant (Ponterotto, 2002, 2005).

The significance of the ontological and the related epistemological position lies in the fact that they give rise to what Blaikie (2000), and Saunders *et al*. (2007) described as the research paradigm or research philosophy, and to different research approaches. A research paradigm, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2003), and Lincoln and Guba, (2000) is an interpretive framework, a basic set of beliefs that guides action. Two such opposing paradigms which guide social science research, as alluded to above, are positivism and interpretivism. These two paradigms and the pragmatic approach are discussed next, followed by the role of the researcher which is seen to have ontological and epistemological consequences in relation to the phenomenon studied.

3.2.1 Positivism

Positivism embraces natural science ways of conducting research. It is a traditional scientific research approach underpinned by what is known as positivist philosophy. It has been dominating research in the social science, and has come to be known as the received view (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As such many researchers think of positivism as a common-sense way of doing research (Hughes, Blaxter, & Tight, 2006). Smith (1998) posited that positivists believe that objects can be studied as hard facts, where the relationship between these facts is established as universal laws. For positivists, he argued, such laws assume the status of truth, allowing social objects to be studied in a similar way to natural objects. The positivist philosophical position adheres to the hypothetico-deductive method; it is characterised by testing of hypotheses developed from existing theory through the measurement of observable social realities (Guba & Lincoln 1994; Cacioppo, Semin & Berntson, 2004; McGrath & Johnson, 2003). Portrayed as a scientific method, positivism entails systematic observation and description of phenomena, hypothesised within a model or theory, using experiment and inferential statistics to test the hypotheses, and interpret the statistical results in view of the original theory (Cacioppo *et al*., 2004). Thus positivism, by relying on the hypothetico-deductive method, is concerned with verifying a-priori hypotheses stated quantitatively to express functional relationships (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; McGrath & Johnson, 2003). Ponterotto (2005) stated that, the primary goal of positivistic inquiry is to arrive at an explanation (erklaren) which leads to prediction and control. Positivists assume that the social world has an objective and external existence, that knowledge can only be valid if it is derived from observations of this external reality, and that universal, generalisable laws can be developed to explain cause and effect relationships and predict outcomes (Hollnshead, 2004; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Thus,

these authors and others suggested that the existence of universal laws which are derived from observed causal relationships leaves little room for human choice; pointing to the deterministic nature of positivism.

Blaikie (1993), and Easterby-Smith *et al*. (2008) pointed out that positivism rests on reason, truth, and validity; it focuses on facts collected by direct observation and experience (see also; Saunders *et al*., 2007; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). Lincoln and Guba (1985) summarised the basic assumptions which underpin positivism, these are: a) the social sciences share the same goals with the natural sciences, both are concerned with the discovery of explanatory and predictive laws; b) both sciences use the same hypothetico-deductive method; c) concepts are empirically defined; d) a true and identifiable reality exists; e) natural laws are derived from data; and f) idiosyncrasies in data are minimised through large samples to reveal general laws. The positivist assumptions require that the researcher adopts a research method derived from a single reality ontological perspective, an objective epistemology, and an external axiological researcher's role in relation to the phenomena studied (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Attempting to emulate methods of the natural science, controlling and manipulating variables and detaching researchers from their values, expectations and emotions, are the declared assumptions of positivists (Ponterotto, 2005).

Quantitative research usually requires large scale data obtained from a representative sample, which is then projected as fact gathering (Hughes *et al*., 2006). In essence, quantitative research is nomothetic, focusing on revealing general patterns of normative behaviour, whose main aim is explaining the phenomena under study; it is objective, impersonal, and seeks generalisation. Thus positivist researchers hold a position embracing the methods of the natural science and relying on experimental or quasi-experimental methods. Central to the quantitative research approach, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) pointed out, is the quantification of observations relating to the studied phenomenon and a rigorous control of variables, employing statistical analysis techniques to measure causal or correlational relationships between variables.

3.2.2 Interpretivism

In contrast to the single objective reality of positivism, interpretivism subscribes to a relativist position that assumes multiple realities (Schwandt, 1994). In their approach to

social research, interpretivists believe that understanding the social world is culturally and historically situated (Hughes *et al*., 2006). Interpretivism, Hughes *et al*. (2006), posited, has originated from the work of Max Weber, who declared that social science is about understanding (verstehen). This, they added, is in contrast to erklaren (explaining), which, as shown above, seeks causal explanation, as in the natural science. The contrast in the notions of erklaren and verstehen, they continued, form the basis for the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research approaches. Interpretivists hold the view that reality is constructed in the mind as opposed to being an external entity (Hansen, 2004); here, individuals make sense of situations based upon their individual experience, allowing different interpretations to emerge from these situations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Schwandt (2000) argued that in the interpretivist position, meaning is hidden and must be uncovered through reflection; the latter can be stimulated by a dialogue between the researcher and the informant (Ponterotto, 2005).The interaction between the researcher and the object of research, Ponterotto (2005) thus posited, is a central distinctive feature of interpretivism through which meaning can be formed. Meaning is believed to emerge through one of many interpretive methods, such as hermeneutics, phenomenology, and symbolic interactionism (Hughes *et al*., 2006). The concern of interpretivism, Ponterotto (2005) suggested, is with the unique traits of individuals rather than with broad generalisation about human behaviour. Sciarra (1999) pointed out that an important principle of interpretivism is that an objective reality cannot be separated from the person who is experiencing, processing, and coding that reality; reality is thus constructed by the researcher and the participant. Consequently, Ponterotto (2005) saw this ontological distinction as critical to the understanding of the difference between positivism and its quantitative methods, on the one hand, and interpretivism and its qualitative methods, on the other. The goal of interpretivism, according to Schwandt (1994, 2000), is to understand the lived experiences from the view-points of those who live it; this requires qualitative research methods (Ponterotto, 2005).

A markedly contrasting view from positivism is presented by interpretivist researchers, where the interaction between researcher and participant, and the need to immerse oneself in the participant's world, are central to the research, requiring the researcher to embrace humanistic research designs (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Such designs, Morrow (2005) indicated, necessitate the use of qualitative research methods, where data is collected from interviews, observations, and other techniques. Qualitative

research is thus concerned with collecting and analysing data which are in the main non-numeric; focusing on detailed exploration of a small number of data about a phenomenon with the purpose of revealing some underlying meaning (Hughes *et al*., 2006). These methods consist of a number of empirical procedures with the purpose of describing and interpreting contextual lived experiences of research participants (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Qualitative research is thus an idiographic one, where understanding the complex entity and uniqueness of the individual is central to the research; it is descriptive, seeking an in-depth understanding of the individual (Ponterotto, 2005). The findings of qualitative research are normally presented in ordinary everyday language, incorporating the research participants' own words describing their experiences of the studied phenomenon or event (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998).

3.2.3 Realism/Pragmatism

Saunders *et al*. (2007) pointed out that the dissatisfaction with the over-determinism of positivism and the total relativism of interpretivism gave rise to realism; drawing on aspects from both these paradigms. Realism, these authors stated, holds the view that although real structures can exist independent of human consciousness, nevertheless, knowledge about these structures is socially constructed; that human knowledge of reality is the outcome of social conditioning. Blaikie (1993) elaborated by arguing that while the preoccupation of realism is with what kinds of things exist and about how they behave; it simultaneously acknowledges that reality may exist outside observation or science. He further added; like positivists, realists hold the view that 'scientific' methods can be applied to the study of social objects, in addition to language and discourse. Furthermore, he argued, that while positivists believe that empirical observations are the mechanisms which underlie the direct causal relationships and the universal laws, leading to explanation and prediction; realists, on the other hand, view these mechanisms as mere tendencies driven by local contexts, thus shifting the focus from explanation and prediction to understanding. Realists' view of observable events, Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) contended, is one of stratified reality, where the surface appearance of events is shaped by underlying structures and mechanisms. This contention is similar to Blaikie's (1993) claim that realism is about a search for generative underlying mechanisms and that these mechanisms may act in a manner that is either independent of, or out of sync with the observable events, and that events can take place without being observed. In all cases, Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) pointed

out that what is observed is only a partial picture of the events. The realist position is thus a pragmatic one. Social science researchers differ in their views about the relative merits of quantitative and qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Some researchers, Hughes *et al.* (2006) argued, see the two approaches as entirely different, being derived from contrasting views of the world and of reality. In outlining the differences between quantitative and qualitative research paradigms, Oakley (2000) drew a number of distinctions. Quantitative paradigms, she wrote, are objective, obtrusive, removed from the data, outcome oriented, reliable, generalisable, particularistic, ungrounded, reductionist, and hypothetico-deductive. They seek facts and causes of social phenomena, require controlled measurement and verification, and assume a stable reality. Qualitative paradigms on the other hand, she added, are subjective, naturalistic, close to the data, process oriented, valid, ungeneralisable, holistic, grounded, expansionist, descriptive, and inductive. They seek understanding of behaviour, require uncontrolled observation and exploration, and assume a changeable reality.

The incompatibility thesis (see, Howe, 1988) emphasises that quantitative and qualitative research paradigms and methodologies cannot and should not be mixed. Nevertheless, other researchers, Morgan (2007) observed, adopt an approach incorporating both methods in their research projects, using differing terminologies, such as, combining, integrating, or mixing qualitative and quantitative methods. The continuing argument over the relative merits of qualitative and quantitative methods is seen as one of status and politics (Hughes et al., 2006), divisive and counterproductive for the advancement of the social science (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Accordingly, Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) called upon researchers to make use of both quantitative and qualitative research in a pragmatic way. Hughes *et al*. (2006) also questioned the underpinning philosophical positions which led to the distinctiveness of quantitative and qualitative forms of research, and suggested that these positions are not as distinct as the stereotypes indicate. Hughes *et al*. (2006) acknowledged that although quantitative research is mainly used for theory testing, it may also be adopted to explore a phenomenon and generate theory about it. In a similar way, they added that qualitative research which is used for generating theory may also be used for testing hypotheses. They showed examples where questionnaires - quantitative data collection instruments - might contain open ended questions requiring an in-depth qualitative response. They also showed how interviews and observations - qualitative

data collection instruments - might be structured and analysed in a quantitative way. Pragmatism in research, Hughes *et al.* (2006) posited, is becoming quite common as researchers are increasingly endeavouring to use more than one method in their research. Punch (2005) showed a number of ways where researchers combine qualitative and quantitative methods. Among these, he suggested, are: triangulating between methods; one method facilitating another method in that it provides background information to aid proposing hypotheses and constructing a scale, or helping to choose areas of investigation; combining methods to aid the formation of a general picture; providing researchers' and participants' perspectives; establishing micro-macro relationships; staging in a longitudinal research process; hybridising methods; and facilitating understanding.

This study is anchored in the pragmatic tradition, where the researcher conducted a staged research, moving from an interpretive approach in stage 1 to a positivist approach in stage 2; adhering to the cannons of each approach.

3.2.4 Axiology: The role of researcher

There is a debate over the role of the researcher in the research process. To positivists, the values and feelings which the researcher holds have no place in the research process (McGrath & Johnson, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). In this tradition the researcher is assumed to remain detached from the inquiry; this the researcher ensures by applying standardised and systematic procedures to control his or her influence on the subject of inquiry and on the research process. Although, positivists attempt to control their biases during the research investigations, Ponterotto (2005) contended that values are naturally reflected in the research, most prominently in the selection of the study topic. Interpretivists, on the other hand, maintained that the values and experiences of the researcher cannot be detached from the research inquiry; this requires the researcher to acknowledge, limit and narrate these values and experiences, rather than attempt to control or eliminate them (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As the positivist view is underpinned by an epistemology that necessitates close and lengthy interpersonal encounter with the research participants, it is a myth to think that the researcher is able to control or eliminate value biases (Ponterotto, 2005).

The researcher is aware of the role she played in this study and endeavoured to collect credible data, and minimise subjectivity and bias as a result of this role. First, the way she interpreted the literature, and the areas and concepts she focused on within the

cross- cultural service literature had produced a reading which would be different than other researchers with a different focus and interpretation. For example the focus on finding a relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality in the cross-cultural setting where the research was conducted might have led this reading into a positivistic direction. However her interpretation, she feels, was valid as it was evidenced in her dialogue with literature, as shown in the literature review.

It is also important to note that being a female researcher in a male dominated setting of the study would have impacted on the quality of her data. However, being native to the place, the researcher was aware of these potential impacts and acted to minimise or alleviate their influence. In such a setting; first, the participants may not initially take the female researcher seriously. Second, interviewing the male participant alone, particularly in hotels, may give the impression that the researcher has other inappropriate intentions. The researcher made sure to conduct the interviews in a publicly visible space such as the hotel reception areas or the hotel restaurant, and in the company of a male friend or relative. She also carried with her, and presented to the participants her university identification card. Moreover, allowing the participants to talk at length in answering the questions helped put them at ease, establish rapport and reveal the problems they had in serving foreign guests.

Furthermore, the researcher role in the research process, particularly in qualitative research, cannot be overlooked, especially in data collection, coding and the analytic method used to arrive at the resulting themes. As the research was to investigate how the performance of local service providers (hotel managers and employees) affected service quality as perceived by foreign guests, the role of the researcher was important. The researcher ensured that data is collected from foreign guests from different nationalities visiting the city. The researcher was aware that she has not produced unique solutions, as theme extraction depends on the way coding is performed. However, the validity of the themes she extracted from the data was increased by concerted efforts on her part to maximise clarity and agreement. This was undertaken by using techniques of coding that are acceptable to the research community, and explaining these techniques by making the process of theme identification explicit and clear to enable the reader to follow the analysis and conclusions.

3.3 The study's methodology

This section discusses the research methodology used in this study; it focuses on the methodological approaches adopted to: a) understand the dynamics of cross-cultural service interaction between hotel front-line employees and their foreign guests, b) develop propositions and hypotheses to describe the relationships between the three main constructs in this interaction, namely: cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality, and c) test these hypotheses.

The research problem of understanding and explaining cross-cultural service interactions was derived from a pilot study undertaken at the outset, where interviews and conversations with a number of hotel managers, hotel employees and foreign guests in the city of Karbala in January 2011 were conducted. What prompted the researcher to embark on this preliminary study is the extraordinary pressure experienced by the hotel industry in this small City brought about by the disproportionately large numbers of guests (around 10 million visitors annually), and vocal complaints by foreign guests about the quality of service they receive. The findings of the pilot study focused the reading of the literature on cross cultural service interactions. In her dialogue with this literature, the researcher looked into the interplay of theoretical concepts and constructs from various multi-disciplinary areas in the social sciences, and was able to tease out and developed a number of theoretical relationships and propositions, which required empirical evidence for their understanding and testing. To gain an understanding of the dynamics of this service interaction, the researcher conducted a staged methodological design. In the first stage, she undertook qualitative research where she conducted interviews with hotel managers, employees, and foreign guests. Analysis of the interviews supported the relationships and propositions found in and derived from the literature, as shown in the theoretical model in figure 2.8. In the second stage, quantitative research using questionnaires was undertaken to test this theoretical model.

Thus the methodological design adopted in this study was one of a pragmatic, staged approach. It commenced with a preliminary pilot study of having conversations with a number of hotel managers, hotel employees and foreign guests. This is followed by a wider qualitative research in stage 1, in the form of semi-structured interviews, which gave rise to a provisional empirical model and sets of hypotheses. The model and hypotheses were then tested in stage 2 through quantitative data analysis using data from three questionnaires. These stages are elaborated below.

3.3.1 Stage 1: Exploratory qualitative research

The research objective of this stage of the study was to develop an understanding of the dynamics of cross cultural service interactions in hotels in the chosen City. This was addressed by interviewing a purposive sample (Miles & Huberman, 1994) of hotel managers, front-line service employees, and foreign guests in five, four, and three-star hotels. Semi-structured, informal interviews were conducted to facilitate informational questions (Charmaz, 2000), using interview aide-memoires (see appendix 1). Only foreign guests who have been in the city for at least seven days were interviewed; this is to ensure that these guests have sufficiently interacted with individual hotel employees and became familiar with these employees and with the hotel service. To guide the semi-structured interviews, three lists of questions were developed in the form of aide-memoirs - one for managers, one for front-line employees, and one for foreign guests - based on concepts derived from the read literature, common-sense knowledge, and experience (Strauss, 1987) of the study destination and local culture. These interviews were conducted in the participants' hotels throughout the summer period of 2011. Interviews typically lasted two hours with managers and approximately 30 minutes with employees and guests. The general aim of the research was explained to the participants, access to the hotels negotiated and permission obtained from the hotels' owners and managers. Informed consent was achieved which included agreement to record the interviews and publish the data and findings anonymously. Eleven managers, seven employees, and fifteen guests were interviewed; a total of 33 hours of interviews were recorded and transcribed.

Following Lincoln and Guba's (1985) and Patton's (1990) advice, hotel managers were given the opportunity to examine and comment on the data and themes derived from interviews. It was not possible to do the same with front-line employees or foreign guests, as the former required permission from their managers and the latter had already left the City after their visit.

Thematic analysis was used, where the collected data was reduced to produce first codes, initial themes, and these where then abstracted to higher overarching themes. The process was similar to Ryan and Bernard's (2003), and Bakir and Bakir's (2006a & 2006b) suggestions of how to analyse qualitative data, where hierarchies were built through the tasks of: discovering subthemes and themes, reducing themes to a few overarching themes and linking these themes to theoretical concepts.

In this analysis the “constant comparison” method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was followed, where similarities and differences were searched for by comparing units of data. By using line-by-line analysis, focus and understanding were obtained of what the unit of data was about and how similar or different it was from other statements.
It is acknowledged that theme identification does not produce a unique solution, as there are many ways of coding the data (Dey, 1993). Attempts were made to maximise clarity and agreement to increase the validity of the identified themes (Denzin, 1997; Fielding & Fielding, 1986; Hammersley, 1992; Kirk & Miller, 1986; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The techniques used were explained, making theme identification explicit and clear so that the reader can follow the analysis and conclusions (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). To further ensure the reliability and validity of the emerged themes, these themes were shown to the supervisors and they agreed that the themes were valid (Bernard, 1994; Denzin, 1970; Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Patton, 1990; Sandelowski, 1995). The researcher is also confident that appropriate themes were identified because she has used techniques of coding accepted in the research community (Ryan & Bernard, 2003).

The data was processed electronically using Microsoft Office Word processer. A table was formed for each respondent; extracts from three different respondents are shown in Table 4.1. To ensure correct referencing of the data, the data from the respondents of each hotel was placed separately, and the hotel assigned a unique number. The respondents were also referenced to by their roles and where there were more than one respondent performing the same function from one hotel, a unique number was added. For example, the first manager from hotel number two is referenced as (m1, h2), third guest from hotel number six as (g3, h6), and fourth employee from hotel number nine as (e4, h9). Also the researcher referred to owner/manager as ‘o/m’, and managing director as ‘md’.
The transcribed data was placed in the first column of the table; data was cut and sorted into chunks where it was felt that a complete idea and theme were formed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), each chunk of data was placed in a separate cell, “splitting” to maximise the differences between passages in order to generate more “fine-grained” themes (Ryan & Bernard, 2003: 95). These generated themes were placed in the second data-reduction column of the table. Similarities and differences between the themes were then looked for using the constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and similar themes were put together under a new label in the third column, thus

creating fewer and more encompassing themes. By doing so, the differences between the themes were minimised to help identify more overarching themes; “lumping” in the words of Ryan and Bernard (2003, p. 95). This coding process is not dissimilar from the grounded theory analytical technique (see Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). These themes were then related to concepts and constructs from the literature, shown in columns four and five of the table respectively; this helped to arrive at new linkages between the constructs and enhanced understanding.
The coding for themes approach is explained in the following section.

3.3.1.1 Coding for themes

The process of identifying themes started with the act of transcribing the interviews. The text was read and reread (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) looking for recurring topics and subsequently for themes.
‘Indigenous categories’ were looked for (Patton, 1990); for example, the theme ‘Keeping eye on things’ was derived from one manager’s statement: *“... and the rest of the employees go around keeping eye on things*”; and the theme ‘nagging and complaining’ from another’s: “*As for the Iranians, we cater for all their required services, but they nag and complain quite a lot.*” (o/m, h1)
Instances were found where respondents expressed their thoughts, behaviours, and experiences in metaphors and analogies from their culture (D’Andrade, 1995; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Strauss & Quinn, 1997). A manager stated: “*Most of our visitors are Iranians and they are here all year round; they are nicknamed in the market as the ‘gold Lira’ or ‘dollar’, it keeps its value*” (m1, h2). The ‘gold Lira’ or ‘dollar’ metaphor is commonly used in the local culture to indicate a high and undepreciating value. In this quote the theme induced from the ‘gold Lira’ or ‘dollar’ metaphor is that ‘Iranian visitors have lasting value’.
Furthermore, shifts in content which acted as transition to a different theme occurred as respondents sometimes paused, changed their voice tone, or, as in the following quote, introduced particular phrases: “*our customers come to us because ..... when they like the place, they don’t just like how clean it is. They also like being received by the hotel manager*”(m1, h2). Here, this manager respondent introduced a transition from the theme ‘clean place’ to the theme ‘guests like manager’. Furthermore, themes were looked for through connecting words between phrases which indicated: causal relations, conditional relations, taxonomic categories, time-oriented relationships, or negative

characteristics. A number of connecting words (e.g. ‘for’, ‘and’ & ‘so’) marked a transition from one theme to another in this respondent’s answer:

> For security reasons; they [the guests] have to leave their cars at the City’s borders, about 15km to 30 km away and rent a cart pushed by a person. They pay $300-$400 for the cart; so, the guests arrive at the hotel unhappy, and they direct all their anger at the hotel staff, as it is the last place in their journey. (o/m, h1)

Here, transitions between the following themes are detected: ‘security reasons’, ‘leaving cars outside City’, ‘transport by push cart’, ‘unreasonably expensive’, and ‘staff bearing the brunt’. Other relationships, such as: attributes, contingencies, examples, and comparisons that were useful for identifying themes (Burton & Kirk 1980; Werner & Schoepfle, 1987) were also searched for; examples are shown in the following data in square brackets within the quotes.

> As for the different nationalities, the Tanzanians who live in Europe, America and Britain are by their very nature content [attribute]; for everything, they say ‘thank you’. And the most irritating [attribute] are the Kuwaiti guests, because they feel that they are higher than us [comparison] and we are less than them [comparison]. ...and they show this even in the way they deal with people. (m, h3)

> ...for example [example], we offer them free cups of tea as part of our Arab hospitality. ...I attempt to contact friends, owners of other hotels, and book accommodation for them; I do not want them to get annoyed [contingency]. (o/m, h1)

Although identifying themes that characterised the respondents’ experience was the principal aim here, of equal importance was understanding how data and resulting themes relate to concepts in the literature. The data was searched and evidence found for links with the concepts of ‘task performance’, ‘treatment performance’, ‘behavioural cultural intelligence’, ‘performance constrained by local culture’, ‘underdeveloped service culture’ and ‘service quality’. All these concepts are found in the literature on hospitality service management, service culture and cross cultural service interactions (Ang *et al*., 2007; Hogan & Holland, 2003; Stewart, 2003; Tsang, 2007). These concepts are shown again in square brackets in the following managers’ responses.

> Most of our guests are women; the most important thing is not to be too close or too near to them, or to have conversations with them [behavioural cultural intelligence, treatment performance constrained by local culture, and service quality]. (m1, h2)
> ...we do not allow talking to women because it creates problems [treatment performance constrained by local culture]; we enforce this issue with our workers, and the worker himself is trained, he has to be clever, he must avoid women visitors but at the same time make them feel that he is serving them [task performance and treatment performance]. He must safeguard his reputation and that of the hotel [behaviour and performance constrained by local culture].
> ...among them there are some women who like to be complemented and to be courteous to [treatment performance]; we emphasise to the worker that there is a red line not to be crossed [behaviour and performance constrained by local culture]. (m1, h2)
> We deal with everyone according to what they like [behavioural cultural intelligence], but the visitor should not cross his limit [underdeveloped service culture and service quality]. (m2, h2)

In this methodological section the thematic technique for coding data used in this study was shown. Only a glimpse was given, in the form of few examples, of how this data and the derived themes relate to the literature. The full thematic analysis of the data is covered in Chapter 4, Qualitative data analysis and discussion.

3.3.1.2 Credibility and dependability

To establish the trustworthiness of a research inquiry; its truth value, applicability and consistency must be demonstrated (Guba & Lincoln, 1994); for qualitative research these criteria are respectively referred to as credibility, transferability and dependability. These terms, as applied to this study, are elaborated below.

Credibility

A qualitative study is not meaningful if sample richness is not sought (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This is because a rich sample aids the development of saturated themes and subsequent theoretical explanation. In this study 'theoretical sampling' was adopted where data was collected and simultaneously analysed in order to identify the next subject to collect data from. The process continued until richness and saturation were obtained. The researcher relied on her theoretical sensitivity and immersion into the context of the study area to obtain rich slices of data to enable her to categorise and

conceptualise data, identify incongruences, and minimise or maximise differences in order to reach rich themes that link to theory (Strauss, 1987).

Guba and Lincoln (2005) used the terms 'credibility' or 'authenticity' to evaluate the truth value of qualitative studies. Maxwell (1992) pointed out that the credibility of qualitative research concerns the understanding of the emerging descriptive, interpretive, theoretical or evaluative narratives. Connelly and Clandinin (1990) noted that aspects such as 'apparancy', 'verisimilitude', 'authenticity', 'plausibility' and 'adequacy' are important in assessing the credibility of narratives emerging from interpretive studies. In this study the researcher asked her supervisors whether the research findings (themes) were plausible and made sense, and obtained their agreement. The hotel managers she interviewed and subsequently showed the transcripts of their interviews and the emerged themes also found the findings adequate and authentic. She further ascertained the findings' credibility by presenting at international[6] conferences and internal university colloquia, and in conversation with interested colleagues. Furthermore, the setting of the interviews were not contrived by the researcher's presence or actions; this is because, being her home town, she had a good understanding of the culture of the place which guided her actions and behaviour. For example, being a female in a male dominated society it would have been difficult to conduct a credible interview without a male companion. The researcher was always accompanied by her brother or male friend in these interviews, which took place at the hotels, in the offices of the managers, and in the reception areas and restaurants. She thus feels that she has given an authentic portrait of what she was looking at (Miles & Huberman, 1994); she has been transparent.

In qualitative research, the limits on credibility depend on the type of data collection approach. In participant observation and interviewing, for example, credibility is increased if the researcher remains alert to: reactive effects when present in the natural setting; biases and distortions from selective perceptions and interpretations; limitations on access; the dangers of going native; knowledge of the subjects and rapport; and idiosyncrasies (Miles & Hubberman, 1994). Being part of the culture of the place has

[6] Between 2011 and 2015, I presented in five internal colloquia; World Research Summit for Tourism and Hospitality, Hong Kong; the 6th World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure, Fethiye-Turkey; British Academy of Management BAM 2012 Conference - Cardiff University, UK; and Cross-Cultural Issues in Tourism & Hospitality International Conference, Chania, Crete.

advantages and disadvantages. On the one hand, the researcher was alert to reactive effects in the interview setting; for example, she knew that being a woman in that culture requires that she meets the male interviewee, not alone, but either in the company of others or in a public space, such as, the hotels' reception areas or restaurants. To do otherwise would have been interpreted as having other inappropriate purposes. On the other hand, earlier in this work, because being native to the place of the study and having a poor personal perception of the quality of hotel service, the researcher arrived at some erroneous interpretations of the data. For example, from one manager's statement: "*We offer the guest a cup of tea as part of our Arab hospitality*", she first wrongly extracted the theme 'inadequate service', which on reflection and ridding herself of her native bias she corrected to 'good treatment'. Furthermore, collection of data from more than one source – i.e. managers, employees, and foreign guests from more than one hotel- further increased the credibility of the research, and helped address the problem of distortion from a single data source and from the researcher's biases (Miles & Hubberman, 1994).

Dependability

The issue of reliability - consistency and equivalence in the study - is more of a problem in qualitative research. What underlies reliability is whether the process of the study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As the field setting of qualitative research is influenced by extraneous variables, these need to be recognised if the research is to be repeatable. However, this is problematic because systematic and standardised research techniques are unobtainable in the unstructured process of qualitative research. Thus reliability is not so easily assessed, because of the subjective nature of the research requiring the researcher in each setting to adapt to the participants. As human observations and measurements are usually made by the researcher alone, the methodology is context driven; structured measurement instruments such as interview schedules are not obtainable.

The issue of reliability extends beyond data collection and its instrument to the analytical procedures. Qualitative data is generally analysed by 'constant comparison', a non- standardised process which relies on the ability and theoretical sensitivity of the researcher. This prompted Guba and Lincoln (2005) to use the term 'dependability' instead of 'reliability' in evaluating qualitative research. They posited that a research study may be considered as dependable if its process is auditable; they thus advised

researchers to use 'auditability' as the criterion for rigour in judging the consistency of data and findings. To these authors, a research study is auditable if one can follow the decision trail used by the researcher in relation to the theoretical, methodological and analytical choices made in the study, and reach comparable conclusions using the researcher's data and context. The systematic and rigorous procedures which were adopted in the thematic analysis of this study, as shown above, allow the research process to be audited, thus increasing the dependability of the research.
Specifying criteria for good qualitative research, according to Schwandt (1994), is not possible; he considered the attempts to do so as exclusionary, because, he argued that such attempt are not responsive to the contingent, contextual and subjective interpretive character of qualitative research. Nevertheless, Miles and Huberman (1994) asserted that qualitative researchers may provide good or poor accounts of what happens in a specific situation, and should not consider their work un-judgeable; shared standards should be sought (Howe & Eisenhart, 1990).

3.3.2 Stage 2: Explanatory quantitative research

This stage is concerned with testing the proposed relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality through the mediation of employee performance. Thus three measurement scales were used, namely: cultural intelligence scale, adapting Ang *et al*.'s (2004) scale, employee performance scale which the researcher designed and developed based on Stewart's (2003) ideas, and the SERVPERF scale, adapting Parasuraman *et al*.'s (1988) scale. The development of these scales involved the use of factor analysis (SPSS version 22); the latter is briefly introduced first before discussing the measure scales themselves.

3.3.2.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis reduces a large set of variables to a smaller set of factors. It looks for groups among the inter-correlated set of variables. It is commonly used by researchers in the development and evaluation of test scales. By using factor analysis a large number of individual scale items can be reduced to a smaller number of coherent subscales. It can also be used to reduce a large number of related variables to a manageable number before using them in other analyses, such as; multiple regression and multivariate analysis of variance. There are two main factor analyses: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. While exploratory factor analysis is used early in the analysis to explore interrelationships within a set of variables,

confirmatory factor analysis is used later in the analysis to test and confirm hypotheses concerning the underlying structure of the set of variables.

1. Principal component analysis is a similar and often interchangeable technique with factor analysis. Both techniques are designed to produce a smaller number of linear combinations from the original variables in a way that accounts for most of the variability in the pattern of correlations. Stevens (1996) preferred using principal component analysis; he argued that principal component analysis is psychometrically sound, mathematically simple and does not have the 'factor indeterminancy' problems of the factor analysis. Tabachnick and fidell (2007) also advised researchers to use principal component analysis if the purpose is simply to obtain an empirical summary of the data set. Principle component analysis was used to develop the scales in this study.

2. Confirmatory factor analysis

Applied confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was adopted using Lisrel (version 8.8) to estimate the adequacy of the measurement model for each of the three scales. This required a number of goodness of fit statistics. Of importance are Chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Goodness-of- fit Index (GFI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). The purpose of this model testing procedure is to determine the goodness of fit between the hypothesised model and the sample data. These goodness of fit statistics are described briefly below.

a. Chi-square measures the closeness of fit between the unrestricted sample covariance and the restricted covariance matrix. Thus a non-significant Chi-square difference between the hypothesised model and the sample data suggests that the hypothesised model fits the sample data. Joreskog and Sorbom (1993) however advised researchers not to depend only on this goodness of fit indicator as it is very sensitive to the sample size. To overcome this, the value of Chi-square should be divided by the degree of freedom, and where the result is small (<5), the goodness of fit of the model is obtained.

b. The RMSEA indicator shows the error of approximation in the population; it indicates how well the sample data fits the population covariance matrix. RMSEA value of less than 0.05 indicates a good fit, while values from 0.05 to 0.08 indicate a reasonable fit.

c. The SRMR is the average value across all standardised residuals; it represents the average discrepancy between the sample observed and the hypothesised correlation matrix. It has values ranging from 0 to 1. SRMR values of less than 0.05 indicate a good fit.

d. GFI measures the relative amount of variance and covariance in the sample that is jointly explained by the sample. This index has values from 0 to 1.00, where values close to 1.00 are indicative of a good fit.

e. The CFI is a measure of complete covariation in the data, where a CFI value > 0.9 indicates an acceptable fit.

As for the sample size, Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham (2006) recommended a minimum sample size for Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) of five observations for each parameter/item. In this research, the cultural intelligence scale consisted of 20 items and the actual number of respondents was 201(> 5 x 20=100). The employee performance scale consisted of 34 items and the actual number of respondents was 201 (> 5x34=170). The service quality scale consisted of 20 items and actual number of respondents was 469 (> 5x20=100). These samples exceed the theoretical minimum sample size for SEM analysis.

3.3.2.2 The measure scales

Three instruments were used in this research, namely cultural intelligence scale, employee performance scale (a new measurement scale, designed by the researcher), and SERVPERF scale. These instruments are discussed in detail below.

Cultural intelligence scale

The cultural intelligence scale adopted in this research is a slightly modified form of Ang *et al*.'s (2004) validated version of cultural intelligence self-report scale. It retained the 20 items of the original scale, some in a modified form to suit the intended function of its use and the local context. Details of the modifications are presented below.
The 20 items of the modified scale were subjected to principal component analysis using SPSS version 22. Before performing this analysis, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Principal component analysis of the modified cultural

intelligence scale resulted in four components, consistent with Earley and Ang's (2003) original formulation of the scale. This scale is shown below followed by explanations of the changes made. The cultural intelligence questionnaire based on this scale is shown in Appendix 2.

Cultural intelligence (CQ) scale

The instructions given to the participants were:

'Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities.

Select the answer from 1 to 5 that BEST describes you AS YOU REALLY ARE (1= strongly Disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree).'

CQ factor	Questionnaire items
Metacognitive CQ	
MC1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
MC2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MC3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.
MC4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.
Cognitive CQ	
COG1	I know the social position of people from other cultures.
COG2	I know the religious customs and habits of other cultures.
COG3	I know the norms and customs of other cultures.
COG4	I know the arts and crafts of people from other cultures.
COG5	I know the rules (e.g., grammar) of other languages.
COG6	I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in other cultures.
Motivational CQ	
MOT1	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
MOT2	I enjoy coexisting with people from cultures that are unfamiliar to me.
MOT3	I am confident that I can socialise with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MOT4	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.
MOT5	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
Behavioural CQ	
BEH1	I change my verbal behaviour (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH2	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
BEH3	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH4	I change my nonverbal behaviour when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH5	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

Changes made to the original questionnaire:

a. The original Earley and Ang's (2003) questionnaire was designed to measure the cultural intelligence of expatriates; in this study it was adapted to measure the cultural intelligence of hotel employees serving foreign guests.
b. Question 5, 'I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures' is modified to 'I know the social position of people from other cultures'. The change was necessary as the hotel employees, whose cultural

intelligence to be assessed, are not expected to know the legal and economic systems of the foreign guests they serve. Rather, the extent of their cultural intelligence may be more demonstrated by knowledge of the social position of their foreign guests.

c. Question 6, 'I know the religious beliefs of other cultures' is modified to 'I know the religious customs and habits of other cultures'. This change was necessary because the vast majority of foreign guests adhere to the same religion but a different sect. The latter will have different national customs and habits.
d. Question 7, 'I know the marriage systems of other cultures' is modified to 'I know the norms and customs of other cultures'. The change was made because knowledge of the marriage system of other cultures is only one of the many norms and customs of these cultures. Knowledge of the latter is a better indicator of the employees' cultural intelligence than the former.
e. Question 8, 'I know the arts and crafts of other cultures' is slightly modified to 'I know the arts and crafts of people from other cultures'. This was done to make the question clearer.
f. Questions 12, 'I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me' is modified to 'I enjoy coexisting with people from cultures that are unfamiliar to me'. This modification was necessary as the hotel employees are not living in cultures unfamiliar to them. They are only temporarily coexisting with people from other cultures in the course of their service interaction with their guests.

Employee performance (3Ts) scale

The second questionnaire, employee performance scale (task performance, treatment performance, tangibles performance), which the researcher designed, consists of 34 questions. As a rule, in order to develop a new scale and test its validity, one needs to ask as many relevant questions as possible. These questions were derived from the literature, the data from the interviews in stage 1, and the researcher's experience and knowledge, being a native of the place. The process was as follows. Stewart's (2003) 3Ts performance framework, which had not been previously elaborated upon or empirically tested, was adopted for this study. As the name indicates this framework consists of three components: task performance, treatment performance and tangibles

performance. Furthermore, although Stewart (2003) had defined these components, he did not provide the items which constitute them and did not empirically test the framework. However, in his elaborated discussion of the 3Ts framework, he cited examples of tasks, treatment and tangibles which helped in developing some of the items for each of these components or factors. Hogan and Holland's (2003) thematic study of job performance provided further insight and examples of task and treatment items. Data obtained from the pilot study interviews and conversations with hotel managers also brought to light more task, treatment, and tangibles items. These were incorporated in the employee performance questionnaire. The developed scale was examined and evaluated by a committee of two academics and three hotel managers, in the study destination. It was also presented to the Faculty Ethical Committee consisting of five academics and chaired by a professor; their agreement was obtained over the clarity of the statements, the structure of the questions, content of the measure, and the correctness of the translation and back translation.

The suitability of the 34 items of the employee performance scale for factor analysis was assessed, and the data was then subjected to principal component analysis; the latter supported their factorability. Principal component analysis of the employee performance scale resulted in three components; these were retained for further analysis. The developed scale is shown below, and the questionnaire based on this scale in appendix 2.

Employee performance (3Ts) scale

The instructions given to the participants in relation to this scale were:

'Throughout your working relationship with this employee, please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate box. Select the answer from 1 to 5 that BEST describes the employee (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree).'

Employee performance Factor	Questionnaire items
Task	
TAS1	Doing his/her work incorrectly
TAS2	Doing his/her work not as requested
TAS3	Doing his/her work in the wrong order
TAS4	Doing his/her work too slowly
TAS5	Doing his/her work impromptly
TAS6	Doing his/her work without priorities
TAS7	Doing his/her work without diligence
TAS8	Doing his/her work without mastery
TAS9	His/her work performance is poor
TAS10	His/her work performance is not inspiring
TAS11	His/her work is not assuring
TAS12	His/her work performance does not make you feel safe
TAS13	Doing his/her work without concern for quality
Treatment	
TRE1	He/she ignores the guest's presence
TRE2	He/she does not behave politely with guests
TRE3	He/she does not treat guests professionally
TRE4	He/she does not interact with guests appropriately
TRE5	He/she does not show appreciation of guests
TRE6	He/she does not listen to the guests
TRE7	He/she gets bothered when serving guests
TRE8	He/she talks in unfriendly tone to guests
TRE9	He/she grumbles when serving guests
TRE10	He/she complains when required to serve
TRE11	He/she does not show courtesy to guests
TRE12	He/she does not demonstrate interpersonal skills
TRE13	He/she does not show positive attitude
Tangibles	
TAN1	He/she does not use clean facilities
TAN2	His/her cloths are not clean
TAN3	He/she does not control noise
TAN4	He/she suffers from body odour
TAN5	He/she is not appropriately presented
TAN6	His/her hair is untidy
TAN7	He/she is sloppy
TAN8	His/her movement is not dignified

SERVPERF scale

A modified 20-item SERVPERF - the performance component of the Service Quality scale, SERVQUAL (Parasuraman *et al*., 1988; Cronin & Taylor, 1992) - was used to measure the service quality of the service offered by hotel front-line employees as perceived by their foreign guests. The factorability of the items of this scale was assessed (using SPSS version 20) and was supported. Also, principal component analysis of the modified SERVPERF scale resulted in five components, which were retained for further analysis. This interpretation was also consistent with Parasuraman *et al*.'s (1988), and Cronin & Taylor's (1992) formulations of the scale. The modified scale is shown below, and the questionnaire based on this scale in appendix 2.

SERVPERF scale

The instructions given to the participants in relation to completing this scale were:
'The score level is described as: 5 = highest, 4 = high, 3 = moderate, 2 = low and 1 = lowest. Please indicate your perceptions towards service quality of employee …… based on your experiences as a customer of the …… hotel.'

SERVPERF	Questionnaire items
Tangibles	
TANG1	The employee dresses appropriately
TANG2	The employee's uniform is clean
TANG3	The employee provides the services with smile
TANG4	The employee has elegant appearance
Reliability	
REL1	The employee can provide you the services as promised
REL2	The employee provides you with accurate information
REL3	The employee performs the service right at the first time
REL4	The employee offers you some help
Responsiveness	
RES1	The employee tells you exactly when services will be provided
RES2	The employee gives you prompts service
RES3	The employee is willing to help you
Assurance	
ASS1	The employee has product knowledge of hotel information
ASS2	The employee has the required skill to perform service
ASS3	The employee speaks with you by using an appropriate address form
ASS4	The employee is trustworthy
ASS5	The employee makes you feel safe when staying at the hotel
Empathy	
EMP1	The employee is able to communicate with you in your language
EMP2	The employee is able to communicate effectively with you
EMP3	The employee shows personal attention to you
EMP4	The employee knows your specific needs

3.3.2.3 Sampling

Fifty three hotels participated from a total number of ninety eight (3*, 4* & 5*) hotels in the city of Karbala. This number was dictated by access to these hotels and obtaining agreement from hotel owners/managers to participate in the study.
The theoretical model (fig. 2.8) shows that cultural intelligence (independent variable) affects service quality (dependent variable) through employee performance (mediating variable).

The construct of cultural intelligence in this study is about assessing the cultural intelligence of the participating hotels' front-line employees. The reason for choosing these employees, as discussed in the literature review, was to test whether their cultural intelligence predicts the quality of the service they offer to foreign guests, through the mediation of their job performance. The number of these employees from each hotel was between three and six. 288 self-report questionnaires were administered to these employees. 253 completed questionnaires were returned, 52 of these were discarded as they were not properly completed. Thus the total number of completed questionnaires which was analysed was 201, constituting 69% of total questionnaires administered. In a study examining the response rates for surveys used in organisational research, Baruch and Holtom (2008) analysed 1607 studies published in the years 2000 and 2005 in 17 refereed academic journals. They found that the average response rate for studies that utilised data collected from individuals was 52.7%. This suggests that the 69% response rate in this study is seen as an acceptable return.

The second construct, the mediator variable of employee performance, measured the performance of the front-line hotel employees who filled the self-report cultural intelligence questionnaire. The instrument for this measure was the employee performance questionnaire which was administered to the managers of these employees. These employees were identified and made known to their managers (each manager reported on 3 to 6 employees whom he supervised). The researcher herself served the questionnaires to 53 managers who between them supervised the 201 employees; so a total of 201 employee performance questionnaires were completed. It is worth noting that the employee performance questionnaire helped minimise bias which might have been introduced by the self-report cultural intelligence questionnaire.

The third construct, the dependent variable of service quality, measured the service quality of the chosen sample of employees as perceived by the foreign guests they served. To ensure that interaction has occurred between front-line employees and these guests, only guests who stayed at least one week in their hotel were approached. Additionally, and to minimise bias, the quality of service offered by each employee was assessed by at least two guests. 512 responses were obtained, of which 43 were discarded as they were not properly completed, making the number of analysed questionnaires 469.

3.3.2.4 Validity and reliability of the scales

The choice and development of data collection instrument or questionnaire encompass qualitative and quantitative assessments (Peter & Churchill, 1986). Peter and Churchill (1986) considered the qualitative assessment as an important step in identifying the psycho-metric characteristics of the research measuring scales, such as validity and reliability tests.

Validity

Validity is the extent to which a study produces accurate results (internal validity), and produces results that are widely applicable (external validity); that its measurement scales measure what they are supposed to measure and not something else (Hair *et al*., 2006).

Face validity and content validity. It was necessary to undertake face validity and content validity tests for the three scales used in this research to test their applicability to the research sample. This is because the cultural intelligence scale was slightly modified for use to measure local employees' cultural intelligence in their interactions with foreign guests. The original cultural intelligence scale was developed to measure the cultural intelligence of expatriates as they interact with local people (see Ang *et al*., 2004). Furthermore, testing the validity of the service quality scale needed again because of its application to a different sample in a different context. More importantly, however, is testing the face validity and content validity of the employee performance scale, as this scale is a new one which the researcher designed based on the literature, common-sense knowledge and her knowledge and experience of the place to which she is native.

Tharenou *et al.* (2007: 157) defined face validity as the ability of a test to measure what it is designed to measure. Anastasi and Urbina (1997: 114) defined content validity as "the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured". Content validity depends on a theoretical basis for assuming that a test is assessing all domains of a certain criterion. Its evidence involves the degree to which the content of the test matches a content domain associated with the construct.

Face validity and content validity help in the process of choosing, developing, and testing the measure. Commonly, testing these two forms of validity is performed by presenting the initial frame of the measure to a group of experts for their agreement. The researcher presented the three measures to her two supervisors, to the Faculty Ethical Committee consisting of five senior researchers (all holders of PhD degrees) and chaired by a professor, and to three colleagues from the study destination. These people's agreement was obtained over the clarity of the statements, the structure of the questions, contents of the measures, and the correctness of the translation and back translation.

Following the qualitative assessment of the measures, where the conceptual constructs were established, the quantitative structure of these measures was undertaken by empirically establishing the measures' validity and reliability (Hinkin, 1995).

Construct validity. Construct validity criteria must be met to ensure the validity of the instrument. Construct validity of a measure is concerned with whether the measure relates to other measures in ways predicted by an underlying theory of the construct. There are two types of construct validity: convergent validity and discriminant validity. These are assessed by determining whether the pattern of relationships in the empirical data matches the expected theoretical relationships between the construct the measure is capturing and other constructs (Schwab, 2005).

Convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is the extent to which different instruments concur in their measurements of the same construct. These instruments should show moderately high scores. Convergent validity is assessed by looking at the *t*-test for the factor loadings (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Evidence of convergent validity for the construct in the confirmatory factor analysis is provided if *t* values are significantly different from zero at $p < 0.05$, and the value of variance extracted measure exceeds 0.5. The variance extracted measure is defined as the

amount of shared or common variance among the items for a construct (Hair *et al*., 2006). This measure can be calculated using the equation:

$$\text{Variance extracted} = \frac{\sum \text{squared standardised loading}}{\sum \text{squared standardised loading} + \sum \text{errors variavnce}}$$

Discriminant validity is the extent to which different instruments diverge in their different constructs. The correlations between the measures of these constructs have to be minimal. Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that discriminant validity can be assessed by determining whether the average variance extracted estimate for two constructs are higher than the squared correlation between them.
Another approach to examining construct validity is through the use of both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to determine evidence of convergent and discriminant validity.

Reliability
Reliability refers to the repeatability of a result with the same measurement (Aneshensel, 2002). Reliability of a measuring instrument is tested through two indicators, internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) and composite or scale reliability (Raykov, 2001).

Internal consistency. Internal consistency is the degree to which the items that make up a scale measure the same underlying attributes. A commonly used statistic to measure internal consistency is Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Pallant, 2007). Although, there are different levels of reliability depending on the purpose of the scale, nevertheless, Hair *et al*. (2006) recommended a minimum Cronbach value of 0.75.

Raykov (2001) pointed out that in many cases; Cronbach's coefficient alpha is markedly different from composite reliability. Due to documented shortcomings associated with Cronbach's alpha (see, Sijtsma, 2009; Huysamen, 2006), Raykov's (2001) composite reliability coefficient ρ (Raykov, 2001) was also employed to assess the internal reliability of each factor.

Composite reliability. Composite reliability, also known as scale reliability, is defined as the ratio of true variance in the total scale score to the observed variant, and calculated by the following equation:

$$\text{Composite reliability} = \frac{(\sum \text{standardised loading})2}{(\sum \text{standardised loading})2+\sum \text{errors variance}}$$

Hair *at el.* (1998) recommended a minimum composite reliability value of 0.70.

There is also test-re-test reliability which is particularly important if the scale is to be used in evaluation studies.

3.3.2.5 Testing of hypotheses

To help test hypotheses a correlation matrix was produced; this matrix is also necessary to ensure that there is no multi co-linearity between the dimensions of the independent variable. Three sets of hypotheses were involved in this research. The first set, H1, H2 and H3 is represented by the direct relationships between the independent variable (cultural intelligence) and the mediator (employee performance). The second set, H4 and H5 represents the direct relationships between the mediator and the dependent variable (service quality). The third set of hypotheses, H6 to H13 represents the indirect relationships between the independent and dependent variables through the mediator. To test these 13 hypotheses, the hierarchical multi regression analysis technique of SPSS version 22 was used, taking into consideration the control variables of age, gender, and experience. The first and second sets of hypotheses were tested in the normal way; the third set of hypotheses was tested by using mediator variable analysis, as proposed by Baron and Kenney (1986).
Preliminary analyses were also conducted to ensure that the assumptions of normality, linearity, multi-co linearity and homoscedasticity were not violated.

Mediator analysis

Most studies in social science and particularly in management use Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediator technique for testing and identifying the direct and indirect relationships. In this thesis, Baron and Kenny's (1986) technique was adopted to test the importance of the employee performance mediator in the proposed model; a series of regression equations was used to determine the strength of the direct and indirect relationships. The statistical significance of the indirect relationship is then tested using the Z-value method (Sobel, 1982), consisting of four principal steps. Below, the mediation and Sobel test are explained with the aid of a path diagram.

Baron and Kenny's 4-step mediator analysis

Step 1: conducting a simple regression analysis with the independent variable (IV) predicting the dependent variable (DV) to test for path c.

Step 2: conducting a simple regression analysis with the independent variable (IV) predicting the mediator (M) to test for path a.

Step 3: conducting a simple regression analysis with the mediator (M) predicting the dependent variable (DV) to test for path b.

Step 4: conducting a multiple regression analysis with the independent variable (IV) and the mediator (M) predicting the dependent variable (DV) to test path c'.

As shown above, path c is simple regression analysis with IV predicting DV, and path c' is multiple regression analysis with IV and M predicting DV.

One way of checking the amount of mediation is to examine step 4:

- If IV is not significant when M is controlled, the finding supports full mediation.
- If IV is still significant (both IV & M significantly predict DV), the finding supports partial mediation.

This technique was followed to test if the employee performance (M) mediates the relationship between cultural intelligence (IV) and service quality (DV), as explained below and shown in figure 3.1.

Step 1. Testing whether cultural intelligence is a statistically significant predictor of service quality (controlling for age, gender & experience) - path c.

Step 2: Testing whether cultural intelligence is a statistically significant predictor of employee performance (controlling for age, gender & experience) - path a.

Step 3. Testing whether employee performance is a statistically significant predictor of service quality – path b.

Mediation ended when any of the above paths was not statistically significant, and the conclusion was one of no mediation or that the hypothesis could not be tested due to insufficient correlation among variables. Beta values in all paths a, b and c above must be statistically significant to proceed to test the mediational hypothesis in step 4 below.

Step 4: Conducting multiple regression analysis to test whether cultural intelligence (IV) and employee performance (M) predict service quality (DV) - path c'.

Any change in path c was observed. If c' = 0, perfect mediation was assumed. If c' did not equal to zero, a partial mediation test was conducted to see if the change from c to c' was significant to claim partial mediation. In this case Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes,

2004) was used. This mediated relationship is represented in the following path diagram (Figure 3.1).

Testing for partial mediation using Sobel test

The formulae for the tests provided here were drawn from MacKinnon, Warsi, and Dwyer (1995). In the Sobel's test equations (see below), the path coefficients (i.e. the raw Beta weights from the regression analyses) were entered as paths a and b, as well as the standard errors for each path, s_a and s_b (provided by the statistical software).

$$z\text{-value} = a*b/\sqrt{(b^2*s_a^2 + a^2*s_b^2)}$$

Standard error of ab: $s_{ab} = \sqrt{(b^2*s_a^2 + a^2*s_b^2)}$

Paths a and b are explained as follows:

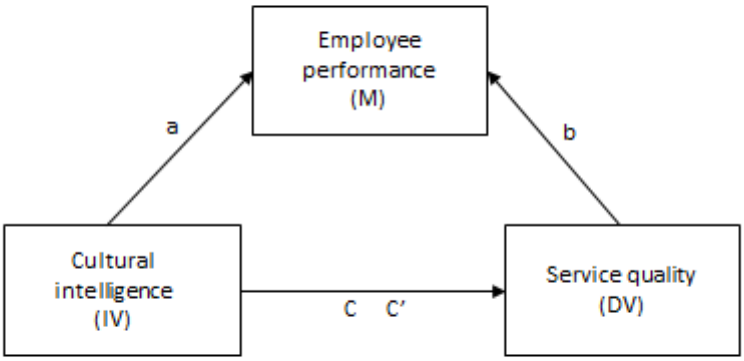
- 'a' is the coefficient resulting from the IV predicting M (controlling for age, gender & experience)

- 'b' is the coefficient resulting from M predicting DV.

The Sobel test performs a statistical test to see if the indirect path from the IV to the DV is statistically significantly different from zero. This is the same idea as the test providing support for partial mediation.

The test statistic throws z value, standard error and the statistical significance (*p*-value). If $p < 0.05$, the statistical conclusion was that partial mediation was obtained. In this study, it was hypothesised that the relationship between cultural intelligence (IV) and service quality (DV) is mediated by employee performance (M) (hypothesis sets H6-H13). These hypotheses were tested after having statistically controlled for the demographic variables of age, gender and experience.

Figure 3.1 Mediator analysis: Path diagramme
(Controlling for age, gender and experience)



3.4 Ethical considerations

General agreement among researchers needs to be reached about ethical research issues. This section outlines some of these broadly agreed norms in ethical research, and explains how the most important aspects were operationalised and included in this research.

Though not always acknowledged, especially by positivist researchers, almost all kinds of research raise ethical problems (Batchelor & Briggs, 1994). The positivist research process, in particular, incorporates, on the one hand, tension between the quest for generalisation and the legitimate rights of the participants in the research for privacy, on the other. In general, ethics is about doing good and avoiding harm; however what is seen as good or harm depends on the ethical approach held by the researcher. There are two main schools of moral philosophy: Bentham and Mill's consequential - utilitarian school and Kant's deontology - call of duty school (Sinnott-Armstrong, 2001). The consequential school holds the view that the rightness of an act is judged only on the ground of whether its consequences produce more benefits than disadvantages. Consequentialists judge the morality of an act according to results; their concern is not with the motive for action, but with the results. An act, according to Bentham's happiness principle, is ethical if it produces the maximum of happiness to the greatest number of people. The moral goal is to increase the scope and extent of human freedom and choices; any action which favours this endeavour is ethically right. Although the ethical equivalent of maximising consumer choice appeals to the business

mentality, there are however problems over how to distribute happiness in order to meet the principle of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. The greatest happiness of the majority of people can be achieved only at the expense of the minority; the ethical thing, according to this principle, is to disregard minority interests.

Deontological ethic, on the other hand is about doing one's duty or respecting absolute moral principles or obeying moral laws, however disadvantageous that may be. The 'call to duty' maintains that situations can arise where one is obliged to do wrong things provided, in their opinion, they produce a good net result. The emphasis in the deontological approach shifts from the result of one's action to the content of that action. As with the consequentialist approach, the deontological one has its own problems, as one person's call to duty may not be the call of duty for others. Addressing the shortcomings of the consequentialist and deontological schools, the more recent human rights ethic (Sen, 2004) considers all human beings as possessing the right to life and freedom, where no one can exercise them ethically in ways which will infringe on the equivalent rights of others. Basic human ethic recognises the existence of different cultures and the non-ethical practice of imposing one's standards and ways of behaving on other people. This brief overview of approaches to ethic suggests that researchers may draw on considerable ethical resources to decide how to behave ethically, whether these resources are found in public codes, laws and religious beliefs, or in human consciousness. They will need to apply ethical principles to prevent violations of the human rights of the participants of their research study (Punch, 2005). The issue of ethics is highlighted more in qualitative research than in quantitative research; this is because qualitative research is about exploring, examining and describing people and their natural environment (Patton, 1990). As such, relationships of power between the researcher and the participant permeate the research process, requiring the researcher to take into consideration not only the research principles but also the well-being of their participants.

The purpose of this study was to understand cross-cultural service interactions from the participants' perspectives through interviews and questionnaires. The intention of the researcher was to listen and interpret their experiences (Morse & Field, 1998); recognising that the participants are autonomous people who share information with her willingly. This balanced research relationship encourages trust, disclosure, and awareness that ethical issues and problems are likely to arise (Morse & Field, 1998).

The researcher is expected to anticipate possible outcomes and weigh the benefits and potential harm for the participant (Streubert & Carpenter, 1999). Kvale (1996) suggested that the interview dialogue is a moral enterprise, where the knowledge obtained by the researcher affects our understanding of the human experience. Associated with this dialogue are ethical dilemmas which may be difficult to predict but the researcher must be aware of sensitive issues and possible conflicts of interest, and must observe the principles of confidentiality, informed consent, and privacy (Field & Morse, 1998; Punch, 1994). Qualitative research also requires confirmability through documenting the activities included in the research, leaving an audit trail for other researchers to follow (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This creates ethical problems as it may conflict with the requirement for confidentiality and anonymity. In qualitative work, confidentiality, in particular, cannot be guaranteed, as the researcher is planning to use some of the participant's direct quotes. These, and other ethical problems and dilemmas may be alleviated if the researcher is aware of, and able to follow some well-established ethical principles, particularly, autonomy, beneficence, and justice; these principles, Capron (1989) suggested, should guide all kinds of research. Referring to the principle of autonomy, he emphasised the rights of participants to be informed about the study, to decide freely whether to participate in the study, and to withdraw at any time. These rights are encapsulated in the notion of informed consent, where the participants exercise their rights as autonomous individuals to voluntarily participate in the study; it is an ongoing negotiation of trust (Field & Morse, 1998; Kvale, 1996).

Closely associated with research is the second ethical principle of beneficence; doing good for others and preventing harm. Observing beneficence must be maintained if, for example, the researcher is aware of harmful potential consequences of revealing the participants' identities; here ensuring anonymity by using pseudonyms becomes a moral obligation (Kvale, 1996). Protection of participants' identities also extends to publications; participants must be informed how the results of the research will be published and their approval sought (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). In this study, I was aware of the particular harm that might befall the participating front-line employees if any negative perceptions of service quality reported on behalf of the guests were to be revealed to their managers.

The ethical principle of justice implies equal share and fairness, and avoiding exploitation of participants. Applying this principle implies an acknowledgement of the vulnerability of the participants and their contributions to the study. If in analysing the

data, the researcher comes across, for instance, a concept derived from a participant, the researcher should ethically ask permission from that participant. The researcher would have also observed this principle by listening to the voices of disadvantaged groups and by protecting those who are vulnerable.

The Social Research Society (2003) offered a detailed account of the requirements for informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality, as well as standard protocols for routinely checking ethical considerations to ensure that the research is meeting ethical requirements. These guidelines emphasised preserving the anonymity of the participants in the research project, keeping their details confidential and ensuring that they or comments attributable to them are not revealed or passed on without their informed consent. the guidelines require that if informed consent is obtained, researchers must demonstrate that they have taken all reasonable steps to ensure that the data will only be used for the purpose for which it was collected, and that they should fully inform participants as to what will be revealed, to whom and for what purpose. Furthermore, participants must also be informed at the recruitment stage and at the beginning of the interview of any recording, monitoring or observation during an interview; and their consent must be sought.

These principles were adhered to in sampling and data collection; the data collection instruments were also presented to the Faculty Ethics Committee to be scrutinised. The researcher was all the time aware that the responsibility of protecting the participants resided with her (Field & Morse, 1998). As mentioned above, three interview guides (Appendix 1) and three questionnaires (Appendix 2) were presented to The Faculty Research Committee. Members of the Committee suggested a number of changes, primarily concerning protecting hotel employees. They advised on a number of changes to the questionnaires to remove any ambiguity in the questions asked, and to make the instruments more robust. Specific requirements by the Committee and the researcher's response to these requirements are shown in the points below. As a result the Committee's approval of the modified instruments and of the intended ethical conduct of the research was obtained (see approval letter in appendix 4).

The Faculty Ethical Committee required:

1. The questionnaires to be translated and back translated by different persons to ensure that the meaning of the questions has not changed.

2. Clarification over the number of languages in which questionnaire three will be available to foreign guests.
3. Clarification over how the confidentiality and anonymity of hotel employees will be ensured.
4. That incentive, which the researcher intended to offer to encourage responses, is removed to ensure anonymity of the respondents.
5. Removing the sub-headings in the first questionnaire so as not to lead the respondents, and removing the examples to avoid confusion.
6. Rephrasing the questions about the respondents' education.
7. Making the cultural intelligence questionnaire and the service quality questionnaire more robust.
8. That the questions asked are fit for purpose.
9. An explanation of whether the shortcomings of the quantitative data collected for the purpose of explaining the complex phenomenon of cultural intelligence can be addressed.
10. Written consents.

The researcher's response to the issues raised by the Committee:

1. The three questionnaires which were discussed were translated from the original English to Arabic by a second person. They were then translated back to English by a third person; this back translation did not differ significantly from the original version.
2. The third questionnaire which is to be filled by foreign guests will also be translated to Iranian. This is because visitors to Karbala, although arriving from at least 30 countries, they will normally either speak English, Arabic, or Iranian.
3. The Committee was concerned over confidentiality and anonymity, as all the three questionnaires will carry the employee's name. The anonymity of employees will be ensured by:
    a. The name of the employee will be written on a sticker attached to the questionnaire. On returning the completed questionnaire, the sticker will be removed, and a numbered code written on the questionnaire. The name of the employee will disappear from all records once it is replaced by a code.
    b. The stored data will only carry codes and the names of the employees which have participated in the research will thus disappear permanently

from all stored data. Once a code replaces a name the identity of the employee will be unknown even to the researcher.

c. The data analysis stage will only deal with numbers and codes.
d. The findings will prove or falsify a number of hypotheses which will generally show that cultural intelligence of hotel employees may or may not affect service quality. The findings will thus not point to any particular employee and it will be disseminated in a general form which may indicate a need for training or management development programmes.
e. The researcher will personally give the questionnaires to the employees and will personally collect their individual responses.
f. The employees will be asked not to leave their responses with anyone else, particularly, not with their managers.
g. The clause which might threaten anonymity and confidentiality was removed from the first part of all the three questionnaires.
h. Although permission will be sought from the hotel managers to approach their employees and guests, employees or guests will not be asked in the presence of managers.

4. The incentive which was originally offered to participants was removed from the letters accompanying the questionnaires. This is in response to the Ethics Committee's concern over ensuring anonymity of the participants.

   The Committee was unclear over whether the service quality questionnaire (SERVPERF) was designed to assess the hotel service as a whole or the performance of individual employees. This questionnaire's purpose was to assess the performance of individual employees.

5. In the cultural intelligence scale (shown in the first questionnaire) the categories (Meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural) as well as the examples were removed, as advised by the Committee.
   a. The examples attached to all questions in this questionnaire had been removed as they might have given the impression that the questions were focused on hotel service functions rather than a particular employee.
   b. The names of the categories had been removed as these were only needed for the analysis and their inclusion might confuse the respondents.

6. In the section ‘About You’, the question ‘Education’ is now changed to ‘Your education’ in all questionnaires. The need for this clarification was raised by the Committee.
7. The Committee was concerned over weaknesses in the design of the cultural intelligence and service quality questionnaires. The researcher is aware of the shortcomings of these questionnaires and will provide a critical assessment of their utility in her thesis. However, these two questionnaires are already validated scales and academically used for the purpose of research. As such, to change them, beyond making slight modifications, may threaten their validity. In addition, the purpose of this research is not to revalidate an already exiting scale; rather the purpose is to establish whether cultural intelligence affects service quality in cross cultural interactions.
8. The researcher had endeavoured through her response to the Committee’s concerns to ensure that all the questions asked are fit for purpose in that they are appropriate for the person completing the questionnaire. However as mentioned in point10 below, the room for change in the already validated scales is limited.
9. The researcher is also aware of the shortcomings of quantitative research, particularly, in attempting to assess complex human phenomena, such as; cultural intelligence. To provide a more robust understanding of this complex concept, interpretive research instruments in the form of interview guides were also incorporated.
10. The researcher explained in the main form which she submitted to the Committee the reason why she was not able to obtain written consent. Here, a quote from that form is presented:

> In the present unsettled, occupied and war ridden society of Iraq, characterised by violent sectarian strife, it is not possible to obtain written consent. It is in fact unethical to ask people in these circumstances to sign a consent form. I strongly believe, being native to the place, that although people are ready and willing to chat about most things, no one is prepared to sign any form. I found that this was the case from conducting the preliminary study. In collecting data through the questionnaire and interviews I will be accompanied by a friend who will act as a witness. Notwithstanding that, completion of the

questionnaire and participation in the interview may be taken as consent on the part of the participants.

3.5 Conclusion

The philosophical underpinning and the methodological research design of this study were presented in this chapter; specifically, the rationale for the two staged mixed method approach. In this approach, an exploratory qualitative stage to understand and develop relationships between the study's constructs. This preceded the explanatory quantitative stage, where these relationships were tested. Sampling, data collection and analytical procedures for each stage, and their credibility/validity and dependability/reliability were described. The chapter was concluded with a section on ethical issues associated with the research. In the next two chapters the results and analysis of data obtained from the two stages will be presented.

Chapter 4
Qualitative Data Analysis and Discussion

In this chapter, the process of coding data for themes and relating these themes to theoretical concepts and constructs is explained. First, coding of data obtained in the pilot study is undertaken (section 4.1). This, as mentioned in the introduction and methodology chapters, guided and helped focus the reading on the relevant literature. In Section 4.2, theme extraction from data from the interviews is undertaken.
It should be pointed out that the reader will frequently find in the data instances of prejudiced and stereotypical statements and comments about people from a different culture, which might be offensive. Nevertheless, reporting this data was necessary as the intention in this chapter was to make the participants' voices heard, but also to make it clear that the researcher is aware of the prejudices in this data.

4.1 Pilot study

Extracts from the analysis obtained from the pilot study data is shown in table 4.1. This is to help the reader follow how the process of deriving themes from the data was undertaken, and to leave a clear audit trail, thus enhancing the dependability of the findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).
A manager stated:

> Most of our guests are women; the most important thing is not to be too close or too near to them, or to have conversations with them.
> ...we do not allow talking to women because it creates problems; we enforce this issue with our workers, and the worker himself[7] is trained, he has to be clever, he must avoid women visitors but at the same time make them feel that he is serving them. He must safeguard his reputation and that of the hotel.
> ...among [guests] there are some women who like to be complemented and to be courteous to; we emphasise to the worker that there is a red line not to be crossed. We deal with everyone according to what they like, but the visitor should not cross his limit. (m1, h2)

This data was reduced to: 'keeping away from women', 'avoiding women but serving them', and 'red line with women'. The themes extracted from this data are: 'different treatment/instructions for female guests', 'insufficient service interaction', and

[7] Service employees in hotels in the holly city of Karbala are normally men.

‘inappropriate service behaviour’. These themes show evidence of the theoretical concepts/constructs of ‘employee task performance’, ‘employee treatment performance’, ‘behavioural cultural intelligence’, ‘performance constrained by culture’, ‘underdeveloped service culture’ and ‘service quality’ (Ang *et al*. 2007; Baker & Fesenmaier, 1997; Hogan & Holland, 2003; Pizam *et al*. 1997; Stewart, 2003; Tsang, 2007).

The cultural intelligence dimensions appear to feature strongly in the data; referring to guests from Lebanon, a manager retorted: “*The Lebanese guests, mostly, find that our food is unsuitable for their pallet”* (o/m, h1). In coding this statement, it was first reduced to the theme of ‘unsuitable food’, and because the Lebanese have a different food culture from that of the locals, this data was then coded to the more encompassing theme of ‘lack of knowledge of others’ food’. This lack of knowledge points to inadequate cognition ability on the part of the employee; cognition is a dimension of the theoretical construct of cultural intelligence (Ang *et al*. 2007).

Another manager stated: “*We inform the employees that a visitor or a group of visitors from specific country with such and such characteristics will be arriving”* (m1, h2). Again, this data was first coded as ‘preparing employees for serving people from other cultures’, then to the bigger theme of ‘Knowing of others’ characteristics’. Knowledge of other people’s characteristics is a meta-cognitive ability, and a dimension of cultural intelligence (Ang *et al*., 2007).

Similarly, other themes were related to the behaviour and motivation of the local employees; another hotel manager replied:

> ...but I told you, [the local employee]...works 4 or 5 months and [with the money he earns] he buys a new mobile and leaves us. And if he remains in his work, he keeps busy-ing himself with the mobile and ‘Bluetooth’ [doing very little work]; this is the problem with the Iraqi worker. ... for example, if he saved $1000 and borrowed few [coins] from [wherever he can], he buys a car and leaves work. Or, he goes and finds work in the police or the army (m1, h2).

The themes of ‘lacking motivation to work’ and exhibiting ‘inappropriate service behaviour’ (Harris, 2012) are extracted from this data. These themes are subsumed by the general theoretical concepts of motivation and behaviour. In cross-cultural interactions, motivation and behaviour are more likely to be dimensions of cultural intelligence; pointing to the importance of cultural intelligence of employees in service interactions (Ang *et al*., 2007).

The theoretical construct of employee 3Ts performance (task, treatment and tangible) also featured strongly in the data. For example, a front-line employee stated:

> Although, the British investor who visits us must be accorded special treatment ..., importantly, all [visitors] should leave us satisfied. The hotel services [encompass] in general; cleanliness and services whether inside or outside the hotel... Yes, for example, buying things for [the guests], or guiding them. (w2, h2)

From this data, the initial themes of: 'special treatment for Europeans', 'cleanliness', 'overall service inside and outside', and 'buying for and guiding guests' were derived. These lower themes were then abstracted to the higher themes of: 'special service treatment', 'doing service tasks', and 'extra service performance'. These themes displayed that the hotel's service employees do their tasks through treating their guests with tangible and intangible services. Such a performance accords with the task performance, treatment performance and tangibles performance dimensions of the employee 3Ts performance construct (Chase & Stewart, 1994; Hogan & Holland, 2003; Stewart, 2003).

Associated with the construct of service performance in hotels is the construct of service quality; the latter also featured through themes derived from the data. The following data is extracted from the perception of an outraged female foreign guest to illustrate:

> I swore I will not go again to that hotel. I mean I stayed with them 12 days, they hurt me; I quarrel with them every day, I fight with them; I told them I will expose you, [expose] your service. I used to stand in front of the reception, and shout: you have hurt me, may God hurt you. (g1, h3)

The themes of 'guest is hurt', 'she quarrels', and 'threatens to expose hotel' were extracted from this data. They were then abstracted further to the higher themes of: 'lack of empathy with guests', 'lack of responsiveness', and 'lack of assurance'; all these themes pointed to some of the dimensions of the theoretical construct of service quality.

The data and the extracted themes from this study, as shown in table 4.1 and appendix 3, suggest that the hospitality service culture in the city of Karbala was underdeveloped. Furthermore, that in the cross-cultural service encounter, front-line service employees' personal characteristics and intelligence, job performance, and the perception of foreign guests of service quality form a central part of the dynamics of these interactions. This has focused the researcher's attention on looking at the relevant theoretical constructs in greater detail and exploring their interrelationships, as seen in the literature review (chapter 2).

Table 4.1 Coding for themes and relating to the literature (extract from appendix 3)

Perception of owner/manager (M, 46) of hotel 1 – (o/m, h1)				
Column1	Column2	Column3	Column4	Column5
Interview data	Data reduction	Theme	Concept (literature)	Subsuming Construct (literature)
Bahraini people, for example, come and stay with us. Usually, these people prefer to bring their servants with them	Bahrainis bring own servants	Local service unsuitable	Task, treatment	3T performance
and we rent to them the restaurant and the kitchen and we provide for them all what they need.	Renting restaurant and kitchen	Doing tasks focusing on tangibles	Task, tangibles	3T performance
They do this, because they want someone who knows how to serve them	Someone knows how to serve	Lack of knowledge of Bahrainis' service needs	Meta-cognition Cognition	Cultural intelligence
Gulf people generally like that; they like to bring their servants with them	Gulf bring own servants	Local service unsuitable	Task, treatment	3T performance
The Lebanese guests, mostly, find that our food is unsuitable for their pallet	Unsuitable food for Lebanese	Lack of knowledge of others' food	Meta-cognition Cognition	Cultural intelligence
So, we rent to them the hotel's restaurant and the kitchen, to do whatever they want.	Renting restaurant and kitchen	Doing tasks focusing on tangibles	Task, tangibles	3T performance
Yes, we change bed sheets, clean the bathrooms, clean the rooms, bring their grocery too,	Cleaning	Doing tasks focusing on tangibles	Task, tangibles	3T Performance
and the rest of the employees go around keeping eye on things.	Keeping eye on things	Assuring guests	Assurance	Service quality

Table 4.1 (Continued)

Perception of managing director (M, 52) of hotel 2- (m1, h2)				
But this is the nature of the Iranians; the smallest of things that go wrong, and they shout this place is 'Kharab' [ruin]. Or they say it is 'kaseef' [dirty] for a small spot.	Iranians always complain	Knowing of others' characters	Meta-cognition	Cultural intelligence
The Iraqi worker requires a lot of time off work; one day his father dies, one day his mother dies, another, his brother dies; or so and so relative is ill; one day some relative broke his hand, another, his leg. The whole month, nearly fifty percent of it is lost in time off work.	Absent himself	Local worker lacks motivation to work, inappropriate service behaviour	Motivation, behaviour	Cultural intelligence
This is the Iraqi worker's problem with us, ...and as such his contact with the guest will be little.	Little contact with guests	Insufficient interaction	Task, Treatment	3T Performance
And we are obliged to train the worker because there are no courses in training in tourism. We teach him how to deal with the guests.	Training during work No tourism courses	Absence of formal tourism education	Underdeveloped service culture	Service culture
...we do not allow talking to women because it creates problems; we enforce this issue with our workers, and the worker himself is trained, he has to be clever, he must avoid women visitors but at the same time make them feel that he is serving them. He must safeguard his reputation and that of the hotel.	keeping away from women avoiding women but serving them	Different treatment/instructions for female guests Insufficient service interaction	Task performance Treatment performance Behaviour	3T performance Cultural intelligence
...among [guests] there are some women who like to be complemented and to be courteous to; we emphasize to the worker that there is a red line not to be crossed. We deal with everyone according to what they like, but the visitor should not cross his limit.	 Red line with women	 Inappropriate service behaviour	Performance constrained by culture	Underdeveloped service culture Service quality
We inform the employees that a visitor or a group of visitors from specific country with such and such characteristics will be arriving.	preparing employees for serving other cultures	Knowing of others	Meta-cognitive ability	Cultural intelligence
...but I told you, [the local employee]...works 4 or 5 months and [with the money he earns] he buys a new mobile and leaves us. And if he remains in his work, he keeps busying himself with the mobile and 'Bluetooth' [doing very little work]; this is the problem with the Iraqi worker. ... for example, if he saved $1000 and borrowed few fils from [wherever he can], he buys a car and leaves work. Or, he goes and finds work in the police or the army.	Lacking motivation to work Exhibiting inappropriate service behaviour	Motivation Behaviour	Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence

Table 4.1 (Continued)

Perception of manager (M, 40) of hotel 2 - (m2, h2)				
Although, the British investor who visits us must be accorded special treatment ... Importantly, all [visitors] should leave us satisfied. The hotel services [encompass] in general; cleanliness and services whether inside or outside the hotel... Yes, for example, buying things for [the guests], or guiding them.	Special treatment to Europeans Cleanliness Overall service Buying for and guiding guests	Special service treatment Doing service tasks Extra service performance	Task Treatment Tangibles	3T performance
Perception of guest from the Emirates, Dubai, guest 1 (F, 55) in hotel 3 – (g1, h3)				
I swore I will not go again to that hotel. I mean I stayed with them 12 days, they hurt me; I quarrel with them every day, I fight with them; I told them I will expose you, your service. I used to stand in front of the reception, and shout: you have hurt me, may God hurt you	Guest is hurt She quarrels Threatens to expose hotel	Lack of empathy with guests Lack of responsive ness Lack of assurance	Empathy Responsive ness Assurance	Service quality
They remain silent.	Met with silence	Lack of treatment	Treatment	3T Performance

4.2 Extracting themes and relating to the literature

A glimpse of how the data gave rise to a number of overarching themes and how these themes were subsumed by concepts in the literature was given in section (3.3.1.1) of the Methodology chapter and in the pilot study (section 4.1) above. Here, this process is illustrated in greater detail, following the methodological procedure explained in the Methodology chapter. The purpose was to investigate the extent to which theoretical constructs and concepts support the findings from the data and inform the analysis. The reader may also, by following this process, further audit the dependability and trustworthiness of the findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The overarching themes in cross-cultural service interactions which have emerged from the pilot study and interviews appear to have been informed by the theoretical constructs of: cultural intelligence of front-line employees, their performance as manifested in the employee 3Ts performance framework, and guests' perceptions of service quality. Furthermore, the data suggests that these constructs were interrelated within the context of underdeveloped service culture in the city of Karbala. The context and these constructs form the headings in the following analysis.

4.2.1 Underdeveloped service culture

The data showed that the theme of underdeveloped service culture seemed to permeate the service interactions between service employees and their foreign guests. Such a service culture takes a number of forms from lack of service education and training and lack of experience and expertise, to the absence of necessary infrastructure and security. The factors that may have negative influences on the tourist traffic, Wahab (2003) suggested, are: lack of infrastructure, insufficient numbers of skilled labour, and ineffective education and training programmes, amongst others. A hotel manager singled out education, training and experience, and hence the lack of service skills as major problems facing the hotel service in the city:

> The workers who work in hotels have little experience in tourism. For example, a worker without qualification works in hotels. When I am approached by a person who wants to work in hotels, I ask him: have you worked in hotels? The answer I get is: by God, no, I was a construction worker. However, we are compelled to employ him because there are no qualified workers. I haven't heard of any hotel manager who has refused to employ a person with a qualification in hospitality or tourism. Because there are no workers who are knowledgeable in hotel service, we are forced to employ what there is. And we constantly give them directions and guidance: do this, do that. (m1, h5)

The data thus suggests that service culture in hotels in the City is underdeveloped. In the context of services, Schumann, Wangenheim, Stringfellow, Yang, Blazevic, Praxmarer, Shainesh, Komor, Shannon, and Jimenez (2010) contended that the level of service quality delivered reflects the capability of the service provider based on expertise and experience. The lack of hospitality service education and consequently the lack of experience and skills, as articulated by manager 'm1, h5' below, have undermined his capability to offer hotel service of a high quality, particularly as his hotel is ranked as 4*. This manager elaborated further and lamented the shortages of skilled service workers:

> I will learn from him [a would be educated employee], for example; how he presents the glass, the cutlery; how he treats the guests; how he serves; our knowledge of all these service elements is zero. This is because there are no people who are aware in this field. For instance, a peasant with a large family, six to seven family members, has to find work; if he comes to me, I have to employ him because there is no one else. I wish that those who are responsible for tourism provide specialist cadre and force

> employment them in hotels. I also suggest that they require from the hotels to train their employees on the essentials of tourism, and work practices. Hotel service in Karbala and the rest of Iraq is zero; there is no proper service; for example, if you even looked in Baghdad (the capital) you will not find anyone who is a graduate of tourism. In the past, there was a tourism college and institute; now this does not exist. I have heard that the Department of tourism in Karbala has opened a tourism institute; and this makes me happy, because we suffer from the lack of such an institute. (m1, h5)

The shortage of skilled and experienced hospitality workers along with the absence of specialist training and educational institutions, and the disposition of the Iraqi worker regarding serving others, support the contention that the hospitality service culture in the city is underdeveloped; another manager elaborated and further emphasised this point:

> Iraq has work opportunities, but the Iraqi is not prepared to work. This is the current problem. A worker, whose knowledge and service skills are low, applies for work with us, but he is not useful to me, unless he is sponsored by a training institution which will develop him educationally and train him. Tourism service is not an easy one; it shows your heritage and culture to other people from different nationalities. I have to teach this worker how to dress. He comes to work with gelled hair, untidily dressed, his look is unacceptable, his education and his behaviour are unsuitable for representing the hotel. There should be training and educational institutions to teach him how to work and deal with customers and the manager. (m, h6)

In intercultural service encounter, the customer and the service employee interact, and their cultural backgrounds affect their behaviours and expectations. This is particularly so in services that are highly intangible and that are characterised by close consumer-service provider contact, where differences in culture can affect service quality and customer satisfaction resulting from the encounter (Mattila, 1999). Zeithaml *et al*. (1990) posited that the way culture affects perceived service quality and its influencing mechanisms is built on the assumptions that service quality subjectively depends on customers' values and beliefs. Furthermore, Furrer *et al*. (2000) found that customers' personal needs are the main determinant of perceived service quality. Lack of knowledge of the culinary requirements of important foreign guests from the gulf undermined their perception of service quality offered by the service employees of a hotel manager; this manager, using his national culture lens, provided an entirely unsuitable food, albeit very expensively; he explained:

> I had a group of guests from the Gulf; I employed a professional chef who I know to cook for them. He made a buffet of 12 types of main dishes, 10 types of starters, six to seven types of pudding and six to seven types of fruit; enough to impress anyone. The guests were impressed by the variety on offer but not by the taste of the food. I was surprised and disappointed because I spent a lot of effort and money providing large quantities of excellent food. One of them told me: look, all this effort and the money you spent on this buffet we appreciate, but did you notice that we did not eat more than two types. I asked him, why? He said: the food seems to be excellent and of high standard but it is not our food. He said take away all this food and replace it by only salads, pickles, and humus, and for the main meal give us a stuffed whole sheep; if you do this we will be appreciative many times over. The food in the buffet is strange to us, we are not accustomed to it. (o/m, h6)

The lack of knowledge, on the part of the local front-line service employee, of the service requirements of people from other cultures, and consequently the inadequate service offered, were recognised by this manager:

> Visitors come to us (to Karbala) from all countries; those who come from Europe, those from the Gulf; where they have trained tourism cadres. When these visitors come here, they are shocked with our service; and when we ask them of their views of our service; they say everything is good except the service provided by the employees. (m, h5)

This view was supported by a young Bahraini guest: "*No, they need more training to be even better, especially as the location of hotel is very good attracting visitors from different nationalities.*" (g, h5) It is evident from the data that the underdeveloped service culture in the city as manifested by the shortage of hospitality skills and expertise has a negative effect on the ability of the service provider to offer suitable services to guests from other cultures. A concern of providing services in multicultural environment, Triandis (1994) contended, is the knowledge that the intangible characteristics of services are largely influenced by the cultures of the interacting groups.
Hoecklin (1995) suggested that cultural differences can lead to misunderstanding due to differences in values, beliefs, and norms, resulting in likely differences between the customer's and the service provider's expectation during the service encounter (Liu *et al*., 2001). It appears that the notion of hospitality service is still alien to the Iraqi culture and may be seen as a demeaning work, as this manager explained:

> The Iraqi worker is arrogant; he does not want to be told, because of the tribal background. More than once I ask the worker to clean the lobby, he refuses, saying: I am a tribal man, I do not do cleaning. This is a fact, I cannot force him; I feel sorry for him and empathise with him. (m, h6)

According to Erez and Early (1993), national culture shapes the norms, thinking, attitudes and behaviours of people. Arrogance and pride appear to be a national characteristic of the Iraqi worker, embedded in the tribal values of Iraqi society, which weighs against undertaking what is seen as humiliating work of serving others, as this manager emphasised:

> The Iraqi is not suitable to be a worker; he would like, for example, to be the restaurant manager and above. We have a problem in our country; there is a loud cry about high unemployment; in reality we do not have high unemployment, what we have is arrogance. Iraqis do not work; the moment the Iraqi person gains some knowledge he becomes a lion (he becomes arrogant). The Iraqi wants to work as restaurant manager and higher, not a service worker, God created people in classes. The Iraqi has a psychological barrier, I have to break it to make him do the work; I do moping, he then takes the mop from my hand and starts cleaning; he wants to work without feeling humiliated; we have a shortage of experience in tourism. You go to Lebanon and Syria and you find a high level of service; the Iraqi does not have the service culture; he does not know how to appropriately explain things. (m, h6)

There is thus ample evidence from the data to suggest that the service culture, which Grönroos (1990) defined as valuing good service and offering it to all customers unconsciously, may not be a way of life, nor an important norm of the Iraqi society. This is further illustrated by data from a hotel manager, who in comparing the Iraqi with the Indian service worker pointed out that: *"the Iraqi worker only likes to chat. It is through employing Indians that the service sector in the Gulf has progressed and developed"* (o/m, h6). In contrast, he reproaches the Iraqi worker for lack of motivation to undertake service work:

> The Iraqi worker is not motivated to work; he does not know how to work, he has no motivation; he works just to get money. When he works he gets a shock; some worker says: I am a cook, I do not serve customers. In contrast, although I am the owner of the hotel, I serve; for example, I bring water to my customers. (o/m, h6)

This manager berated restaurant staff for their shortage of knowledge of service culture and inappropriate service behaviour; he cited an example:

> For example, if the food service is delayed, he [the service employee] will say to the guest: "The food is cold and we are heating it", instead of saying that we want to prepare for the best meal. Or the guests ask for more starter foods, he [the service employee] will say: "Yes, we have plenty of starter food; it is better to serve it than to throw it in the bin." This is his logic and how he communicates with the guest. We need our workers to be trained in service culture, in language, and even in the way they serve. (o/m, h6)

The above data indicates that the Iraqi service employee does not appreciate or offer good service to customers; and to him good service does not come naturally as it does not seem to be in his culture (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000).The lack of motivation to serve on the part of the Iraqi worker and the absence of alternative service workers leaves hotel managers with no choice other than employing and keeping the Iraqi worker: "*But we are easy on our workers, because if we are not, they will leave us"* (m1, h5). Thus while the manager intended to offer the required hospitality service to his guests, his intention was undermined by the unwillingness and inability of his front-line service employees to do so. This misalignment between the employee's actual service orientation and the perceived orientation of management, Baydoun *et al*. (2001) noted, may result in the employee's frustration and job dissatisfaction; a state which was well illustrated in the data.

Furthermore, in a cross-cultural service environment, service organisations encounter problems in delivering their service to different cultures (Mwaura, Sutton, & Roberts, 1998). A major problem in the hospitality industry is the ability to communicate with customers from different cultures. This problem is heightened by the underdeveloped service culture, manifested in parts, by the difficulty of communicating with foreign guests because of language barriers. It is expressed well by a hotel receptionist in describing one of the front-line employees: "*I depend on him 50%-60%; his experience is not enough, and his language does not help. If you have a strong knowledge of language, you can convince the other party, but if the language is weak, you cannot"* (w, h7)*.* In weighing the language problem facing his hotel, this receptionist added:

> Our problem in Iraq is generally ignorance in everything. Most who I work with speak the colloquial language only. If the foreign visitor speaks English or Iranian, we have one or two employees who he can communicate with. As for the other staff, there is hardly any opportunity of communicating with the visitor. There is only one person who can speak Iranian; so if we have an Iranian group of visitors and our staff is composed of Iraqi workers, it is difficult; and if we have an English group of visitors, it is only me who can communicate with them. (w, h7)

A cultural setting or environment which offers a good service culture in a culturally diverse setting would suggest high task performance and high cultural intelligence (Ang *et al*., 2003; and others) on the parts of the service employees operating in that environment.

It is widely agreed among academics that culture influences peoples' attitude and behaviour (e.g., Tsang, 2007), and in cross cultural service environment it shapes the way customers evaluate services and the way front-line service employees interact with customers from other culture (Zeithmal & Bitner, 2000) . In the city of Karbala the culture of the place bears heavily on how the front-line service employees interact with foreign guests; this influence is vividly revealed by a hotel receptionist. His response shows how the view about women in the Iraqi culture is different from that of the Iranian guests, and this view strongly colours this receptionist and his co-workers behaviour in their service encounter with Iranians:

> The Iranian visitor does what his wife wants. Sometimes, they both happen to be in the hotel lobby; he bargains about the price, then goes to ask his wife, and she sends him again to me for more bargaining. This thing I dislike; because the man is supposed to be strong in stature; he leaves in the morning for work, he toils; and the woman's role is motherly and caring, even in the present time, where she might have become a lawyer or a doctor; she does not forget her role; she remains the caring person in the house. The man's place is not in the house. The Iraqi woman is not like the Iranian woman; In Iran unlike in Iraq, if the outside bell rings, the woman answers it and chats with the caller, like a man does.(w, h7)

In cross cultural service environment, service firms face the challenge of maintaining consistency in the provision of services, as well as adjusting to different cultural preferences. Culture, Riddle (1992) argued, should not be considered as an obstacle to doing business with different cultural groups; rather these firms may incorporate cultural considerations in their service through learning and training. However, the

culture of the place may make it difficult to maintain consistency of service and adjustment to the service needs of guests from different cultures, as shown in a front-line employee's remarks:

> We are in a religious city, the visitor who is not here for religious purposes is still a guest, I serve him until he leaves, even if his behaviour is not acceptable in our society; I accept that because of my job. For example, some guests ask for unacceptable service, I say to them there are workers who can do it for you. (w, h5)

Emphasising an earlier response by a hotel manager regarding the cultural character of the Iraqi worker, the difficulty with changing this character, and the need for training; this receptionist elaborated:

> The Iraqi worker's nature is difficult; it is difficult for him to change his behaviour. My dealing with my staff is more difficult than with guests; the Iraqi worker is arrogant in his dealing with others; also gaining experience requires years, and one becomes more experienced gradually as each day you gain a new knowledge. (w, h7)

Referring to his head waiter, a manager from another hotel found the Iraqi worker unsuitable for service work: *"The head-waiter waits on them [guests]; but the one I have is not of the level that I want. I have tried to teach him but he is not very bright, not the level you aspire for in a head-waiter"* (m2, h5). Nevertheless, this manager emphasised that he prefers employing the Iraqi worker because of his personal traits, whose service behaviour, the manager believes, can change through training and education*: "I need the Iraqi worker more than the foreign worker, because I prefer the native worker, his goodness of self and his morals; if only he learns."* (m2, h5) Chen *et al*. (2000), and Ang *et al*. (2007) argued that while personality characteristics are not task or context specific and that they are stable over time, they can nevertheless be manifested in certain tasks and situations , where they become state-like and more malleable (see Bandura, 1997). Tsang (2007) indicated that in the hospitality industry, culture is central for the quality of service delivery; it requires an understanding of the characteristics of service provider organisations so that a service culture can be developed to enhance the provision and consistency of service.

A negative factor that influences the traffic of tourists in the Middle East, Wahab (2003) suggested, is the low level of environmental conditions in some towns and localities. The underdeveloped service culture in the city of Karbala, clearly demonstrated in the

empirical data gathered, though rooted in the culture of the place, nevertheless, cannot be separated from low environmental conditions caused by political and security problems which plighted Iraq over the last 45 years. The adverse effect of security on the hospitality service is exemplified by what a foreign visitor would have to endure in the high season; narrated by a hotel owner:

> The problems that occur are usually outside and before they [visitors] reach the hotel; for example, transport. The Gulf or the Lebanese visitors, in the high season, cannot enter the City in their cars or coaches, as you know, for security reasons. They have to leave their cars at the City's borders, about 15km-30 km away and, rent a push cart. They pay $300-$400 for the cart. So, the guests arrive at the hotel unhappy, and they direct all their anger at the hotel staff, as it is the last place in their journey. We, in this case provide all the available services. I will not allow the generator to stop in order that the guests feel comfortable even though there is 6 or 7 hours power cut. (o/m, h1)

Iraq has also suffered from long years of sanction and isolation imposed by the international community in the aftermath of Saddam's regime's invasion of Kuwait, and from the devastating war with Iran; both impacted negatively on the hospitality infrastructure, service culture and consequently the behaviour and attitudes of people. The affliction of these causes on Iraqi people and the hospitality industry is described by a hotel receptionist:

> These foreign visitors are organised, dignified, even if there is a shortcoming in the service they do not complain. But if they need to speak, I will have to be there. The reason is because we have been confined and isolated from the world. Saddam Hussain did not allow us to travel abroad. We did not work in our fields. We here are isolated in our country; Saddam's regime made us confined within our country. People from other countries have progressed during the 35 years of our isolation; the changes that they went through we did not go through. When they visit us, even if I can learn 1% from them through my interaction with them, this will increase my understanding....
> A month ago I went to the French embassy to obtain a visa .... I was asked why I was travelling to France. I said, in truth, I am not going for business, I am only going to discover and find the differences between the people who live there and between us, so that we can understand why things are clean over there, the way they communicate. We lack knowledge of the world; we are deprived people, our language is hostile; we live in a pre-medieval time: swords and spears. (w, h7)

Mattlia (1999) and Liu *et al*. (2000) noted that culture impacts customer expectations of service quality. In examining the service provider's actual service orientation which shapes its employees, such as; attitudes, behaviour, values, and beliefs, McDaniel and Frei (1994) pointed to organisational climate and individual personality characteristics as two important factors that influence the service provider's inclination to offer quality customer service.

The above discussion about the state of hospitality service in Karbala, derived from the empirical data suggests that there is a relationship between service culture and service quality (Furrer *et al*., 2000; Tsang, 2007; Zhang *et al*., 2008). Tsang (2007) established a direct relationship between service culture and the attitudinal and behavioural responses of front-line service employees. In the latter he included role ambiguity, role conflict, employee self-efficacy and adaptability. In cross cultural service interactions, as the cited literature showed, front-line service employees need to develop service culture and acquire knowledge of other peoples' culture. In the city of Karbala, evidenced by the data, the hospitality service culture is underdeveloped; summed up by one manager: "*I have travelled to many countries; Iraq is completely different than these countries; it is not organised, there are no rules. In the neighbouring Asian countries and the Gulf, if things are not organised they will not take place".* (m, h8)

4.2.2 Front-line service employees: Cultural knowledge, attitudes and behaviours

The data obtained from the interview respondents strongly indicates that in cross cultural service interaction, the role of front-line service employees' knowledge of other people's cultures, their behaviour, and motivation are central to the service quality they offer to foreign guests. Indeed, a hotel owner-manager emphasised the importance of these characteristics, particularly, in the receptionists he employed; he stated: "*The receptionist I chose based on: his experience, intelligence, level of education, his background, the way he talks, ability to be endearing, and his knowledge of how to behave in different circumstances"*. (o/m, h6) Some of these desired characteristics were also displayed by front-line employees. For example, possession of knowledge of other people's culture was apparent from the response of a head-receptionist of a hotel:

> The Turkish person is very peaceful and calm; but the Iranians are hostile. Sometimes, we have an Iranian guest who would open the fridge and shouts: the fridge is kharab [ruin] [he says the fridge is 'ruin' as an insolent word because it is empty]. Another guest would say: there is no bath in the room; not seeing the bathroom door, so I went and showed him the bathroom door. The Iranian visitor does what his wife wants.

> Sometimes, they both happen to be in the hotel lobby; he bargains about the price, then goes to ask his wife, and she sends him again to me for more bargaining. (w, h7)

Cognitive knowledge of culture, as perceived by this hotel receptionist, is extracted from the themes of the 'Iranians are hostile' and the 'Turkish are calm'. Such knowledge is also evident in one receptionist's statement regarding the Iranian guests' perception of his hotel service: *"But this is the nature of the Iranians; the smallest of things that go wrong and they shout this place is 'Kharab' (ruin). Or they say it is 'kaseef' (filthy) for a small spot".* (w, h1) The receptionist in hotel 7 also showed knowledge of the social status and values of guests from different parts of the Gulf:

> The Bahraini and Saudi visitors compared with other Gulf people are relatively poor. Among the Gulf people there is tension; for example, we have a group of Saudi visitors and a group of Kuwaiti visitors; any service we offer the Kuwaitis annoys the Saudis. The Saudis reproach us by saying: why do you give them better service, is it because they have money? There is tension between them. The Kuwaiti feels that his money can get him everything. I understand a person from the first moment I meet him, I can read his face. I am a psychologist, I can read the face, and I can quickly understand the person.(w, h7)

Another receptionist (w, h5) also has awareness of his ability to acquire knowledge about the social status of guests from other cultures, as shown in one of his statements: "....*we had a group who live in Dubai but originally from Kazakhstan, who are staying with us. When I told them of the high cost of staying in our hotel, they were not surprised; I knew they wouldn't"* (w, h5). The theme of awareness of one's own 'knowledge of the social status' of people from other cultures indicates a meta-cognitive ability (Earley & Ang, 2003). This front-line employee's awareness of this knowledge suggests that he had mental processes which he used to acquire and understand cultural knowledge, and that he possessed high order thinking enabling him to exercise control over cognitive processes and enhance his learning about a new culture (Ang *et al*., 2007).

Pointing to the skills required for a receptionist, an owner/manager of a different hotel showed his knowledge of guests from different cultures; he stated:

> ...the secret of a successful receptionist is his ability to deal with people at their level, and in their own language. For example, the Bahraini likes people to share life with him, sit with him, eat and drink with him; he is sociable. The Kuwaiti does not, he likes to dominate, he is irritated 24 hours, and nothing is to his liking. The Emirati's nature is Bedouin, you can also live with him easily, but the Kuwaitis are after prestige, they are pain. I told them in their face "you are more of a pain than any other visitors", but I know how to deal with them. (o/m, h6)

This owner/manager felt he was conscious of cultural knowledge and appeared to use and adjust it when interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds, however, he does not appear to use this knowledge to behave appropriately in these service situations: *"...but the Kuwaitis are after prestige*, *they are pain, I told them in their face "you are more of a pain than any other visitors"*, nor did he appear to check the accuracy of his cultural knowledge as he interacted with people from different cultures (Early & Ang, 2003). The theme of 'knowledge of culture' of people from different cultural backgrounds is, according to Ang *et al*. (2007), a meta-cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence. Although this manager shows a meta-cognitive knowledge of the culture of other people, he, nevertheless, did not seem to exhibit behaviour in a culturally intelligent way; behaviour is a cultural intelligence dimension (Early & Ang, 2003). This dimension will be more elaborated shortly in this section, evidenced by more data from respondents.

Alongside the meta-cognitive knowledge of the cultures of foreign guests, knowledge of their language has strongly featured in the data as an important aspect of service interaction with them; a manager stated:

> The most important language is Persian. I am fluent in Persian, but not very strong in English. I can deal with English speaking visitors as much as the work needs. As for the Gulf, we have no problem with the language, but we also talk with them in their colloquial language. Because if you speak with them in their colloquial language, they feel pleased. Also the Lebanese and Syrians [like to be talked to in their colloquial language]. (m, h8)

The headwaiter who works in the hotel run by the above manager concurred: "*Every person behaves differently; when I worked here, I got to know them. But most, it is important for me to know their language. From practice, I have learnt at most, some*

words of compliment". (w1, h8) In evaluating the performance of his front-line employees, a manager from another hotel again highlighted the importance of language, among other things, in the service encounter with foreign guests:

> I have three front-line employees. Yes, Faris' performance is different; he is better than the others. He has command of the English language, which makes the foreign visitor feel comfortable with us. Faris always attempts to improve his performance, whenever he has the chance to do so. When he joined us he did not know how to speak Iranian, but by time and through practice, now he speaks it better than us. (m1, h5)

It is also apparent from this manager's response that he recognised that his receptionist, Faris, not only has knowledge of a number of foreign languages, but also the motivation to keep on learning and improving this knowledge (this employee will be referred to again under motivational cultural intelligence later in this section). Faris, himself, recognised the importance of knowing other people's language for his service role, and he was motivated to learn; he stated:

> I am a teacher of the Kurdish language and have knowledge of the Iranian language, as well as, general knowledge of a number of languages. I know that language plays a big role in communicating with people; as the Prophet says: "He who learns the language of a people is safe of their intrigues." When I know the language of other people, things become clear to me. ..... Ah! very comfortable, for example we have Indian, Kuwaiti, Kazakhstani guests; I speak four languages with them, and I am very happy. I improve my language with them, and I become very sad when they leave. One time, one of the guests, who has just departed, came back, I was very happy, but it turned out that he has forgotten something. I said to him I thought you wanted to extend your stay with us. (w, h5)

The theme of 'knowledge of language' is extracted from the ability of this receptionist to speak English, Iranian and other languages. This receptionist's ability to learn and speak many foreign languages indicates a cognitive ability.

It is evident that, in cross-cultural service interactions, front-line employees need to have knowledge of foreign languages to establish mutual understanding between them and their foreign guests; this was also recognised as central in the hospitality service in cross cultural environment, as another manager emphasised: "*Especially, as people from all nationalities come to us, we need to be able to speak English, Iranian, and*

other languages. In my workers, I first need knowledge of language" (m2, h5). Congruence in expectations between the service provider and the customer in a service encounter, research has shown (e.g., Bitner *et al*., 1994), is positively related to mutual understanding, where behavioural uniformity is likely to take place. A receptionist demonstrated such congruence:

> For example, if I have Kuwaiti guests; I talk with them in their own accent; they like that. I use their local words. They become more comfortable, I make them feel they are among their families. Generally, the Arabs are like that; the Kuwaitis, Saudis, Omanis, Bahrainis, I talk with them in their own accents. I find they open up when I do that, barriers disappear, and they start to trust me. (w, h5)

Congruence or mutual understanding with people from other cultures, on the other hand, is not always easily obtainable, as cultural differences can produce discrepancy in guest-service provider expectations (Stauss & Mang, 1999). This is demonstrated in a manager's response relating to the interaction with guests from other cultures; in contrast to the other managers cited above, this manager found difficulty in understanding the service requirement of these guests: "*Because, they come, for example, from Bahrain or Kuwait we do not know what they want".* (m, h6) Similarly, the lack of knowledge of foreign languages is seen by a receptionist from another hotel as detrimental to effective communication with the guests:

> Our problem in Iraq is generally ignorance in everything. Most who I work with speak the colloquial language only. If the foreign visitor speaks English or Iranian, we have one or two employees who he can communicate with. As for the other staff, there is hardly any opportunity of communicating with the visitors. There is only one person who can speak Iranian; so if we have an Iranian group of visitors and our staff is composed of Iraqi workers, it is difficult; and if we have an English group of visitors, it is only me who can communicate with them. (w, h7)

In emphasising the importance of knowing foreign languages in service encounters with guests from other cultures, this receptionist elaborated:

> I do not speak good Arabic with everyone; I talk with every person at his level so that he can understand me. The simple person, I have to come down to his level so he can

> understand me; and sometimes we have a minister and things are different. ...The Turkish language, I do not know; and a lot of Turkish people come here.(w, h7)

The data also shows other front-line workers who felt that they did not need to know foreign languages in their service encounters with guests; surprisingly, a restaurant head waiter seemed to hold this view; he relayed: "*No [I do not speak foreign languages], not very much. Guests' requests in the restaurant are understandable, and I can meet them. The guest from the Gulf is different from the Iranian guest; every visitor has a special behaviour*." (w1, h8) A maintenance employee in the same hotel concurred with this head-waiter:

> I know as much as I need for my work. I understand; I know work words. Language does not mean anything to me; only within my work; and most of the visitors can speak Arabic. Even the Iranian group we have here, ten of them can speak Arabic. I think our service is satisfactory and only few visitors who show dissatisfaction. (w2, h8)

The theme of lack of knowledge of foreign languages, as shown by the data from these front-line service employees, suggests a low cognitive cultural intelligence. Knowledge of foreign language indicates a cultural cognitive ability on the part of the front-line service employee, and lack of it shows the absence of such ability; cognition is a dimension of cultural intelligence (Ang *et al.*, 2007; Petersen, 2004).
The hotel receptionist, Faris, referred to earlier, demonstrated not only a cognitive ability of knowledge of others people's language; according to his manager, he also "*attempts to improve his performance, whenever he has the chance to do so*" (m1, h5). This receptionist seemed to concur with his manager's evaluation of his own readiness to improve himself; he stated: "*I am very happy. I improve my language with them [the foreign guests], and I become very sad when they leave*". The theme of 'willingness and motivation' to learn other languages (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997) is clearly visible in this data. Another receptionist saw learning benefits from his service interactions with guests from other cultures, and this motivated him:

> I worked here and learnt through working. I learnt from the foreign guests' cultures through working here. There is a saying for Imam Ali: "He who is obstinate in his view perishes", and another saying: "He who confers with other men, gains from sharing their knowledge". The foreign visitors' culture is different than ours. (w, h7)

The motivation theme recurred throughout the data; here, a manager vividly related the motivation of his receptionist through the themes of 'being malleable', and ability to 'lighten [people's] burdens':

> ...he is in the habit of always asking about things; and he is malleable, unlike some people who are rigid in nature. When I tell him to do something, if he is convinced it is right, he will do 90% of it; if he is not convinced, he will discuss it with me until he convinces me of his position. He usually lightens my burdens. (o/m, h6)

The glowing portrayal of this receptionist by his manager indicates high self-efficacy on the part of the receptionist, where self- efficacy is viewed by Bandura (1997) and Tsang (2007) as individuals' beliefs in their ability to perform job related tasks. Similarly, another manager contrasted the motivation of his receptionists, through the theme of 'likes work', and 'exact time' or 'conscientiousness': *"The receptionist is able to deal with visitors from various nationalities. He likes his work; when he goes on holiday, he comes back exactly in the agreed time. In contrast, other employees are not so exact; when they are supposed to be back, they call with an excuse."* (m, h8) In the cross cultural hospitality service environment of the city, front-line employees' ability, willingness and motivation to learn and change would suggest that they are culturally intelligent (Earley & Ang, 2003). DeNisi & Pritchard (2006) found that individuals with high motivational cultural intelligence are genuinely more interested and open to new cultural experience and more able to direct attention and energy toward cross-cultural interactions.

In addition to motivation, the behaviour of front-line service employees in the multi-cultural environment of the hospitality industry in the city has also recurred in the data. One manager strongly recognised that his front-line employees must also exhibit appropriate behaviour in their service encounter with guests: *"...also how they look, their manners....they must bear with the guests, whatever the guests do, they are in the right; this is known in tourism. The workers must have patience, long-term thinking, and able to absorb the guest's anger*." (m2, h5) In this data, the themes of: 'employee's manners', 'bearing with guests', 'having patience', and 'ability to absorb anger', all point to what is seen as the appropriate behaviour required from service employees. Such characteristics seem to be recognised by a Bahraini guest in the same hotel; this guest described the receptionists of the hotel: *"Yes, they are nice, tidy; their behaviour is good, and always smiling. The three of them are the same; their demeanour is*

welcoming." (G, h5) Wall and Berry (2007) found that in the restaurant industry, the behaviour of the service provider strongly influences guests' perception of service quality.

Another manager also emphasised the importance of appropriate service behaviour in describing the qualities of his receptionist:

> The receptionist I chose based on his experience, intelligence, level of education, his background, the way he talks, ability to be endearing, and his knowledge of how to behave in different circumstances. He [one of the receptionists] experienced some embarrassing situations but was able to manage these situations and turned them into jokes which brought smiles to the guests' faces. (o/m, h6)

Using a smiling score for service provider and customer, as well as a survey of customer mood, quality, and satisfaction, Barger and Grandey (2006) found that the customer's assessment of the quality of the encounter is influenced by the service provider's affect. From this manager's response, the themes of: 'way of talking', 'being endearing', 'managing embarrassing situations', and 'bringing smile to people's faces', are extracted. Behaviour, according to Sternberg (1986), refers to visible, overt actions of what people do in different cultural situations. Furthermore, Ang *et al.* (2007) saw behavioural cultural intelligence as the extent to which an individual acts appropriately, verbally and non-verbally, in new cultural settings. Referring to the reception staff of the same hotel, a Bahraini guest concurred with the manager's assessment of the receptionists' behaviour, and also recognised their cognitive ability in cross cultural service encounters: *"Both of them have a calm nature, wide horizon, and patience; they know how to deal with Iranians, Gulf people, Kuwaitis, Bahrainis. For them, every problem has a solution; this is the differentiating characteristics of the hotel.*" (g, h6) From this guest's response, the themes that emerged were: 'having calm nature', 'having wide horizon', 'having patience', 'dealing with people from other cultures', and 'solving problems'. In addition to evaluating the behavioural and cognitive abilities of his reception staff, this same manager, referring to his abilities, stressed the importance of cognitive and behavioural characteristics in the service interactions with people from other cultures:

> The Gulf visitor does not adapt, he requires people to understand him. I have to understand my guests so that I can deal with them; I must know what they like, what they dislike, guess their behaviour and action. For example, some guests like to eat

> quite a lot, and as they arrive hungry I prepare more food for them... If they arrive tired, I do what is suitable for them. For example, they would like a rich supper, I prepare rich supper; for lunch they would like mutton, I make mutton without asking them. I also talk to them using respectable titles, for example; welcome Haj[8] Mohammed. This makes a difference, the guest enjoys this, he feels he is important and being cared for. However, the Kuwaitis do not like to be called by their names; they prefer that you use: 'welcome Haj' or welcome sir only without adding their name to it. In contrast, the Bahraini would very much like to be called welcome Abu[9] Hassan, welcome Abu Mohammed; he enjoys this and feels happy. Our receptionist knows these differences and he acts accordingly. (o/m, h6)

The behaviour themes that were extracted from this manager's response include: 'dealing with guest', 'preparing more food', 'doing what is suitable', 'welcoming', and 'talking respectfully'. In addition, this data shows the cognitive themes of: 'understanding guest', and 'guess guest's behaviour'. This manager was sensitive to the cultural nuances of his guests; he exhibited flexibility where he was able to change his behaviour to meet the needs of the cultural situation he found himself in (Gudykunst *et al*., 1988). There is thus ample evidence in the data to suggest that behaviour and cognition played a central part in the interactions with foreign guests. Another example is given by a response from a receptionist:

> Once I know that a group of people from a particular country is arriving, I prepare myself and I prepare a programme for them. For example, Kuwaiti guests are arriving, they like to watch football; I know there is a football match between the Emirates and Kuwait. So, I change the TV to the channels that show this game, and I made available nuts and juices that they like to have while watching the game. The Saudis also like to watch football but not to the same extent as the Kuwaitis. The Iranians, dealing with them is very difficult, especially if you do not communicate with them in their own language. (w, h5)

Furthermore, other behavioural themes, such as: 'accommodating Israeli[10] visitors', 'jesting with guest', 'befriending guest', 'getting along with guest', and 'having dialogue

[8] The title 'Haj' means 'pilgrim'. Men address each other using this title, Haj, to show respect.
[9] The title 'Abu' means 'father of' followed by the eldest son's name; for example, if the eldest name is Hassan, the person is referred to as Abu Hassan. Again this title is used to show respect.
[10] By saying 'accommodating Israeli visitors', this receptionist shows openness and willingness to receive even Israelis; not normally acceptable in a strict Islamic environment.

with guest', are easily obtainable from the following data from a receptionist's response:

> Even if an Israeli visitor comes to me, I can accommodate him in my hotel in two seconds; I can jest with him, befriend him, bring him to my point of view. If a visitor's face is unreadable, he is not endearing from the start, and if his face is grumpy; I can always get along with him, and usually in the second or third day of his stay, he opens up as his inner crisis lessens through my dialogue with him. It is an illness; any arrogant person who feels he is better than anybody, he has an illness, because there is no one who is better than anyone else; "God blesses a person who knows his standing." (w, h7)

Although appropriate service behaviour with foreign guests was emphasised in the data shown above and the themes derived from it, other data pointed to inappropriate service behaviour. Describing the behaviour of his receptionist, head-waiter, and other service employees; a manager stated:

> I have the restaurant headwaiter and the maintenance man, and the service workers. The receptionist's way of dealing with guests is calm and ordered; he does things calmly. The headwaiter is opposite; he works hard, he does everything well, but he is irritable, gets nervous easily; if I employ him in the reception, I am sure he will create problems with the guests... There are times when he becomes irritated; for example, if an Iranian guest sees an apple which looks to them dirty, they say "kaseef", and the headwaiter takes the apple and throws it away in front of the visitor. The visitor will get nervous; so I say to the headwaiter, in such cases, apologise to the guest and wash the apple even if you think it is clean; because the customer is right even if he was wrong. We teach our employees not to argue with the guests, and always say "yes".... The headwaiter is good, except for one thing; his education is weak and it affects everything he does. He is my relative, his experience in managing the restaurant is strong; he knows how to deal with the Iranian visitors. In these matters he renders service to me. He is honest. (m, h8)

The inappropriate service behaviour themes that are apparent in this data include: 'being irritable', 'getting nervous', 'creating problems with guests', and 'arguing with guest'. Data obtained from the maintenance employee of this hotel confirms the manager's view of some of his employees' behaviour in their interactions with guests:

> The simplest of things, for example, these [Iranian] guests do not understand that the air-condition needs 3 minutes to switch on the compressor. They do not understand; sometimes I am patient, sometimes I get irritated. I attempt to remain patient and leave the room; after a short while, I come back and try to make the guest understand. He then apologises for irritating me; and I in turn also apologise for my irritation. (w2, h8)

The above data suggests that the headwaiter and the maintenance employees did not possess high behavioural cultural intelligence, as they did not exhibit appropriate behaviour in the cultural surrounding they found themselves in. They did not appear to have a broad range of behavioural capabilities, such as; culturally appropriate words, symbols, tone, gestures and facial expressions (Gudykunst *et al*., 1988; Reisinger &Turner, 1998a, 1998b). As seen earlier in the Literature Review chapter, behaviour in a cross-cultural environment is a dimension of cultural intelligence; it measures the extent to which an individual acts appropriately, verbally and non-verbally, in different cultural settings (Earley & Ang, 2003).

In contrast, however, the data showed that behavioural and attitudinal problems encountered with service interactions with foreign guests were not observed in interacting with guests from the same culture. This is evidenced by data from a number of respondents; it is also supported by Hofstede's (1991: 5) view of culture as a "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another". It gives rise to shared cultural values which influence cognitions of people from the same culture and lead to shared behavioural patterns, and similar cognitive processes (Triandis, 1994). A response from a hotel manager illustrated this:

> As for the Iraqi guest, he is one of us, I understand him and he understands me; I only have to look at his face to know what he wants.... For example, if your brother and a stranger come to see you, who do you show more welcome for? Of course you show more welcome for the stranger; because your brother you know well and he knows you well. (m, h5)

A hotel owner-manager concurred with the view expressed above: *"… the Iraqi guests we do not have a problem with, because they know the situation."* (o/m, h1); so did one of his mangers: *"We inform the employees that a visitor or a group of visitors from a specific place with such and such characteristics will be arriving; of course we do not have to tell them if the visitors are Iraqis."* (m, h1)

An owner-manager of another hotel, heaped praise on the Iraqi guests by recounting, what he saw, as differentiating characteristics:

> …the Iraqi guest is different from the guest from the Gulf. I believe that the Iraqi guest is the most cultured; not because I am biased, but the Iraqi guest has nice characteristics, not found in many other foreign visitors. For example, the Iraq person who normally wears the dishdasha (Arab robe) here, when he visits Europe he changes his dress, because he is able to adapt. The Iraqi guest, who comes to us, upon seeing that the place is classy, in general behaves in a sophisticated way. (o/m, h6)

The perceived satisfaction of the local Iraqi guests with hotel services appeared to have motivated service employees to serve these guests well; a headwaiter stated: *"The Iraqis, we look after very well; but the behaviour of the Kuwaitis and the Iranians is not acceptable"* (w, h8) Other participants expressed similar sentiments: *"The visitors that we feel most comfortable with are the Iraqis."* (m, h3) A manager saw tipping by Iraqi guests as a further demonstration of their satisfaction with the service: *"Generally, most visitors who tip the workers are the Iraqi visitors because they leave us comfortable and satisfied more than the foreign visitors."* (m, h2)

4.2.3 Front-line employees' performance

The theme of 'underdeveloped service culture' in the city is reflected in the level of service offered by the front-line service employees, as one manager stated*: "He [the Iraqi worker] does his tasks well, perhaps not as well as he should; Iraqi workers never do. But we are easy on our workers, because if we are not, they will leave us."* (m, h5) Highlighting the theme of 'task performance', this manager suggests that in doing his task, the Iraqi service employee does not work with energy, does not exhibit required efforts, and does not show concern for quality (Hogan & Holland, 2003). The inclination of the Iraqi service employee to do some tasks and not other tasks led some foreign guests to bring their servants with them; this can be seen from an owner-manager's comments, where it is clear that although his front-line employees do their tasks well, they however, do not do all the required hospitality tasks: *"When the Bahrainis arrive with their servants, I know I don't have to do more than the cleaning, and of course I have to have a maintenance person, and a receptionist, and another employee to look after whatever needed. This is what I generally do when I have people from the Gulf."* (o/m, h1) The theme of 'doing limited tasks' emerges from this data, and shows that the hotel owner-manager might have not been aware of the multiplicity of tasks required to

be performed in a hotel service, particularly, as these tasks are not normally very well defined or standardised, and, therefore, their evaluation is rather subjective (Stewart, 2003). Nevertheless, the view of this hotel owner that his front-line employees performed their tasks well was reinforced by one of his managers, suggesting that the required tasks are done correctly and promptly (Chase & Stewart, 1994): *"Before the visitors arrive, we prepare everything; we prepare the room fully, and the bathroom. So, there is no problem, we are in control of the situation. But sometimes, arriving families, their children soil the bed sheets; in these cases our response is immediate; we change the sheets."* (m, h1) The theme 'ensuring cleanliness' emerges from this data, and suggests that the main concern of these managers was to ensure that the service employees were doing the cleaning work, as clearly stated by a manager from another hotel: *"The hotel service in general [is about] cleanliness … whether inside or outside the hotel."* (m, h2) Cleaning as a hospitality service is a routine activity and comes to managers with little conscious thinking. Stewart and Chase (1999) posited that common activities, characteristics of routine situations are handled at skill-based level of control; at this level, the individual operates with minimum conscious intervention. This, they argued, because the actions required for a familiar activity are stored as a complete internalised script, which when consciously evoked, continues with little additional conscious intervention.

Nevertheless, not all routine activities are seen as routine activities, because not all the individuals who perform them have experience in doing them. Comparing the performance of his receptionists, a manager affirmed the importance of the theme of 'experience' for an activity to be routine: *"The morning receptionist has experience; he has previously worked in the hotel service. All of them do their tasks well, but this receptionist does not need guidance and direction; in difficult situations he normally acts without asking me for direction; and I have given him authority to act. In contrast, the afternoon receptionist contacts me in difficult situations; and the evening receptionist contacts me twice before acting."* (m, h5)

Alongside their tasks, the performance of front-line employees can also be manifested in the way they treat their guests; a hotel owner manger advised on what he saw as good treatment performance: "*You have to inform the guest that it [the food] is going to be delayed; and it is better if you do not tell the guest how long the delay is, but try to make them busy with other things until the food arrives. I faced this problem once*."(o/m, h6) Good treatment, Stewart (2003) emphasised, is, particularly, important in services

where cultural differences exist between service employees and customers, and where the service situation is emotionally charged or stressful. A restaurant head waiter stated: "*You have to deal with him [the guest] in a nice way, you should not offend him; anything he asks for, you should do."* (w, h8) From this data the theme 'dealing nicely with guests' indicates appropriate treatment, which requires exhibiting courteous behaviour (Chase & Stewart, 1994), and showing positive attitude (Hogan & Holland, 2003). The manager of the hotel where this headwaiter worked, showed how he tries, by giving guests some free service, to make them stay in his hotel: *"... a group of Iranian visitors have arrived, I was out. As I arrived at the hotel, I found they were leaving. In my way I have persuaded them to stay and have lunch for free. I told them, after you have your lunch you may decide whether you want to stay or leave. After lunch... they stayed."* (m, h8) In this data, the theme of 'offering free lunch' indicates special treatment performance on the part of this manger to gain positive perceptions from the guests; displaying appropriate attitude, intention, and action in the service encounter (Stewart, 2003). The intention of this manager to offer special treatment was clearly displayed in a further statement: *"For example, if a guest arrives and I just say "welcome", he will not feel comfortable, but if I personally approach the guest and ask him to sit down and rest, offer him water and juice, he will feel at ease. But if I am tense, he will leave the hotel, and my communication with him will be very limited."* (m, h8) Although this manager gave the impression that his hotel offered appropriate and special treatment to guests, there were indications that his front-line service employees did not offer the intended special treatment; this is shown in a statement made by the headwaiter of this hotel: *"Guests ask for some strange dishes; we give them what is available."* (w, h8)

Treatment can also be displayed through the emotions of the service employee; the importance of emotions in the service encounter was emphasised by a manager from another hotel: "*Usually, when a guest arrives, we meet him with a smile, not with a grumpy face; for example, I might have been tense and angry because of a worker's doing, or someone might have irritated me, I do not let the guest feel my irritation*." (m, h7) This data gives rise to the theme of 'smile' as central to treatment in the service encounter, and shows awareness, on the part of the manager, of the effect of his emotion in interacting with his guests. 'Smile', being at the heart of treatment in the service encounter, occurred many times in the data and was particularly emphasised by managers: "*The receptionists smile as they deal with guests; if they do not smile I move them to accountancy or marketing, because the hotel's heart is the reception*

desk. If the guest sees no smile on entering the hotel, he will form a perception that his stay in the hotel will not be pleasant or comfortable." (m, h5) This is supported by Pugh's (2001) finding that the service provider's display of positive emotion, like smiling, is positively related to customer affect. The absence of smile in the service encounter is likely to generate negative customer effect, as indicated in a guest's statement: *"Most of our contact is with the morning and evening shifts, the evening shift receptionist does not always smile."* (g, h5)

In addition to task and treatment, the performance of front-line service employees in the tangibles aspects of the service is also emphasised. For example, the desired tangibles aspects of a floor supervisor were described by a hotel owner manager in the following way:

> The floor supervisor has a sense of taste of bedding; he knows room arrangement, has a nice smile, a sharp sense of smell. He has a sharp ability to recognise bad smells and odours. I am very sensitive to the smell issue; I have this complex and it might have rubbed on my employees. I tell the supervisor: "smell the room", I do not like to enter a room that smells humid, mouldy or rotten. You know that a clean house should not have a bad smell. This is an important issue, because as the guest enters the room he will smell before he sees. So the person we chose as a floor supervisor has to have a sharp sense of smell. (o/m, h6)

From this data the tangibles themes of 'sense of taste for', 'room arrangement', 'nice smile', and 'sharp sense of smell' were extracted. Other aspects of the service may also impact the behaviour and perception of the guests (Tsang, 2007), such as, facilities and artefacts (Stewart, 2003). One manager, in seeking feedback from his guests, found the theme of 'faulty appliances' and other tangibles as a common complaint among the guests: *"We get hold of them [the guests] as they leave and ask them to tell us point by point [in detail] what is not good. They say, either the television, or the fridge, or hot water, or the heater."* (m, h2)

Bitner (1990) also suggested that comfort of furnishings may influence perceived performance in the service encounter. The theme of 'uncomfortable room' occurred in the data as a source of problem for guests seeking accommodation near the centre of the city, as a manager from a different hotel explained:

> A guest arrives; he normally lives in a big villa, especially the Gulf Arabs, and he is very comfortable there. Here the situation is different, the nearer you come to the Centre of the city, the hotel rooms become smaller. For example, a female visitor uses the room and the bathroom, and then she complains: she is not comfortable. We meet her demand, bear the cost of washing of the linen and towels she used, and offer her a new room. Satisfying the customer 100% does not exist. (m, h3)

The theme of 'uniform' also features in the data as an important factor in service performance (Bitner, 1992; Chase & Stewart, 1994), as one manager explained: "*The receptionist is tidily dressed, his looks is acceptable. For me, the order of importance in the receptionist is first the look, then the dress, and thirdly, the way he deals and communicates with people*." (m, h8)

A manager from a different hotel also recognised that the appearance of his front-line service workers, *"also how they look*" (m2, h5), is vital in the service encounter. The theme of physical appearance is an item of the tangibles dimension of both job performance and service quality, and will be discussed in later sections. Another manager emphasised:

> And, of course, we direct them [front-line employees] so that the service they provide will not suffer. We give a standard uniform and we make sure that they are presentable. We do not normally have problems. Their dress, how they look, the way they speak, their demeanour, their suitability for the hospitality service; and of course, their qualifications. (m, h5)

While this manager stressed the importance of uniform in the hospitality service, a head waiter from a different hotel did not perceive the uniform as important; he stated: "*Yes, a white uniform in meal time; we only wear it during serving the food. I do not like to wear it all the time.*" (w, h8)

Furthermore, earlier in the literature review, studies were shown which pointed to mutually supporting relationships between the task, treatment, and tangibles aspects of performance. There is ample evidence in the data that demonstrate these relationships; for example, referring to the receptionists' performance of the hotel he was staying in, a Bahraini guest stated:

> True, they have different characteristics; the first receptionist is always busy as he is everywhere; he is open-minded, educated because he travels a lot, a man for all tasks;

> I say this, not because I like him, but because of his performance. In comparing between hotels, I look for treatment rather than luxurious hotel environment. Some hotels prefer offering tangible things rather than good treatment; this hotel does the opposite, and this is the nice thing about this hotel. (g, h6)

It is clear from this guest's statement that the tangibles shortcomings of the hotel are more than offset by employees' task performance and the treatment he receives from them. This is supported by Hallowell and Heskett (1993) and Stewart (2003) who demonstrated how tangibles are enhanced by task and treatment performance. Shortcomings in the task can also negatively impact on tangibles, as this manager related:

> I sometimes get angry if, for example, a guest comes to me and asks me to change the bed sheet; this makes me angry with the workers because I look after them well, and I have provided everything in the hotel; all what I want from my workers is performance as it is the heart of the hotel. (m, h5)

Hart *et al*. (1990), Sinha (1993), and Zemke (1993) found service recovery activities the most prevalent forms of tasks that are used to support tangibles; and Chase and Stewart (1994) suggested using fail-safing techniques to support important tangibles aspects of the service. Shortfalls in tangibles, Stewart (2003) held, can be alleviated through treatment; he argued that improving treatment through service culture can make up for the shortcomings of the tangible aspects of the service. Such a supporting relationship featured in the data, as, for example, one owner/manager stated: "*we might have a shortcoming in the furniture and decorations; we make up for this by our treatment and reception of the guests."* (o/m, h6) Tangibles may also support treatment as they set expectations for, and influence perceptions of treatment; they can help service employees to treat customers well (Bitner, 1992; Hallowell & Heskett, 1993; O'Rielly and Pfeffer, 1995). An owner/manager showed how he used tangibles to support treatment:

> We have to satisfy them [guests] and go along[11] with what they wish. For example, we know that the Lebanese would want dates. I have arrangements with some farmers to provide them with different types of good quality dates. They also like sweet; I make these available. (o/m, h1)

[11] 'Go along' is task performance (Hogan & Holland, 2003)

This owner/manager used ‘good quality dates’ and ‘sweet’ to enhance his treatment of the Lebanese guests.

4.2.4 Service quality

The service quality concepts of reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance, and tangibles also appeared in the data obtained from the respondents. A guest from Bahrain explains his frequent return to the same hotel:

> The first visit to this hotel was in 2008, and since then I always came to this hotel. There are two important factors in choosing a hotel: Price and treatment. As for this hotel, the price is not very much different from other similar hotels, but they differ from the others in their good treatment, particularly, the reception manager. Not necessarily praising him, however, he is flexible in his work management. That is why I prefer to bring my wife and my father and mother to this hotel; and if there is no room vacancy in this hotel, I put off my travel to another time. (g, h6)|

The reliability theme of dependability can be extracted from the data: “*...and since then I always came to this hotel... they differ from the others in their good treatment”*. Berry (1995) found that achieving customer trust is central in marketing services; it increases customer commitment, enhances customer value and develops customer loyalty towards the service provider. The service quality theme of trust is also indicated by the same guest, who stated:

> There are hotels that are better and of higher level, but because of these two receptionists we come to this hotel. We were just saying among ourselves, that we will not come to this hotel if it was not for these two people. Some things which they do they do not have to do, like our request for a ritual event, they prepare the place themselves for such an event. They do all they can, and more. (g, h6)

Trust is also indicated by a hotel receptionist, as he described guests’ behaviour: “*Also if the guests greet you in the morning and in the evening, they are comfortable. Some of their facial expressions do not allow you even to say hello to them.*” (w, h5) The assurance themes of ‘guest is comfortable’, and ‘guests greeting you’ was teased out from this data.

However other data shows that the front-line service employees were not always dependable, as a manger pointed out:

> Frankly, the labour that exists in Iraq, although I cannot generalise, is of low quality, that's why, lately we started to bring foreign labour... Here, we have central management; things that happen in the hotel, the manager must know about; any service I must know about, I do not depend on the workers, I direct them. (m2, h2)

The problem of 'dependability' and 'trust' as related to front-line service employees in the hotels in the city had reoccurred frequently in the data; another manager from a different hotel stated: *"I used to have a better maintenance person but he had other shortcomings, for example, he was not diligent in my absence; he also had his eyes on women, and this causes problems even if he was good at his work"*. (m, h8)
A maintenance employee implicitly acknowledged the dependability problem as he recounted his service encounter with a foreign guest:

> The visitors from Isfahan (Iran) are difficult; we try to meet their needs. More than any other visitors, the Iranians annoy me because they insist [they are demanding]. A simple example, the air-condition in his [the guest] room is malfunctioning; he does not report the malfunction only once; ten times he comes down to [contacts in person] the management, while I am in his room repairing the air-condition; especially those [guests] from Esfahan. Sometimes I exercise patience, and make sure I attend to the problem promptly. This is because the manager is good with us. (w, h8)

Dependability and trust are parts of the service quality concept of reliability, defined by Zeithaml *et al*. (1988) as the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately. Alongside these themes, other themes relating to the service quality concept of responsiveness, defined as willingness to help and provide prompt service to customers (Zeithaml *et al*., 1988), were also frequently reported in the data. For example, in describing his view of the hotel service he is staying in, a foreign guest stated: *"I get good service and flexibility in this hotel. I and a Kuwaiti friend of mine prefer to meet here. When we come here we feel comfortable, because the receptionist and manager meet all our needs and more. They offer good treatment and flexibility*". (g, h6) From this statement one can extract the themes of 'meeting all the guest's need' and 'good treatment and flexibility'; both indicating responsiveness. Similarly the theme of 'responding to the guest's request' appeared in another manager's response to a question about his receptionists' performance: "*The morning and afternoon receptionists are good in terms of treatment, greeting the guests, responding to the guests' requests; their uniform, and elegance. These two I have personally chosen.*

The evening receptionist is a graduate of political science, but his experience in tourism is limited". (m, h5) One of this manager's receptionists concurred with his manager in relation to the importance of responsiveness to guests' request:

> We believe that the customer is always right. I attempt to satisfy the guests in my way, not their way. For example, a guest does not like the room I give him; I show him another room, where I provide fruits and juices and talk to the guest about this room and try to persuade him to take it; I do these things so that the guest does not leave the hotel. (w, h5)

The guests in question, a young couple from Bahrain, acknowledged that this receptionist responded well to their service needs; the husband stated: "*The first day I bothered them; the room they gave us we did not like; I kept complaining about things in the room, they were patient with me, then gave me another room and apologised"*. (g, h5) And his wife agreed: "*Yes, knowing that we are strangers here, we do not know our way around. They need to respond more quickly"*. (g, h5)

The theme of 'timely response' emerged from a statement by the owner-manager of another hotel; praising his receptionist, he retorted: *"Also the speed with which he [the receptionist] deals with problems, for example; a guest phones the receptionist informing him that his television does not work; 95% of these cases turn out that the guest does not know how to use the remote control; the same is with the air condition*". (o/m, h6)

Although the owner-manager of this hotel felt that his receptionist's response was timely, one of the guests in this hotel suggested that the receptionist's response was rather 'slow'; a shortcoming which, because of the favourable image he formed about this receptionist, the guest was prepared to overlook:

> Both receptionists are good in doing their tasks on time. However, because of the wide responsibilities assigned to the first receptionist, the second one is quicker in answering our needs. For example, I want service from the first receptionist, I observe that he is very busy with around thirty calls, and one hour elapses and he is still talking on the phone. Also he has more responsibilities; for this reason, the second receptionist is more available. (g, h6)

Grönroos (1984) observed that where the service provider has a favourable image in the mind of the customer then much of the service failure will be forgiven. The inappropriate response on the part of the Iraqi service employee was perceived by some interviewees as a national characteristic, as seen from one manager's response: *"The Iraqi person is proud, he does not respond well to serving people; that is why I told you that tourism and hospitality education is important*". (m, h5)

Themes which showed empathy between the service employee and foreign guests were also visible in the data; a receptionist relayed his experience:

> As for the regular guests, I will even lower the price so that they will not leave us. Sometimes, the departing guests take my mobile number and my card to book again... I ask the guests about their work, habits, their families and about everything; and they also ask me what I have studied, and this leads to friendships, relationships, and exchange of emails. (w, h5)

The themes that emerge from the above data pointed to the concept of empathy with foreign guests: 'lowering prices', 'exchanging mobile numbers', ' asking about work, habits, and family', 'exchanging emails', 'making friendships', and 'making relationships'. These themes show that this receptionist was able to communicate effectively with foreign guests; he paid personal attention to the guests and knew their specific needs (Zeithaml *et al*., 1988).

An owner/manager also pointed to empathetic relationships between his receptionist and foreign guests; he stated: "*When these guests leave, they remain in contact with him [the receptionist], they send him presents, and will remember him on special occasions. This is an important characteristic of the receptionist in his interaction with, and treatment of guests"*. (o/m, h6) Extracted from this data were the themes of: 'guest sending presents', and 'remembering the receptionist in special occasions'. These themes suggest that the foreign guests were cared for in this hotel, and were provided with personal attention from the receptionist. Empathy, according to Zeithaml *et al*. (1988) and Stewart (2003), results mainly from treatment endeavours. In contrast, lack of empathy with foreign guests was also observed in the data, as seen by this guest's response: "*By God, the morning receptionist is not helpful; we ask him about a place, his answer was 'I do not know'"*. (g1, h5)

Furthermore, the service quality concept of assurance is clearly important in the service interaction, and had frequently come up in the data. In a conversation with a foreign guest couple, the husband indicated that he felt safe: "*By God, in general Karbala is a safe city; we have high confidence in the employees, especially in hotels of this level"*. (g1, h5) His wife agreed with her husband: "*Yes, we find our belongings where we left them*". (g2, h5) From this data the following themes were very apparent: 'feeling safe', 'confidence in employees', 'guest's belongings left untouched'. The themes of 'feeling safe' and 'conveying trust' are also indicated by another hotel's receptionist: "...*the guest may say: shall I pay the account now, I say: no, afterwards; he will be comfortable and safe because you have put trust in him. The factor of understanding is very important"*. (w, h7) Assurance, as conveyed by these themes, is courtesy and ability of employees to convey trust, safety, and confidence (Zeithaml *et al*., 1988) to their guests. It, as the data showed, mainly comes from treatment endeavours (Stewart, 2003). Assurance in cross cultural service interaction also embodies the themes of: 'knowledge of what foreign guests like' and 'how they want to be addressed' (Zeithaml *et al*., 1988). These themes were manifested in an owner-manager statement: *"If they [the guests] arrive tired, I do what is suitable for them.... they would like a rich supper, I prepare rich supper; for lunch they would like mutton, I make mutton without asking them. I also talk to them using respectable titles"*. (o/m, h6).

Themes around the appearance, demeanour, and other tangibles of the service employee were also visible in the data; affecting guests' perception of service quality (Zeithaml *et al.*, 1988). Describing the receptionists of a hotel he was staying in, a Bahraini guest remarked: *"Yes, they [the employees] are nice, tidy; their behaviour is good, and always smiling.* (g1, h5) The themes of: 'nice employees', 'tidy employees', 'having good behaviour', and 'always smiling' were extracted from this data. Furthermore, the theme 'smile' was frequently repeated in the data, as can be seen in a manager's description of his receptionist: "*He has good characteristics; for example, he smiles to the guest, he looks after the guest; what the guest needs, what the guest doesn't need; and he deals with different customers; this person you feel comfortable with*". (m, h2)

Shortcomings in the tangibles aspects of service employees also affect foreign guests' perception of service quality (Zeithaml *et al.*, 1988). Such shortcomings are observed in the data, for example, a manager reproached his headwaiter for lack of smile and sloppy appearance; he commented:

> Sometimes, I see him cross; I call him and ask if there is anything wrong. He says: no. I say: visitors are coming and going, show a smile; he answers: he is tired. Sometimes, he comes wearing a slipper; I ask him, why are you not wearing shoes; he says, I will now. Most of my guiding instructions are directed at the headwaiter. (m, h8)

The data showed that for this manager the themes of: 'not smiling' and 'inappropriate footwear' on the part of his headwaiter were clearly of concern to him as they affected the perceptions of his guests. His concern was more clearly articulated by an owner-/manager of another hotel as he showed exasperation in describing his Iraqi service employees: "*He comes to work with gelled hair, untidily dressed, his look is unacceptable, his education and his behaviour are unsuitable for representing the hotel"*. (o/m, h6) This description gave rise to the tangibles themes of: 'gelled hair', 'untidy dresses, 'unsuitable behaviour', and 'unacceptable look'.

In this section (4.2) and its sub-sections (4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.3 & 4.2.4), a large number of themes were extracted from the data which strongly suggested that in the cross-cultural hospitality service environment studied there were relationships between the cultural intelligence of service employees, their performance, and service quality. In the next Discussion section (section 4.3), the relationships between these three constructs will be established and developed.

4.3 Discussion

It was apparent from analysing the data (shown in detail in section 4.2) that the hospitality industry in the city of Karbala, and consequently the hotel service culture are not well-developed, constituting a significant problem for the hotel industry of the City. Themes associated with this problem occurred and reoccurred in many respondents' answers, to cite one manager:

> The problems that occur are usually outside and before they [foreign guests] reach the hotel; for example transport problems. The Gulf or the Lebanese visitors, in the high season, cannot enter the City in their cars or coaches, as you know, for security reasons. They have to leave their cars at the City's borders, about 15km-30 km away and rent a cart pushed by a person. They pay $300-$400 for the cart. (o/m, h1)

The initial themes that were derived from this data included: 'transport problems', 'entering city problems', 'security reasons', 'leaving cars outside city', 'transport by push cart', and 'unreasonably expensive transport'. The problems shown in this and other data from different respondents (see the analysis section 4.2) and the derived themes suggest that the hospitality service culture in the City is underdeveloped, as the existing culture does not appear to value good service, and good service does not seem to be a way of life or an important norm of society (Grönroos, 1990; Tsang, 2007). The overarching theme which has emerged to subsume all these themes is thus 'underdeveloped service culture'. Other themes which gave further evidence of the prevalence of underdeveloped service culture and consequently were subsumed by it include: 'training during work', and 'unavailability of tourism courses'. These themes were extracted from another respondent's answer: *"...and we are obliged to train the worker because there are no courses in training in tourism; we teach him how to deal with guests."* (m1, h2)

Furthermore, analysis of the literature on cross-cultural service interactions in chapter 2, pointed to provisional links between the dimensions of the constructs of cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality. In this discussion section, excerpts of data from the interviews and themes derived from this data are used to provide evidence of these links. More specifically, examination of the data and the emerging themes will show that in cross-cultural hospitality service interactions, service employees' cultural intelligence affected their service performance and generally resulted in an inadequate service quality.

4.3.1 Searching for, and developing relationships

The data and emerged themes will be examined for causal links between: cultural intelligence of service employees and their service performance (section 4.3.1.1), employee service performance and service quality (section 4.3.1.2), and cultural intelligence of these employees and service quality (section 4.3.1.3).

4.3.1.1 Cultural intelligence and employee performance

The hospitality service culture in the City's hotels was found to be underdeveloped. The themes of 'persistent absenteeism' and 'lack of motivation' on the part of the local service employee, which were associated with this culture, featured strongly in the data; this is shown, for example, in one manager's response:

> The Iraqi worker asks for a lot of time off work; [he comes up with excuses]: one day his father dies, one day his mother dies, another, his brother dies; or so and so relative is ill; one day some relative broke his hand, another, his leg. The whole month, nearly fifty percent of it is lost in time off work. (m1, h2)

These themes were put under the umbrella themes of 'behaviour' and 'motivation'. In the context of cross-cultural hospitality service interactions, both themes can be seen as dimensions of the construct of cultural intelligence. However, the employees' 'inappropriate service behaviour' and 'lack of motivation' to work - extracted from the above data - have also resulted in the theme of 'insufficient service interaction' with the guests, induced from this manager's response: *"This is the Iraqi worker's problem with us ... and as such his contact with the [foreign] guest will be little."* (m1, h2) This indicates that the local service employee's behaviour resulted in ineffective task performance and inappropriate treatment performance; and, as such, guests were receiving insufficient service attention. These findings are supported by the literature. Ang *et al.*'s (2007) study in a multi-cultural expatriate environment found a significant positive relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and task performance. These authors also argued that individuals with high behavioural cultural intelligence adapt their behaviours to meet the expectations of people from different cultures; pointing to a positive relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and adaptive or treatment performance. Similarly, Shaffer *et al*. (2006) found cross-cultural performance to be positively affected by behavioural flexibility. The link between behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment performance is further highlighted by another manager: *"We have a saying: 'Do not be dry least you break, and do not be*

soft least you get squeezed', I get along with the situation". (m, h8) From this data the themes of 'not being dry or soft' and 'getting along' were extracted. The first theme indicated the manager's usual behaviour while serving guests; such behaviour explains the manager's way of treating the guests; he is 'getting along' with the situation. 'Getting along' is a non-task or contextual performance, as suggested by Hogan and Holland (2003); which in the context of hospitality service can be classified as proactive or treatment performance (see section 2.9.1). The theme 'getting along' has also featured in a statement by the owner-manager of another hotel; in describing his receptionist, this owner-manager stated: "*He experienced some embarrassing situations but was able to manage these situations and turned them into jokes which brought smiles to the guests' faces"*. (o/m, h6) From this quote, the behaviour themes of: 'ability to manage different situations' and 'turning situations into jokes', were extracted. This way of exhibiting appropriate behaviour (Ang *et al*., 2006, 2007) resulted in the treatment theme of 'bringing smiles to guests' faces'. These behavioural themes on the part of the service provider seem to be central to the treatment performance of the guests, as they featured frequently in the data; a receptionist described an encounter with an arriving guest: "*I have an irritated guest who just arrived, I get around the table and move to his side so that there is no separation between me and the guest, and go to him and ask him respectfully to sit down, and I bring him a glass of water, and tell him to ask for whatever he wants.*" (w, h7) It is clear from this data that this receptionist felt that he behaved appropriately as demonstrated by the behavioural themes of 'getting around the table', 'being close to guest' and 'asking [the guest] respectfully'. Exhibiting such behaviour was seen by the receptionist as offering the guest appropriate service treatment.

Furthermore, data from a headwaiter showed how inappropriate service behaviour may affect treatment performance: *"I finish my dealing with the customer and then I attend to my mobile; and if I was on the mobile, and was approached by the customer, I finish my talk on the mobile, then answer the customer; even during work. The Iraqi person is stubborn*". (w, h8) The inappropriate treatment is shown in the theme of 'not attending to guests'; it is caused by the inappropriate behavioural theme of 'being on the mobile'. This headwaiter showed further examples of the effect of behavioural cultural intelligence on treatment performance; he elaborated:

> The Iranians, we do not give them the same attention as we do for the Europeans or the Gulf countries; because, whatever happens, they [the Iranians] will come to Karbala. At most, I make friendship with the Lebanese. There are visitors, who insist a lot and irritate you, like the Iranians; I do not bother to give them attention because they take advantage. The other visitors; the Europeans, the Indians, they are not a problem, because they are not annoying. The Iranians, I do not like anything about them; but I try to hide my feelings, but they know from my facial expression. (w, h8)

The themes of 'not giving attention to some guests', 'making friendship with other guests', and 'facial expression' indicated inadequate treatment performance for guests from certain cultures which this employee did not feel empathy with, and was not motivated to serve. The behaviour which resulted in such a treatment performance is shown through the themes of: the headwaiter 'hiding his feelings', 'being irritated' and 'being annoyed'. The forgoing data provides a demonstration of how the behaviour and motivation of front-line employees in cross-cultural service encounter affected positively and negatively these employees' task performance and treatment performance. There was, however, ample evidence in the data which showed that motivational cultural intelligence of service employees affected their treatment performance. For example a hotel owner-manager explained what motivated him to treat a particular group of foreign guests better than other groups:

> Generally, the Lebanese people are educated and cultured, so dealing with them is nice. The difficult dealing is with the Iranians... As for the Buhra people, they talk English, and we attempt to deal with them in this language as much as we are able to. These are good people, cultured people, with high manners and we attempt to satisfy them in any way we can. For example, we offer them free cups of tea as part of our Arab hospitality… The difficult dealing is with the Iranians. (o/m, 4h1)

Themes obtained from this data were: 'cultured guests are motivating' and 'Offering treatment through tangibles'; pointing to the effect of motivational cultural intelligence on treatment performance.

These effects had recurred frequently in the data, demonstrating strong links between the employees' behavioural and motivational cultural intelligence, on the one hand, and employee task and treatment performance, on the other. Furthermore, endearment and ability to manage difficult service situations in a light-hearted way were recognised by

one manager as important cognitive, motivational and behavioural characteristics required of his receptionist; he stated:

> The best of our employees is the receptionist; he is clever and attentive, and the guests find him endearing. Ask any visitor, and they will sing his praise. And some visitors come to the hotel because of him, because he is friendly, plays with the kids, cracks jokes with old women and helps them. His manners are sweet; we say here “he embeds himself”. He knows the problems the guests face, and change them into jokes, stories, and fun. (o/m, h6)

The data collected from the interviews thus strongly suggests that front-line service employees in hotels should have good knowledge of the hospitality service, exhibit appropriate service behaviour, and be motivated to perform hospitality tasks and offer appropriate treatment performance. Another example of this data, describing a receptionist’s characteristics and performance, is given by an owner-manager:

> He [the receptionist] does not let the guest leave the hotel unsatisfied. In addition, he knows what the work requires; he knows that work requires continuous improvement. For example, although his work is in the reception, if the kitchen needs help he will offer himself. Similarly, he will make up the shortfall in the room service or the electricity generation, helping the maintenance men. He can cook better dishes than the cook, he is better than the electricity generation’s maintenance people, and his presence with them gives them needed moral support. ... Some reception managers only sit behind their desks; our reception manager has a honed experience; he is in the habit of always asking about things; and he is malleable. We have two hotels similar to each other, but the performance of our workers in this hotel is different from that of the other hotel. The receptionist in this hotel achieved high efficiency in his work because of his 24 hours involvement and continuous chasing up of things. If the food is going to be delayed 15 minutes or more, you have to inform the guest that it is going to be delayed. (o/m, h6)

This manager’s remark was supported by one of the hotel’s foreign guest, who stated:

> As for the first receptionist; he is always moving and practical, he meets all our needs. If there is no cook, he would go to the kitchen himself; if something does not work, he comes himself to look for the reason; if there are no workers, he will do the work himself, he even works as a porter. These characteristics are not present in the second receptionist, maybe because of his age, personality, or his nature; that does not mean

> that his performance is wanting; he is a good manager, knows how to behave as a receptionist but not like the first receptionist; he does not have the ability to do everything in the hotel, unlike the first receptionist. (g, h6)

The positive relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance is supported by the literature. Stone-Romero *et al*. (2003) and Tsang (2007) showed that individuals with high motivation have higher task performance than others. Ang *et al*. (2007) also predicted a positive relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance but did not find this relationship statistically significant. Chen *et al*.'s (2010) study, on the other hand, found that motivational cultural intelligence indirectly positively predicted expatriates' job performance. Also, Chen *et al*.'s (2012) study of agents' sales performance in real estate firms, demonstrated that individuals' motivational cultural intelligence positively affected their sales to clients from different cultures. Furthermore, in another study on the effect of cultural intelligence on adaptive performance, Oolders *et al*. (2008) showed that cultural intelligence mediated the relationship between openness and adaptive performance.

Pointing to the importance of knowledge of other people's languages in the cross cultural hotel service environment of the City and its relation to service performance, a receptionist stated:

> Those people you just saw coming, immediately I have talked to them in their own language, although they know Arabic, but they like it when someone talks to them in Persian; 70% of the time I gain their trust. I speak Persian and English and Arabic; and I mean good Arabic not colloquial Arabic. (w, h7)

The link between cognitive cultural intelligence shown in the theme of 'talking the guest's language' and employee performance appeared to have gained this receptionist the trust of the guests; this was represented by the theme 'gaining their trust', and incidentally showed a possible relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality. More visibly, the data showed relationships between cognitive cultural intelligence and employee performance. This relationship is further demonstrated in the response of a hotel owner; he stated:

> Bahraini people, for example, come and stay with us. Usually, these people prefer to bring their servants with them and we rent to them the restaurant and the kitchen and we provide for them all what they need ...Yes, we change bed sheets, clean the bathrooms, clean the rooms, bring their grocery too, and the rest of the employees go around keeping eye on things. When the Bahrainis arrive with their servants, I know I don't have to do more than the cleaning.(o/m, h1)

An examination of this data suggests that in bringing their servants along with them, the Bahraini guests required the same service they were accustomed to at home. This also indicated that the local service provider in question did not appear to have sufficient knowledge of the service needs of these guests and was unable to exhibit appropriate service behaviour. Consequently, the service provider was only able to do limited tasks focusing on tangibles; providing only cleaning tasks, avoiding communicating with these guests, and offering them very limited service treatment. The theme derived from this data was 'lack of knowledge of Bahrainis' service needs'; lack of knowledge of other people culture suggests lack of cognitive cultural intelligence (Ang *et al*., 2007), which resulted in the theme of 'doing tasks focusing on tangibles'. Lack of cultural cognition on the part of the service employees can adversely affect their task performance. In describing a situation concerning an encounter between one of his maintenance employees with an Iranian guest, a manager retorted:

> The maintenance person receives him [the guest] in a nice way. His specialisation is in electrical appliances, air-conditioning and generators; but he is weak in knowledge of other language. His task does not need 100% knowledge of language; but a situation arose the other day and he was there. One Iranian visitor announced that the cable has burnt. The maintenance person did not react; I asked him why you are not doing anything; the guest has told you that the cable is burnt. He said: I did not understand what he said. This was despite the fact that the guest has repeated the complaint twice. (m, h8)

The cognitive themes of 'lack of knowledge of language' and 'not understanding' what the guest wanted resulted in the task performance theme of employee 'not doing his task', as he did not act. It also gave rise to the theme of 'guest repeating complaint', indicating that the guest did not perceive the service as reliable or responsive. This empirical finding is indicated by the literature, although Ang *et al*.'s (2007) multi-cultural

study showed that the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance was not statistically significant.

Evidence of a positive relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and employee task performance was also displayed in the data; a manager stated:

> We inform the employees ... a group of visitors from a specific place with such and such characteristics will be arriving. .... we train them ... about how to deal with various guests. For example, today we have a group of Iranian visitors who will be travelling to Najaf (45 miles) and back. During this period, I will have a meeting with my employees on how to deal with these visitors. I have instructed them to placate the customer: bring them water, calm them, and say good words. (md, h1)

A number of themes were derived from the response of this manager, such as: 'knowing of others' characteristics' - a meta-cognitive cultural intelligence theme - and the task performance themes of 'placating and calming guests', 'offering water', and 'saying good words'. The above data and the derived themes showed that in cross-cultural service encounter, meta-cognitive cultural intelligence is likely to affect task performance. This finding is also supported by Ang *et al*.'s (2007) multi-cultural study, where a significant positive relationship was established between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance. Triandis (2006) also posited that individuals with high meta-cognitive intelligence are more able to understand people from different cultures and make better cultural decisions which enhance their task performance.

It can also be inferred from the data that there was a relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance. The data displayed examples of inappropriate hospitality service behaviour towards guests from a different culture. There was a perceived avoidance of service encounter with these guests and consequently inappropriate treatment performance, demonstrated by the statement: "*When the Bahrainis arrive with their servants, I know I don't have to do more than the cleaning"*(o/m, h1). The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance is further evidenced by a manager's response, explaining the importance of language in the service encounter:

> The most important language is Persian. I am fluent in Persian, but not very strong in English. I can deal with English speaking visitors as much as the work needs. As for the

> Gulf, we have no problem with the language, but we also talk with them in their colloquial language. Because if you speak with them in their colloquial language, they feel pleased; also the Lebanese and Syrians. (m, h8)

From this data it is apparent that the cognitive cultural intelligence themes of being 'fluent in Persian', 'using colloquial language', and 'knowing sufficient English' resulted in the treatment theme of 'pleasing guest'. It is also evident from the response of the manager of another hotel (m1, h2) (please see quote directly below) that the theme of 'knowledge of knowing' the Iranians' cultural characteristics resulted in changing the way his local service employees performed their tasks and how they treated those guests - knowledge of knowing is a meta-cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003). Such knowledge enabled the employees of this service provider first to accept the derogatory Iranian words of 'kharab' [the place is a ruin] and 'kaseef' [it is dirty], and then change their behaviour by responding, for example, with a smile; a manifestation of change in treatment. Quoting the same manager:

> ...but this is the nature of the Iranians; the smallest of things that goes wrong and they shout this place is 'kharab'. Or they say it is 'kaseef' if they see a small spot. In the beginning we used to get annoyed, but we got used to them. We started to respond by agreeing with them: "you are right", "whatever you say", with a smile. And of course we tell our workers: you are not allowed to argue with the guests. (m1, h2)

The cognitive themes of 'knowing the nature of guests' and 'getting used to them' influenced how they were treated. This 'getting along' (Hogan & Holand, 2003) was manifested by the themes of 'agreeing with guests' and 'not arguing with guests'. The cultural intelligence cognitive ability also influenced the tangibles aspects of employee performance and service quality, shown by the theme of 'responding with a smile'.

Analysis of data from the interviews thus pointed to strong positive relationships between the meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural dimensions of cultural intelligence, on the one hand, and task performance and treatment performance dimensions of employee performance, on the other. These empirical findings support hypotheses H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d which were deduced from the literature (section 2.9.1), indicating that in cross-cultural service environment, positive relationships are likely to exist between all the dimensions of cultural intelligence and task performance. The findings also supported the likely positive relationships between

motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment performance (hypotheses H2c & H2d), again deduced from the literature (section 2.9.1).
On the other hand, the positive effects of the meta-cognitive and cognitive dimensions of cultural intelligence on treatment performance were not examined in the literature. However, as the empirical data cited above pointed to positive relationships between meta-cognitive and cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance, the following two hypotheses may be proposed and added to hypothesis set H2.

> Hypothesis H2a: Meta-cognitive cultural intelligence is directly positively related to treatment performance.

> Hypothesis H2b: Cognitive cultural intelligence is directly positively related to treatment performance.

The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and tangibles performance was barely detected in the empirical data and the derived themes. Here is an example to illustrate how the cognitive theme of 'knowing' what customers do not like resulted in the tangible theme of 'providing clean facilities': "*The Lebanese guests, mostly, find that our food is unsuitable for their pallet So, we rent to them the hotel's restaurant and the kitchen, to do whatever they want. Yes, we change bed sheets, clean the bathrooms, clean the rooms.*" (o/m, h1)
The links between the motivational and behavioural dimensions of cultural intelligence to the third 'tangibles' dimension of employee performance again did not feature much in the data. However, one or two examples were found which showed some potential links of behavioural intelligence to tangibles. A manager stated:

> Sometimes, I see him [the headwaiter] cross; I call him and ask if there is anything wrong. He says: no. I say: visitors are coming and going, show a smile; he answers: I am tired. Sometimes, he comes wearing a slipper; I ask him, why are you not wearing shoes; he says: I will now. Most of my guidance goes to the headwaiter….. The receptionist is tidily dressed, his looks is acceptable. For me, the order of importance in the receptionist is first the look, then the dress, and thirdly, the way he deals and communicates with people. (m, h8)

The behavioural cultural intelligence themes of 'the employee is cross' and 'dealing and communicating with guests' are seen through the tangibles themes of 'showing smile', 'wearing slippers', 'being tidily dressed' and 'looking acceptable'.
The relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and tangibles performance seems to be even weaker in the collected data than that between behavioural cultural intelligence and tangibles. Such a relationship was only discerned from another manager's statement:

> It [the hotel building, furnishing and food] is a blessing from God. I wish you go up and see the rest of the hotel, you will be astonished, and I wish you ask any of our guests, you will find them extremely satisfied with, for example, the food; but we suffer because of the workers. Even when we give a worker a job, he will leave us within a week or ten days after he saved a bit of money. We are forced to employ foreign workers despite the fact that we have unemployment. The foreign workers have more experience serving guests from different nationalities. (m, h5)

From this statement, the 'tangibles' theme of 'astonishing hotel and contents' appeared to have been undermined by the lack of motivation on the part of the local service worker. The latter is manifested by the themes of 'leaving work' and 'employing foreign workers'.
There was insufficient empirical data to suggest the existence of positive links between the four dimensions of cultural intelligence and tangibles, and therefore weak provisional empirical support for hypotheses H3a, H3b, H3c & H3d (Section 2.9.1).

4.3.1.2 Employee performance and service quality

Babakus and Boller (1992), and Cronin and Taylor (1994) produced empirical evidence to suggest that service quality can be assessed using performance-based measures. Furthermore, Mohr and Bitner (1991) found that the greater the mutual understanding between the service employee and the customer, the more satisfied is the customer with the service encounter. Conversely, the less the mutual understanding between the employee and the customer, the less satisfied the customer is with the encounter and the more the need for service recovery. However, failure to recover effectively can lead to negative outcomes, such as; losing customers, and negative word of mouth (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekaran, 1998). The literature showed that a majority of complaining customers were dissatisfied with how their complaints were handled (e.g. Hart *et al.*, 1990; Tax *et al.*, 1998); pointing to the need for enhancing effective

recovery efforts. Ample examples of data from the interviews pointed to strong links between front-line service employees' performance and service quality. Service quality themes frequently appeared alongside employee performance themes in data obtained from the interviews. The data from the outraged female foreign guest shown in the Qualitative Analysis chapter, sub-section 4.2.3 is reproduced here to illustrate:

> I swore I will not go again to that hotel. I mean I stayed with them 12 days, they hurt me; I quarrelled with them every day, I fought with them; I told them I will expose you, your service. I used to stand in front of the reception, and shout: you have hurt me, may God hurt you. They remained silent. (g1, h3)

Negative emotions (Stephens & Gwinner, 1998; Maute & Dube´s, 1999) were expressed by this guest to show dissatisfaction with her service encounter experience with the hotel front-line service employees. In addition to general dissatisfaction, specific emotions, such as; anger, disgust, contempt, and disappointment have been shown to influence consumers' coping behaviours (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004, Mattila & Ro, 2008). The themes of: 'guest is hurt', 'she quarrels', and 'threatens to expose hotel' were extracted from this data. These themes were then abstracted to the higher ones of: 'lack of empathy with guests', 'lack of responsiveness', and 'lack of assurance'; all these themes are dimensions of the theoretical construct of service quality (Zeithaml *et al*. 1990) . But this guest's outrage also strongly suggests that front-line service employees were not performing their tasks appropriately and were not providing the hospitality treatment that this foreign guest expected. The lack of appropriate task performance was manifested in the theme of 'they remain silent', and the inadequate treatment performance in the theme of 'guest feeling hurt'.
Quotes from other guests emphasised the relationship between employee treatment performance and service quality dimension of responsiveness: "*This is the nearest hotel, and has good young service employees, their treatment is nice and sophisticated, and seamless service ....*" (g2, h3), and "*It is the best hotel compared with others I have been in. ... Cleanliness; I lived in another hotel, it was cleaner than here, but the people over there made me tired; their treatment, they did not respond quickly.*" (g1, h3)

The link between the assurance dimension of service quality and task performance also featured in data obtained from an owner manager of a hotel, describing some of his service employees' tasks when Bahraini guests arrive at the hotel: "...*and the rest of*

the employees go around keeping eye on things..." (o/m, h1) The task performance theme of: 'go[-ing] around' is linked to the assurance theme of 'keeping eye on things'; assurance is a service quality dimension. These findings are supported by the literature (Stewart, 2003; Zeithaml *et al*., 1990).

Ample data obtained from the interviewees clearly showed the effect of employee task performance on the service quality dimensions of assurance and reliability. A receptionist of a hotel indicated these links; he stated: *"I know the guests are satisfied if they are sitting in the reception hall. If they are staying in their rooms and frequently phoning the reception, I know they are not satisfied or there is a shortfall in the service".* (w, h5) The task performance themes of 'shortfall in the service' and 'guest phoning reception frequently' suggest that the guest felt that the employee task performance was not reliable, and that he was not assured by the service offered; consequently, the theme of 'guest is dissatisfied'. This receptionist's view was supported by data from a young Bahraini guest, whose perception of service quality was clearly influenced by the treatment performance and task performance of front-line employees; he pointed out: *"The employees' treatment of us is excellent despite some issues that are out of their control. For example, breakfast time is not suitable for us; we pray at four in the morning, and the breakfast is at seven*" (g, h5). The employee task performance theme of 'issues out of control' resulted in the reliability theme of 'breakfast time not suitable'. Another example from a hotel owner-manager illustrates how task performance affects reliability:

> So, the guests arrive at the hotel unhappy, and they direct all their anger at the hotel staff, as it is the last place in their journey. We, in this case provide all the available services. I will not allow the generator to stop in order that the guests feel comfortable even though there is six or seven hours power cut. We are providing four generators; to ensure that the hotel will not be without
> power for more than two minutes.(o/m, h5)

The task themes of 'providing all available services' and 'not allowing the generator to stop', which were extracted from this data, gave rise to the reliability theme of 'guests feeling comfortable'.

Other data also pointed to a positive link between task performance and responsiveness. Complaining for not being served breakfast, a guest couple said: "*They [the service employees] are supposed to know we are praying early then we go*

to visit the shrines at dawn. When we come back from the shrines we find that breakfast period has finished". (g, h5) The task performance theme of 'untimely breakfast' pointed to lack of responsiveness to guests' request as shown in the theme of 'breakfast period has finished'. Referring to the delay of one of the night receptionist in giving the room key, this same guest relayed: *"For example, we leave the key with the morning receptionist; when we come back at night, the night receptionist takes time to find the key"* (g, h5). The task theme of 'giving room key' to the guest with delayed response indicated lack of response which resulted in the 'responsiveness' theme of 'taking time'. Elaborating on this link further, the guest added: "*When we first came in the morning, we were tired; they kept us waiting in the reception hall for a long period. We wanted to go to our room and feel comfortable quickly. Then they transferred us to another room, this annoyed us because we want to rest*" (g, h5). The task themes of 'allocating room' and 'transferring guests', had resulted in the responsiveness theme of guest 'waiting for a long period'. The delay in performing these tasks and the perception of lack of responsiveness were confirmed by the guest's wife; she added: "*Even when we were transferred to another room we had to wait for a while before they brought our luggage*". (g, h5) Another foreign guest illustrated how task performance affected responsiveness: "*...I have been here before; this is the fourth time, I have now relationships and friendships. They always meet my needs quickly, but in times of heavy demand, I notice they delay a bit; but we know this happens everywhere*." (g2, h3) From this data the themes of 'meeting guest's service needs' and 'quickly' suggest that in performing their tasks the service employees of this hotel responded appropriately to this guest's service needs.

There was also evidence to suggest positive links between employee treatment performance and tangibles performance with assurance and empathy. A hotel manager response, for example, showed these relationships: "*Every visitor must be received differently; you offer them water, juice, cakes, dates; the visitors feel comfortable, because generally they arrive tired, or had difficulties on the road. Such a reception will make them comfortable and will have a good perception of the hotel"* (m, h8). The treatment performance theme of 'receiving guests differently' and the treatment through tangibles theme of 'offering beverages' gave rise to the assurance theme of 'guests feeling comfortable' and demonstrated this manager's empathy with the arriving guests through the themes of 'recognising guest is tired' and 'guest had difficulties'. Data from another manager of a different hotel supported some of these relationships: "*Normally,*

the arriving guest is tired, with short temper; the receptionist must absorb all that, and offer guest water and juices" (m, h5). In this data, the empathy theme of 'recognising guest is tired', and the treatment through tangibles theme of 'offering beverages' have clearly recurred.

Furthermore, the influence of treatment and tangibles on responsiveness had also appeared in some data. For example, praising his receptionist, a manager stated:

> The morning and afternoon receptionists are good in terms of treatment, greeting the guests, responding to the guests' requests; their uniform, and elegance. These two I have personally chosen. The evening receptionist is a graduate of political science, but his experience in tourism is limited. (m, h5)

This data shows positive effects of employee treatment performance of 'greeting guests' and tangibles performance of employee 'uniform' and 'elegance' on responsiveness theme of 'responding to guests'. This data also supported Stewart's (2003) untested proposition of a relationship between treatment and responsiveness. However, data obtained from one guest did not appear to lend support to this proposition: *"But to be honest the morning receptionist's manners are good; and his face full of smile but his response is slow"*. (g, h5) The treatment themes of the receptionist having 'good manners' and being 'full of smile' did not meet the responsiveness needs of the guest as shown in the theme of 'slow response'.

There was thus evidence in the data to suggest that employee task performance affected the reliability and responsiveness dimensions of service quality; these findings supported the indicated but not statistically established hypotheses H4a and H4b (please see section 2.9.2). In addition, although not examined in the literature, the empirical data pointed to positive relationships between employee task performance and the service quality dimensions of assurance and empathy; these can now be proposed as additional hypotheses in hypothesis set H4, thus:

> Hypothesis H4c: Task performance is directly positively related to assurance.

> Hypothesis H4d: Task performance is directly positively related to empathy.

Furthermore, the data suggested strong relationships between treatment performance, on the one hand, and responsiveness, assurance and empathy, on the other. These

findings supported the indicated but not statistically established hypotheses H5b, H5c and H5d. There was also evidence in the data which suggests positive relationship between treatment performance and reliability, allowing a new hypothesis to be added to hypothesis set H5:

Hypothesis H5a: Treatment performance is directly positively related to reliability.

There was also some indication that treatment performance affected the tangibles dimension of service quality.

4.3.1.3 Linking cultural intelligence to service quality via employee performance

In sub-sections 4.3.1.1 and 4.3.1.2 above, evidence was presented to show how themes extracted from the interviews of this cross-cultural study clustered around the dimensions of the theoretical constructs of cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality. The evidence also supported the following hypotheses of the theoretical model (see fig. 2.8): hypothesis set H1 which proposed positive relationships between the four dimensions of cultural intelligence and task performance; hypothesis set H2 which proposed positive relationships between motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment performance; hypothesis set H4 which proposed positive relationships between task performance and the service quality dimensions of reliability and responsiveness; and hypothesis set H5 which proposed positive relationships between treatment performance and the service quality dimensions of responsiveness, assurance and empathy. On the other hand, the provisional empirical findings did not provide much evidence to support hypothesis set H3 which proposed positive relationships between meat-cognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence, and tangibles performance.

Moreover, the findings from the empirical data pointed to additional relationships between the three constructs, which have not been examined in the literature. Specifically, the findings showed that Meta-cognitive and cognitive cultural intelligence were likely to affect treatment performance (H2a and H2b); task performance was likely to affect assurance (H4c) and empathy (H4d) dimensions of service quality, and treatment performance was likely to affect reliability (H5a).

The above direct relationships, which were evidenced by the findings from the interviews, suggest that all the four dimensions of cultural intelligence are indirectly

related to the dimensions of service quality via employee task and treatment performance. This evidence expands the theoretical model by adding the following additional indirect hypotheses.

Hypothesis H6: meta-cognitive cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to assurance (H6c) and empathy (H6d) by task performance.

Hypothesis set H7: cognitive cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to assurance (H7c) and empathy (H7d) by task performance.

Hypothesis set H8: motivational cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to assurance (H8c) and empathy (H8d) by task performance.

Hypothesis set H9: behavioural cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to assurance (H9c) and empathy (H9d) by task performance.

Hypothesis set H10: motivational cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H10a) by treatment performance.

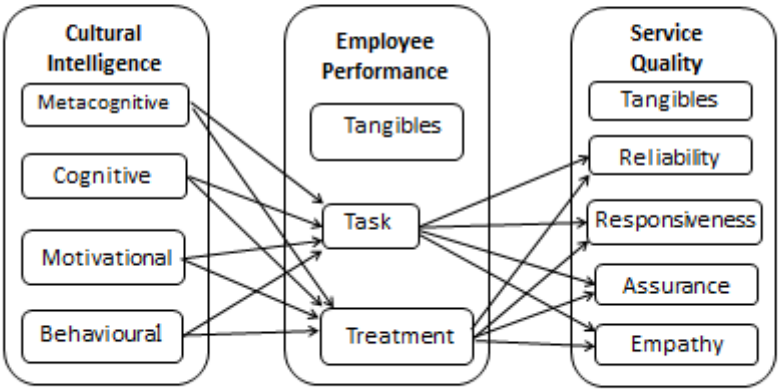
Hypothesis set H11: behavioural cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H11a) by treatment performance.

Hypothesis set H12: meta-cognitive cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H12a), responsiveness (H12b), assurance (H12c), and empathy (H12d) by treatment performance.

Hypothesis set H13: Cognitive cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H13a), responsiveness (H13b), assurance (H13c), and empathy (H13d) by treatment performance.

Expanding the theoretical model, a provisional empirical model of causal relationships can thus be formed which proposes that in cross-cultural service encounter, cultural intelligence is likely to affect service quality through employee performance. This model's direct and indirect relationships are shown in figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 A provisional empirical model linking Cultural intelligence to service quality via employee performance



Chapter 5
Quantitative data: Results and analysis

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to test the relationships of the provisional model which hypothesised that cultural intelligence (independent variable) positively affected service quality (dependent variable) via Employee performance (mediator) (see Chapter 4, sub- section 4.3.1.3 & fig. 4.1).

The sample characteristics, and sampling and data collection procedures are discussed in section 5.2. This is followed by explaining and going through the process of developing the three scales (section 5.3). Sub-section 5.3.1 shows how factor analysis technique (SPSS version 22) is used to determine the factorability of the scales. Sub- section 5.3.1.1 deals with determining the factorability of the cultural intelligence scale; sub- section 5.3.1.2, the employee performance scale, and sub-section 5.3.1.3, the SERVPERF scale. The estimation of the goodness of fit of these three scales is undertaken in sub-section 5.3.2, using confirmatory factor analysis technique, Lisrel (version 8.8). Sub-section 5.3.2.1 shows the goodness of fit calculation for the cultural intelligence scale; sub-section 5.3.2.2, the employee performance scale; and sub-section 5.3.2.3, the SERVPERF scale. Testing the validity of these scales is undertaken in sub-section 5.3.3; with the convergent validity and discriminant validity test undertaken in sub-sections 5.3.3.1 and 5.3.3.2 respectively. The reliability of the scales is calculated in sub-section 5.3.4. The chapter ends with testing the hypotheses of the provisional model (section 5.4).

5.2 The sample

The sample was 53 hotels chosen from a total number of 98 (3*, 4* & 5*) hotels in the city of Karbala. The choice was dictated by access to these hotels and obtaining agreement from hotel owners/managers to participate in the study. The first construct is concerned with assessing the cultural intelligence of hotel front-line employees. The reason for choosing these employees is because the focus of the study is on understanding and investigating their interactions with foreign guests during the hospitality service encounter. The number of these employees per hotel averaged between three and six. 288 self-report cultural intelligence questionnaires were administered to these employees in the chosen sample of hotels. 253 completed questionnaires were returned, 52 of these were discarded as they were not properly

completed. Thus the total number of completed questionnaires which was analysed was 201, constituting 69% of total questionnaires administered. This percentage is seen as an acceptable return in management studies (Baruch & Holtom, 2008).

The second construct measured the performance of the front-line hotel employees who filled the self-report cultural intelligence questionnaire. The instrument for this measure was the employee performance questionnaire which was administered to the managers of these employees. The employees were identified by the researcher and made known to their managers (as explained in the Methodology, chapter 3). The total number of managers was 53. The researcher herself asked the 53 managers and entered their answers to the questionnaire, and as each manager supervised three to six employees, the total number of completed employee performance questionnaires was 201. This manager-report questionnaire was used to minimise bias which might have been introduced in the self-report questionnaire measuring the first construct.

The third construct measured the service quality of the chosen sample of employees as perceived by their foreign guests. To ensure that interaction has occurred between front-line employees and these guests, only guests who stayed at least one week in their hotel were approached. Additionally, and to minimise bias, the quality of service offered by each employee was assessed by at least two guests. 512 responses were obtained, of which 43 were discarded as they were not properly completed, making the number of analysed questionnaires 469.

5.3 Scale development

Face validity and content validity help in the process of choosing, developing, and testing a measure. Commonly, testing these two forms of validity is performed by presenting the initial frame of the measure to a group of experts for their agreement. The researcher presented the three measures to her supervisors, to the Faculty Ethical Committee, and to three colleagues from the study destination. She obtained their agreement over the clarity of the statements, the structure of the questions, contents of the measures, and the correctness of the translation. Following the qualitative assessment of the measures, where the conceptual constructs were established, the quantitative structure of these measures is undertaken by empirically establishing the measures' validity and reliability (Hinkin, 1995).

5.3.1 Factor analysis (Principal component analysis)

5.3.1.1 Cultural intelligence scale

The 20 items of the cultural intelligence scale were subjected to the principal component analysis using SPSS version 22. Before performing this analysis, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix (Table 5.1) shows many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value is 0.86, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Field, 2005), and Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance, $p = 0.000$ ($p < 0.01$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Table 5.2). The principal component analysis of the cultural intelligence scale resulted in four component with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (6.340, 3.541, 3.276 & 1.867), accounting for 31.7%, 17.7%, 16.4% and 9.3% of the variance respectively. The four component result explained a total of 75.1% of the variance (Table 5.3).

Table 5.1 Correlation matrix (CI)

		met1	met2	met3	met4	cog1	cog2	cog3	cog4	cog5	cog6	mot1	mot2	mot3	mot4	mot5	beh1	beh2	beh3	beh4	beh5
Correlation	met1	1.000																			
	met2	.778	1.000																		
	met3	.730	.686	1.000																	
	met4	.641	.685	.689	1.000																
	cog1	.368	.330	.300	.269	1.000															
	cog2	.422	.374	.391	.377	.707	1.000														
	cog3	.378	.383	.313	.297	.702	.677	1.000													
	cog4	.337	.363	.291	.293	.734	.694	.707	1.000												
	cog5	.363	.363	.327	.328	.673	.589	.653	.718	1.000											
	cog6	.353	.337	.328	.360	.520	.513	.552	.645	.752	1.000										
	mot1	.222	.190	.211	.136	.175	.131	.164	.137	.127	.075	1.000									
	mot2	.249	.217	.234	.184	.104	.091	.105	.098	.107	.102	.774	1.000								
	mot3	.189	.158	.198	.082	.119	.100	.126	.112	.072	.045	.759	.796	1.000							
	mot4	.170	.177	.186	.106	.124	.131	.085	.116	.066	.035	.636	.615	.650	1.000						
	mot5	.163	.202	.152	.117	.114	.096	.106	.161	.077	.073	.559	.489	.546	.768	1.000					
	beh1	.061	.109	.097	.069	.108	.179	.173	.197	.068	.105	.054	.062	.115	.210	.207	1.000				
	beh2	.151	.176	.156	.127	.129	.202	.198	.221	.123	.137	.116	.135	.154	.213	.201	.894	1.000			
	beh3	.135	.151	.146	.101	.126	.206	.195	.200	.106	.118	.031	.045	.074	.161	.130	.891	.878	1.000		
	beh4	.187	.168	.141	.059	.136	.223	.195	.189	.144	.101	.072	.075	.094	.175	.118	.700	.714	.734	1.000	
	beh5	.013	.062	-.002	-.048	.047	.102	.119	.047	.085	.002	.008	-.002	.049	.110	-.033	.546	.526	.565	.756	1.000

Table 5.2 KMO and Bartlett's test (CI)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.860
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3188.550
	df	190
	Sig.	.000

Table 5.3 Total variance explained (CI)

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.340	31.699	31.699	6.340	31.699	31.699	4.321	21.606	21.606
2	3.541	17.703	49.401	3.541	17.703	49.401	3.926	19.632	41.238
3	3.276	16.380	65.782	3.276	16.380	65.782	3.681	18.403	59.641
4	1.867	9.336	75.117	1.867	9.336	75.117	3.095	15.476	75.117
5	.790	3.952	79.070						
6	.657	3.287	82.357						
7	.597	2.984	85.341						
8	.395	1.975	87.315						
9	.344	1.719	89.035						
10	.296	1.481	90.516						
11	.287	1.433	91.949						
12	.257	1.286	93.235						
13	.240	1.199	94.434						
14	.210	1.048	95.482						
15	.198	.988	96.469						
16	.192	.958	97.428						
17	.170	.848	98.275						
18	.142	.709	98.985						
19	.114	.568	99.553						
20	.089	.447	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The result from the varimax rotation also shows that the factor loadings of all components are greater than 0.4 and that there are no cross loadings (see Table 5.4a & 5.4b). Inspecting the scree plot (Fig. 5.1) also reveals a break after the fourth component, allowing all the four components to be retained for further investigation.

The interpretation of the four components is consistent with Earley and Ang's (2003) original formulation of the scale.

Table 5.4a Pattern/structure coefficients (CI)[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
cog4	**.877**	.111	.076	.121
cog5	**.850**	.024	.029	.174
cog1	**.850**	.037	.089	.123
cog3	**.822**	.119	.066	.165
cog2	**.776**	.132	.050	.246
cog6	**.753**	.020	.000	.215
beh3	.091	**.922**	.035	.082
beh1	.076	**.916**	.093	.017
beh2	.097	**.900**	.128	.093
beh4	.103	**.870**	.055	.080
beh5	.024	**.760**	-.020	-.052
mot3	.044	.039	**.882**	.059
mot1	.095	-.017	**.872**	.090
mot2	.035	-.008	**.855**	.154
mot4	.032	.148	**.846**	.059
mot5	.058	.100	**.770**	.062
met3	.200	.054	.134	**.848**
met2	.246	.082	.118	**.843**
met1	.263	.050	.135	**.842**
met4	.208	.005	.045	**.835**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 5.4b Pattern/structure coefficients (CI)[a]

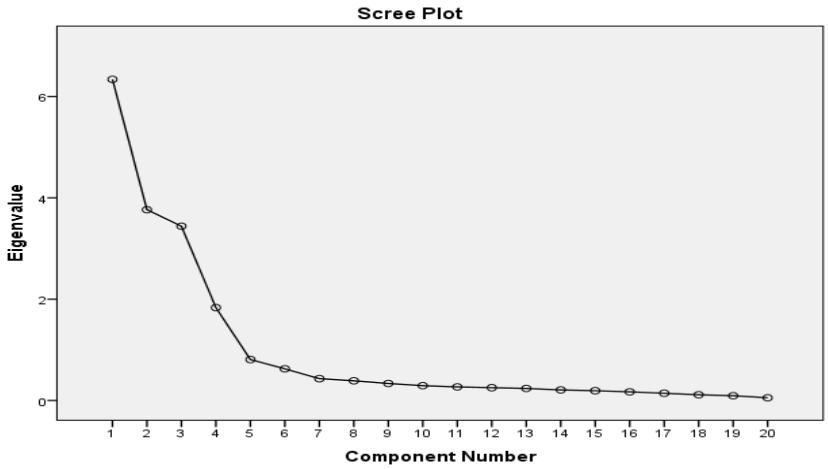
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
met1				.842
met2				.843
met3				.848
met4				.835
cog1	.850			
cog2	.776			
cog3	.822			
cog4	.877			
cog5	.850			
cog6	.753			
mot1			.872	
mot2			.855	
mot3			.882	
mot4			.846	
mot5			.770	
beh1		.916		
beh2		.900		
beh3		.922		
beh4		.870		
beh5		.760		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Figure 5.1 Scree plot (CI)



5.3.1.2 Employee performance scale

This scale was designed by the researcher as explained in the methodology chapter (sub-section 2.3.2.2, the measure scales). The 34 items of the employee performance scale were subjected to the principal component analysis using SPSS version 22. Before performing this analysis, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix shows many coefficients of 0.3 and above (Table 5.5a). The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value is 0.919, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 and Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance, $p = 0.000$ ($p < 0.01$) (Table 5.5b), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The principal component analysis of the employee performance scale resulted in three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (9.57, 8.77, and 5.29), accounting for 29.91%, 27.39%, and 16.52% of the variance respectively (Table 5.6). The three component result explains a total of 73.82% of the variance. The result from the varimax rotation also shows that the factor loadings of all components are greater than 0.4 and that there are few cross loadings (Table 5.7 a & b). Inspecting the scree plot also reveals a break after the third component (Fig.5.2), allowing all three components to be retained for further investigation.

Table 5.5a Correlation matrix (EP)

		TAS1	TAS2	TAS3	TAS4	TAS5	TAS6	TAS7	TAS8	TAS9	TAS10	TAS11	TAS12	TAS14	TRE1	TRE2	TRE3	TRE4	TRE5	TRE6	TRE7	TRE8	TRE9	TRE10	TRE11	TRE12	TAN1	TAN2	TAN3	TAN4	TAN5	TAN6	TAN7
Correlation	TAS1	1.00																															
	TAS2	.747	1.00																														
	TAS3	.663	.761	1.00																													
	TAS4	.680	.675	.712	1.00																												
	TAS5	.756	.771	.749	.775	1.00																											
	TAS6	.802	.718	.648	.679	.765	1.00																										
	TAS7	.711	.807	.693	.628	.744	.756	1.00																									
	TAS8	.601	.652	.797	.610	.662	.659	.726	1.00																								
	TAS9	.667	.618	.642	.842	.724	.618	.635	.621	1.00																							
	TAS10	.716	.726	.712	.685	.739	.721	.751	.670	.715	1.00																						
	TAS11	.629	.740	.732	.628	.654	.643	.684	.635	.617	.726	1.00																					
	TAS12	.704	.657	.654	.645	.668	.649	.662	.594	.576	.752	.668	1.00																				
	TAS14	.598	.623	.633	.589	.625	.610	.611	.591	.547	.647	.590	.598	1.00																			
	TRE1	-.042	-.003	.018	-.016	.004	.057	.046	.013	-.085	.004	.026	.022	.227	1.00																	
	TRE2	-.134	-.067	-.036	-.059	-.085	-.035	-.050	-.032	-.130	-.040	-.058	-.073	.154	.657	1.00																	
	TRE3	-.109	-.078	-.091	-.056	-.066	-.031	-.031	-.119	-.137	-.059	-.033	-.063	.124	.645	.705	1.00																
	TRE4	-.023	.023	-.001	-.023	-.019	.026	.090	-.008	-.125	.039	.012	.041	.189	.596	.654	.660	1.00															
	TRE5	-.076	-.031	-.027	-.059	-.061	.003	-.011	-.044	-.151	-.018	-.010	-.064	.156	.691	.774	.763	.775	1.00														
	TRE6	-.021	.012	.031	.020	-.030	.039	.017	-.014	-.098	.007	.071	.045	.243	.779	.639	.607	.656	.702	1.00													
	TRE7	-.127	-.060	-.030	-.037	-.085	-.054	-.042	-.081	-.141	-.043	-.013	-.090	.170	.620	.815	.616	.637	.734	.681	1.00												
	TRE8	-.103	-.053	-.089	-.082	-.054	-.038	-.071	-.143	-.155	-.077	-.028	-.052	.122	.604	.635	.782	.601	.676	.653	.648	1.00											
	TRE9	-.034	.025	-.027	-.079	-.042	-.025	-.003	-.079	-.197	-.030	-.011	-.020	.187	.549	.622	.559	.808	.696	.632	.612	.626	1.00										
	TRE10	-.021	.028	.037	.005	-.018	.012	-.010	-.021	-.080	.016	.019	.041	.249	.594	.631	.606	.706	.736	.675	.652	.672	.699	1.000									
	TRE11	-.087	-.025	-.037	-.006	-.036	.009	-.025	-.069	-.115	-.042	.023	-.039	.172	.687	.721	.694	.724	.777	.721	.737	.718	.715	.760	1.000								
	TRE12	-.041	.036	.074	.025	.029	.097	.085	.038	-.077	.092	.096	.036	.223	.655	.670	.682	.703	.790	.700	.679	.638	.633	.695	.791	1.000							
	TAN1	.117	.073	.044	.054	.104	.069	.042	.009	.063	.083	.049	.111	.007	-.199	-.099	-.171	-.228	-.224	-.151	-.134	-.141	-.165	-.152	-.200	-.213	1.000						
	TAN2	.118	.063	.030	.049	.090	.002	.006	-.023	.033	.036	.008	.089	-.019	-.134	.018	-.027	-.115	-.103	-.117	-.072	-.049	-.065	-.075	-.114	-.109	.754	1.000					
	TAN3	.129	.116	.075	.073	.096	.050	.029	-.009	.062	.061	.061	.088	-.009	-.165	-.036	-.079	-.183	-.185	-.118	-.113	-.082	-.109	-.105	-.186	-.190	.778	.853	1.000				
	TAN4	.148	.104	.087	.062	.104	.061	.043	.018	.067	.092	.044	.099	.007	-.148	-.077	-.086	-.140	-.149	-.123	-.169	-.099	-.109	-.110	-.202	-.171	.743	.810	.848	1.000			
	TAN5	.166	.115	.082	.075	.129	.081	.057	.031	.075	.093	.071	.131	.029	-.141	-.021	-.098	-.169	-.177	-.141	-.108	-.108	-.123	-.132	-.176	-.187	.794	.825	.833	.811	1.000		
	TAN6	.078	.031	.010	.011	.069	.008	-.012	-.010	.021	.028	-.019	.024	-.060	-.171	-.060	-.138	-.200	-.191	-.127	-.138	-.123	-.147	-.160	-.198	-.207	.868	.791	.817	.789	.826	1.000	
	TAN7	.212	.175	.185	.103	.144	.118	.076	.126	.087	.131	.162	.171	.060	-.134	-.033	-.132	-.197	-.180	-.087	-.161	-.100	-.089	-.118	-.159	-.167	.753	.747	.776	.743	.780	.812	1.000

Table 5.5b KMO and Bartlett's test (EP/3Ts)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.919
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6675.809
	df	496
	Sig.	.000

Table 5.6 Total variance explained (EP/3Ts)

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.570	29.905	29.905	9.570	29.905	29.905	9.198	28.743	28.743
2	8.765	27.390	57.295	8.765	27.390	57.295	8.596	26.863	55.606
3	5.288	16.524	73.819	5.288	16.524	73.819	5.828	18.213	73.819
4	.729	2.278	76.098						
5	.656	2.049	78.146						
6	.579	1.808	79.954						
7	.551	1.721	81.675						
8	.497	1.554	83.229						
9	.442	1.380	84.609						
10	.432	1.351	85.961						
11	.421	1.316	87.277						
12	.371	1.161	88.438						
13	.344	1.076	89.514						
14	.327	1.021	90.535						
15	.295	.923	91.458						
16	.276	.863	92.321						
17	.245	.766	93.087						
18	.236	.738	93.824						
19	.226	.707	94.531						
20	.209	.652	95.183						
21	.191	.596	95.780						
22	.165	.515	96.295						
23	.153	.477	96.772						
24	.147	.460	97.232						
25	.141	.440	97.672						
26	.134	.419	98.091						
27	.124	.387	98.478						
28	.114	.355	98.833						
29	.107	.336	99.169						
30	.100	.313	99.482						
31	.093	.290	99.772						
32	.073	.228	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.7a Pattern/structure coefficients (EP/3Ts)[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
TAS5	**.882**	-.034	.071
TAS10	**.876**	-.004	.039
TAS2	**.871**	-.005	.066
TAS7	**.865**	.007	-.006
TAS3	**.862**	-.007	.036
TAS6	**.851**	.016	.021
TAS1	**.847**	-.066	.109
TAS4	**.837**	-.031	.024
TAS11	**.821**	.020	.020
TAS8	**.810**	-.051	-.028
TAS12	**.807**	-.007	.075
TAS9	**.806**	-.147	.010
TAS14	**.757**	.237	-.013
TRE5	-.026	**.898**	-.105
TRE11	-.015	**.890**	-.111
TRE2	-.058	**.850**	.040
TRE12	.079	**.850**	-.124
TRE4	.032	**.837**	-.118
TRE6	.040	**.834**	-.060
TRE10	.033	**.833**	-.056
TRE7	-.053	**.833**	-.056
TRE3	-.066	**.823**	-.029
TRE8	-.072	**.816**	-.024
TRE9	-.022	**.806**	-.048
TRE1	.036	**.793**	-.100
TAN3	.039	-.081	**.925**
TAN6	-.020	-.114	**.922**
TAN5	.068	-.084	**.917**
TAN2	.008	-.023	**.912**
TAN4	.051	-.086	**.896**
TAN1	.040	-.138	**.882**
TAN7	.129	-.085	**.871**

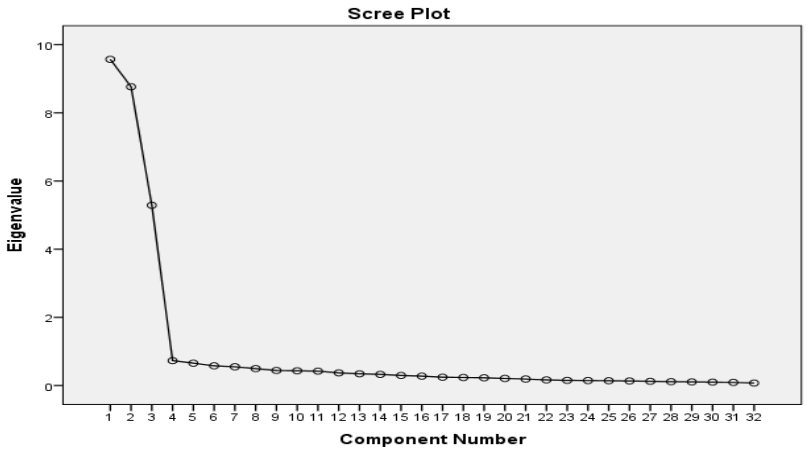
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 5.7b Pattern/structure coefficients (EP/3Ts)[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
TAS1	.847		
TAS2	.871		
TAS3	.862		
TAS4	.837		
TAS5	.882		
TAS6	.851		
TAS7	.865		
TAS8	.810		
TAS9	.806		
TAS10	.876		
TAS11	.821		
TAS12	.807		
TAS14	.757		
TRE1		.793	
TRE2		.850	
TRE3		.823	
TRE4		.837	
TRE5		.898	
TRE6		.834	
TRE7		.833	
TRE8		.816	
TRE9		.806	
TRE10		.833	
TRE11		.890	
TRE12		.850	
TAN1			.882
TAN2			.912
TAN3			.925
TAN4			.896
TAN5			.917
TAN6			.922
TAN7			.871

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Figure 5.2 Scree plot (EP/3Ts)



5.3.1.3 Service quality scale

Inspection of the correlation matrix (Table 5.8) shows many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value is 0.830, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 and Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance, $p = 0.000$ ($p < 0.01$) (Table 5.9), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The principal component analysis of the service quality scale results in five components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (5.15, 3.71, 2.56, 1.71 and 1.43), accounting for 24.53%, 17.67%, 12.19%, 8.14% and 6.80% of the variance respectively (Table 5.10). The five components result explains a total of 69.31% of the variance. The result from the varimax rotation also shows that the factor loadings of all components are greater than 0.4 and that there are few cross loadings (Table 5.11a &b). Inspecting the scree plot also revealed a break after the fifth component (Figure. 3), allowing the retention of all the five components for further investigation.

Table 5.8 Correlation matrix (SQ)

		TANG1	TANG2	TANG3	TANG4	REL1	REL2	REL3	REL4	RES1	RES2	RES3	ASS1	ASS2	ASS3	ASS4	ASS5	EMP1	EMP2	EMP3	EMP4
Correlation	TANG1	1.000																			
	TANG2	.730	1.000																		
	TANG3	.669	.771	1.000																	
	TANG4	.657	.686	.732	1.000																
	REL1	.156	.171	.183	.183	1.000															
	REL2	.009	.029	.063	.027	.671	1.000														
	REL3	.021	.024	.055	.037	.631	.692	1.000													
	REL4	-.011	-.023	.029	.027	.594	.667	.686	1.000												
	RES1	.073	.084	.070	.087	-.055	-.012	-.025	.038	1.000											
	RES2	.071	.087	.062	.093	-.055	-.044	-.090	-.006	.716	1.000										
	RES3	.111	.129	.109	.121	-.118	-.101	-.126	-.070	.720	.826	1.000									
	ASS1	.113	.131	.216	.185	.332	.277	.216	.238	.117	.229	.225	1.000								
	ASS2	.196	.178	.225	.193	.271	.309	.317	.255	-.025	.034	.066	.601	1.000							
	ASS3	.138	.144	.210	.179	.342	.358	.324	.399	.024	.018	.010	.563	.629	1.000						
	ASS4	.137	.121	.201	.157	.276	.290	.262	.316	-.031	-.014	-.032	.413	.574	.613	1.000					
	ASS5	.192	.123	.200	.136	.286	.291	.282	.319	-.074	-.087	-.149	.361	.439	.569	.665	1.000				
	EMP1	.194	.161	.241	.226	.127	.113	.108	.101	.210	.227	.223	.208	.218	.215	.329	.281	1.000			
	EMP2	.197	.189	.243	.255	.088	.037	.036	.036	.301	.299	.303	.146	.194	.157	.175	.161	.590	1.000		
	EMP3	.112	.132	.222	.183	.027	-.042	-.035	-.058	.291	.323	.339	.106	.085	.071	.052	.037	.443	.562	1.000	
	EMP4	.202	.182	.245	.189	.087	-.029	.037	.008	.322	.311	.289	.100	.081	.093	.028	.044	.301	.389	.588	1.000

Table 5.9 KMO and Bartlett's test (SQ)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.830
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	5412.188
Sphericity	df	210
	Sig.	.000

Table 5.10 Total variance explained (SQ)

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.152	24.531	24.531	5.152	24.531	24.531	3.216	15.312	15.312
2	3.710	17.665	42.196	3.710	17.665	42.196	3.161	15.054	30.366
3	2.559	12.186	54.382	2.559	12.186	54.382	3.023	14.393	44.760
4	1.709	8.136	62.518	1.709	8.136	62.518	2.622	12.485	57.245
5	1.427	6.795	69.313	1.427	6.795	69.313	2.475	11.784	69.029
6	1.002	4.771	74.084	1.002	4.771	74.084	1.062	5.056	74.084
7	.779	3.708	77.792						
8	.668	3.183	80.975						
9	.469	2.232	83.207						
10	.412	1.964	85.171						
11	.386	1.839	87.010						
12	.384	1.829	88.839						
13	.333	1.587	90.426						
14	.329	1.564	91.990						
15	.310	1.474	93.464						
16	.288	1.369	94.833						
17	.269	1.283	96.117						
18	.253	1.204	97.321						
19	.215	1.026	98.347						
20	.191	.912	99.259						
21	.156	.741	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.11a Pattern/structure coefficients (SQ)[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
TANG1	.078	**.850**	.017	.026	.095
TANG2	.065	**.902**	.017	.046	.064
TANG3	.157	**.870**	.028	-.004	.172
TANG4	.110	**.847**	.026	.033	.142
REL1	.178	.174	**.806**	-.060	.055
REL2	.209	-.009	**.854**	-.007	-.016
REL3	.167	-.004	**.856**	-.057	.024
REL4	.224	-.050	**.826**	.030	-.012
RES1	-.028	.037	.013	**.835**	.215
RES2	.043	.034	-.056	**.895**	.197
RES3	.037	.084	-.122	**.902**	.186
ASS1	**.720**	.105	.149	.275	-.013
ASS2	**.784**	.129	.162	.041	.052
ASS3	**.804**	.084	.247	.012	.059
ASS4	**.795**	.050	.157	-.101	.143
ASS5	**.705**	.073	.191	-.210	.161
EMP1	.265	.095	.058	.059	**.720**
EMP2	.134	.126	.011	.155	**.786**
EMP3	-.002	.076	-.053	.186	**.817**
EMP4	-.048	.160	.046	.227	**.666**

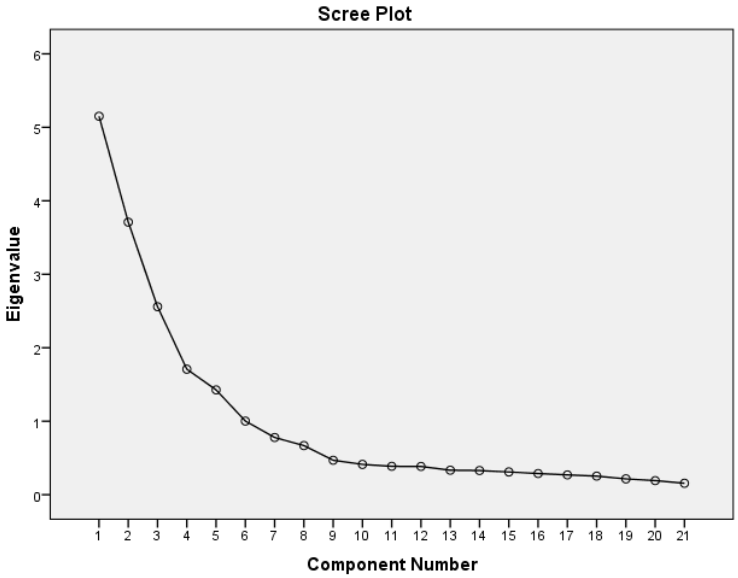
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table 5.11b Pattern/structure coefficients (SQ)[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
TANG1		.850			
TANG2		.902			
TANG3		.870			
TANG4		.847			
REL1			.806		
REL2			.854		
REL3			.856		
REL4			.826		
RES1				.835	
RES2				.895	
RES3				.902	
ASS1	.720				
ASS2	.784				
ASS3	.804				
ASS4	.795				
ASS5	.705				
EMP1					.720
EMP2					.786
EMP3					.817
EMP4					.666

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Figure 5.3 Scree plot (SQ)



5.3.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

The goodness of fit measures of the three scales is estimated through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using Lisrel (version 8.8); the result for each scale is shown below.

5.3.2.1 Cultural intelligence scale

The original cultural intelligence measure was designed to measure the cultural intelligence of expatriates. The researcher had slightly modified this measure for use with the local hotel employees in their service encounter with foreign guests. Therefore, it is necessary to undertake a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the relationship between the modified observed items and their latent variables. The confirmatory factor analysis in Table 5.12 shows that all item loadings are acceptable (> 0.4), that the goodness of fit statistics are all acceptable; as Chi-square= 321.97 (df =164), RMSEA=0.07, SRMR=0.049, and CFI=0.94. These statistics confirm the construct validity of cultural intelligence.

Table 5.12 CFA (CI scale)

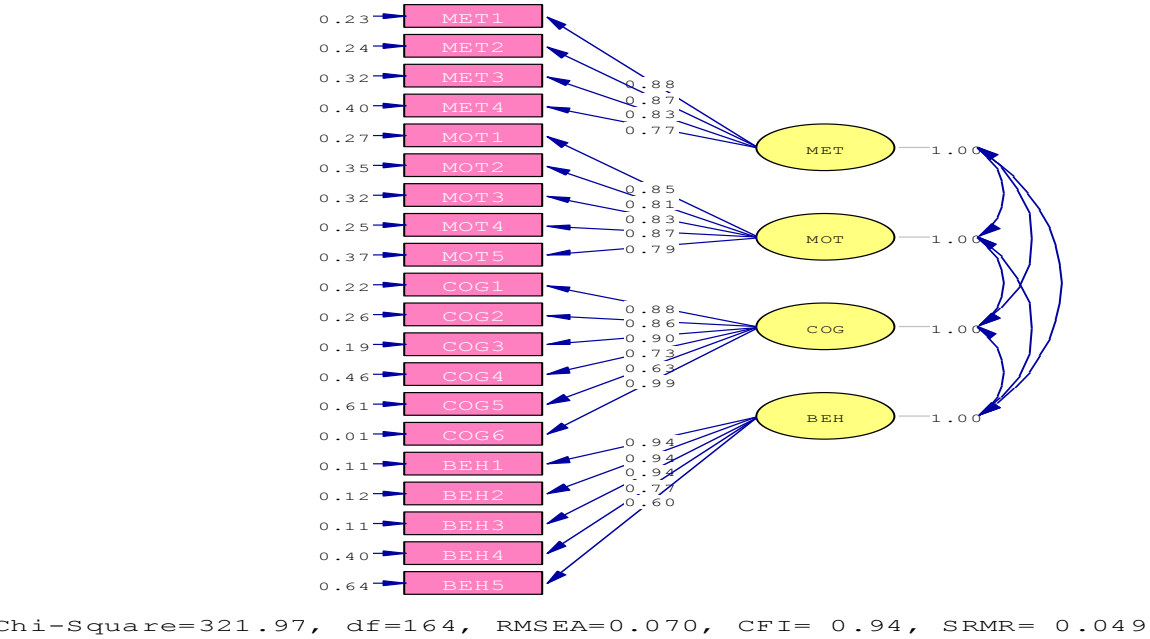
Indicators	Completely standardised loadings	Error variance
Meta-cognition		
Meta-cog 1	0.88	0.23
Meta-cog 2	0.87	0.24
Meta-cog 3	0.83	0.32
Meta-cog 4	0.77	0.40
Cognition		
Cog 1	0.88	0.22
Cog 2	0.86	0.26
Cog 3	0.90	0.19
Cog 4	0.73	0.46
Cog 5	0.63	0.61
Cog 6	0.99	0.01
Motivational		
Mot 1	0.85	0.27
Mot 2	0.81	0.35
Mot 3	0.83	0.32
Mot 4	0.87	0.25
Mot 5	0.79	0.37
Behavioural		
Beh 1	0.94	0.11
Beh 2	0.94	0.12
Beh 3	0.94	0.11
Beh 4	0.77	0.40
Beh 5	0.60	0.64

Fit statistics
Chi-square= 321.97(*df* =164)
RMSEA= 0.07
SRMR= 0.049
CFI= 0.94

Note: All *t*-value were significant at $p<0.05$

Table 5.12 show four goodness-of-fit statistics: the Chi-square with associated *p*-value and *df* value, RMSEA, SRMR, and CFI. The Chi-square divided by the degree of freedom (*df*) =1.96 (<5), indicating goodness of fit of the model. The RSMEA value of 0.07 (between 0.05 & 0.08) indicates a reasonable fit. The SRMR value of 0.049 (<0.05) indicates a good fit. The CFI value of 0.94 (>0.9) indicates an acceptable fit. The model thus has good fit statistics and is, therefore, correct. The path diagram is shown in Figure 5.4

Figure 5.4 CFA, path diagram (CI scale)



Chi-Square=321.97, df=164, RMSEA=0.070, CFI= 0.94, SRMR= 0.049

5.3.2.2 Employee performance scale

As explained in the methodology section the employee performance scale was developed by the researcher based on the literature and from data obtained from the pilot study. This measure originally consisted of 34 items which were reduced to 32 items following the exploratory factor analysis. The initial measurement estimation of this model fits well; Chi-square = 949.12 (*df*= 461), SRMR= 0.057, RMSEA= 0.073, and CFI= 0.91. Table 5.13 shows the results of the confirmatory factor analysis of this measure.

Table 5.13 CFA (EP scale)

Indicators	Completely standardised loadings	Error variance
Task		
Tas 1	0.84	0.29
Tas 2	0.87	0.25
Tas 3	0.85	0.28
Tas 4	0.82	0.33
Tas 5	0.88	0.23
Tas 6	0.84	0.29
Tas 7	0.86	0.27
Tas 8	0.79	0.38
Tas 9	0.79	0.38
Tas 10	0.86	0.25
Tas 11	0.80	0.36
Tas 12	0.79	0.38
Tas 14	0.73	0.47
Treatment		
Tre 1	0.77	0.40
Tre 2	0.83	0.31
Tre 3	0.80	0.35
Tre 4	0.83	0.31
Tre 5	0.90	0.19
Tre 6	0.81	0.34
Tre 7	0.82	0.33
Tre 8	0.79	0.38
Tre 9	0.79	0.38
Tre 10	0.82	0.33
Tre 11	0.89	0.21
Tre 12	0.85	0.28
Tangibles		
Tan 1	0.87	0.24
Tan 2	0.89	0.20
Tan 3	0.82	0.16
Tan 4	0.89	0.21
Tan 5	0.91	0.17
Tan 6	0.91	0.17
Tan 7	0.86	0.27

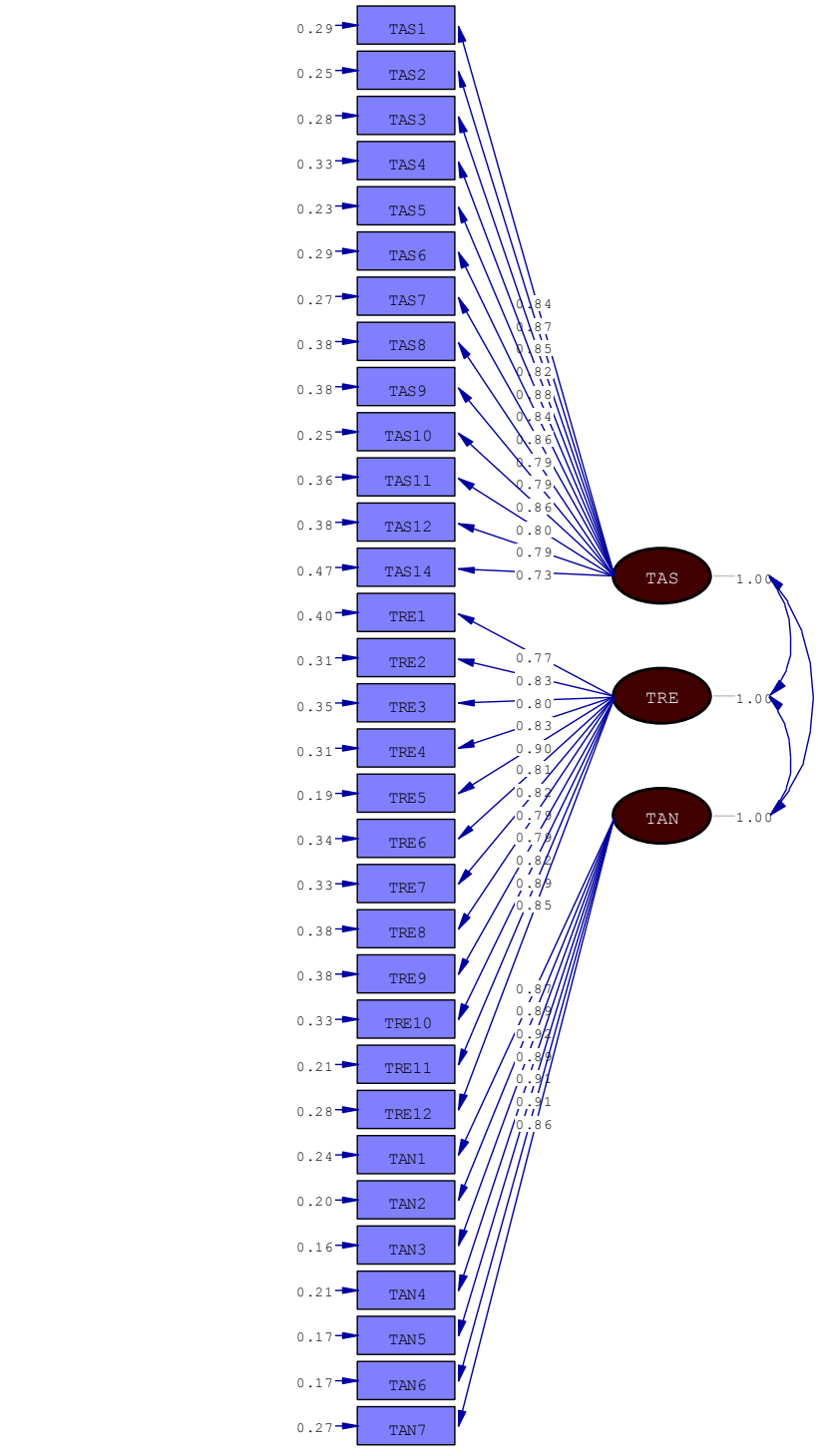
Fit statistics
Chi-square= 949.12 (*df* =461)
RMSEA= 0.073
SRMR= 0.057
CFI= 0.91

Note: All *t*-value were significant at $p<0.05$

Table 5.13 shows four goodness-of-fit statistics: the Chi-square with associated *p*-value and *df* value, RMSEA, SRMR, and CFI. The Chi-square divided by the degree of

freedom (*df*) =2.05 (<5), indicating goodness of fit of the model. The RSMEA value of 0.073 (between 0.05 & 0.08) indicates a reasonable fit. The SRMR value of 0.057 (slightly > 0.05) indicates a reasonable fit. The CFI value of 0.91 (>0.9) indicates an acceptable fit. The model thus has good fit statistics and is, therefore, correct. The path diagram is shown in Figure 5.5.

Figure 5.5 CFA, path diagram (EP)



Chi-Square=949.12, df=461, RMSEA=0.073, CFI=0.91, IFI=0.91

5.3.2.3 Service quality scale

The service quality measurement model consists of 5 factors, comprising 20 items. The initial measurement estimation of this model shows a good fit; Chi-square = 52.9 (*df*= 160), RMSEA= 0.072, SRMR= 0.063, and CFI= 0.95.

Table 5.14 CFA (SQ scale)

Indicators	Completely standardised loadings	Error variance
Tangibles		
Tang 1	0.80	0.36
Tang 2	0.87	0.24
Tang 3	0.88	0.23
Tang 4	0.81	0.34
Reliability		
Rel 1	0.77	0.41
Rel 2	0.84	0.29
Rel 3	0.83	0.31
Rel 4	0.80	0.36
Responsiveness		
Res 1	0.79	0.37
Res 2	0.90	0.18
Res 3	0.91	0.17
Assurance		
Ass 1	0.65	0.58
Ass 2	0.76	0.43
Ass 3	0.83	0.32
Ass 4	0.77	0.41
Ass 5	0.69	0.52
Empathy		
Emp 1	0.65	0.58
Emp 2	0.76	0.42
Emp 3	0.76	0.42
Emp 4	0.61	0.63

Fit statistics
Chi-square= 52.9 (*df* =160)
RMSEA= 0.072
SRMR= 0.063
CFI= 0.95

Note: All *t*-value were significant at $p<0.05$

Table 5.14 shows the goodness-of-fit statistics: the Chi-square with associated *p*-value and *df* value, RMSEA, SRMR, and CFI. The Chi-square divided by the degree of freedom (*df*) =0.33 (< 5), indicating goodness of fit of the model. The RSMEA value of 0.072 (between 0.05 & 0.08) indicates a reasonable fit. The SRMR value of 0.063

(slightly > 0.05) indicates a reasonable fit. The CFI value of 0.95 (>0.9) indicates an acceptable fit. The model thus has good fit statistics, so the model is correct.
Table 5.15 displays the summary of the fit statistics of all the scales.

Table 5.15 Summary of fit statistics

Scale	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI
Cultural intelligence	321.97	164	0.07	0.049	0.94
Employee performance	949.12	461	0.073	0.057	0.91
Service quality	52.9	160	0.072	0.063	0.95

*p<0.05

5.3.3 Validity

The results of the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the three scales are shown in sub-sections 5.3.3.1 and 5.3.3.2.

5.3.3.1 Convergent validity

The variance extracted measures for the cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality scales, using the variance extracted equation (see sub-section 3.3.2.4 of the Methodology chapter) are shown in Tables 5.16, 5.17 and 5.18, and the summary Table 5.19. These tables show variance extracted measures of 0.706 for cultural intelligence, 0.708 for employee performance, and 0.620 for service quality; all the three values exceed 0.5. Furthermore, as seen from the CFA Tables 5.12, 5.13 and 5.14 of these scales above, all their *t*-values are significant at $p < 0.05$. These statistics provide evidence of convergent validity for the three scales in the confirmatory factor analysis.

Table 5.16 Variance extracted (CI)

	Standardised loading	Sq standardised loading	Errors variance
Meta-cognition			
Meta-cog 1	0.880	0.774	0.230
Meta-cog 2	0.870	0.757	0.240
Meta-cog 3	0.830	0.689	0.320
Meta-cog 4	0.770	0.593	0.400
Cognition			
Cog 1	0.880	0.774	0.220
Cog 2	0.860	0.740	0.260
Cog 3	0.900	0.810	0.190
Cog 4	0.730	0.533	0.460
Cog 5	0.630	0.397	0.610
Cog 6	0.990	0.980	0.010
Motivational			
Mot 1	0.850	0.723	0.270
Mot 2	0.810	0.656	0.350
Mot 3	0.830	0.689	0.320
Mot 4	0.870	0.757	0.250
Mot 5	0.790	0.624	0.370
Behavioural			
Beh 1	0.940	0.884	0.110
Beh 2	0.940	0.884	0.120
Beh 3	0.940	0.884	0.110
Beh 4	0.770	0.593	0.400
Beh 5	0.600	0.360	0.640
Sum	16.680	14.099	5.880
Variance extracted (14.09/(14.09+5.88)) =			0.706

Table 5.17 Variance extracted (EP)

	Standardised loading	Sq standardised loading	Errors variance
Task			
Tas 1	0.84	0.7056	0.29
Tas 2	0.87	0.7569	0.25
Tas 3	0.85	0.7225	0.28
Tas 4	0.82	0.6724	0.33
Tas 5	0.88	0.7744	0.23
Tas 6	0.84	0.7056	0.29
Tas 7	0.86	0.7396	0.27
Tas 8	0.79	0.6241	0.38
Tas 9	0.79	0.6241	0.38
Tas 10	0.86	0.7396	0.25
Tas 11	0.8	0.64	0.36
Tas 12	0.79	0.6241	0.38
Tas 14	0.73	0.5329	0.47
Treatment			
Tre 1	0.77	0.5929	0.4
Tre 2	0.83	0.6889	0.31
Tre 3	0.8	0.64	0.35
Tre 4	0.83	0.6889	0.31
Tre 5	0.9	0.81	0.19
Tre 6	0.81	0.6561	0.34
Tre 7	0.82	0.6724	0.33
Tre 8	0.79	0.6241	0.38
Tre 9	0.79	0.6241	0.38
Tre 10	0.82	0.6724	0.33
Tre 11	0.89	0.7921	0.21
Tre 12	0.85	0.7225	0.28
Tangibles		0	
Tan 1	0.87	0.7569	0.24
Tan 2	0.89	0.7921	0.2
Tan 3	0.82	0.6724	0.16
Tan 4	0.89	0.7921	0.21
Tan 5	0.91	0.8281	0.17
Tan 6	0.91	0.8281	0.17
Tan 7	0.86	0.7396	0.27
Sum	17.570	14.751	6.080
Variance extracted (14.75/(14.75+6.080)) =			0.708

Table 5.18 Variance extracted (SQ)

	Standardised loading	Sq standardised loading	Errors variance
Tangibles			
Tang 1	0.800	0.640	0.360
Tang 2	0.870	0.757	0.240
Tang 3	0.880	0.774	0.230
Tang 4	0.810	0.656	0.340
Reliability			
Rel 1	0.770	0.593	0.410
Rel 2	0.840	0.706	0.290
Rel 3	0.830	0.689	0.310
Rel 4	0.800	0.640	0.360
Responsiveness			
Res 1	0.790	0.624	0.370
Res 2	0.900	0.810	0.180
Res 3	0.910	0.828	0.170
Assurance			
Ass 1	0.650	0.423	0.580
Ass 2	0.760	0.578	0.430
Ass 3	0.830	0.689	0.320
Ass 4	0.770	0.593	0.410
Ass 5	0.690	0.476	0.520
Empathy			
Emp 1	0.650	0.423	0.580
Emp 2	0.760	0.578	0.420
Emp 3	0.760	0.578	0.420
Emp 4	0.610	0.372	0.630
Sum	14.880	11.785	7.210
Variance extracted (11.785/(11.785+7.210)) =			0.620

Table 5.19 Summary variance extracted measures

Measure	Variance extracted
Cultural intelligence	0.706
3Ts performance	0.708
Service quality	0.620

5.3.3.2 Discriminant validity

Analysis of the literature indicates strong relationships between the dimensions of the three constructs of cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality. The correlation analysis of the data supported most of these relationships. To investigate

the discriminant validity between the dimensions of these constructs, their average variance extracted estimates and squared correlations were calculated and compared, revealing values of average variance extracted estimates higher than their squared correlations. For example; the average variance extracted between the tangibles dimension of employee performance and the tangibles dimension of service quality is 0.75 (Table 5.21), far greater than the squared correlation between them of 0.01 (Table 5.20); supporting the discriminant validity for these dimension. Also, the average variance extracted between the motivation dimension of cultural intelligence and the task dimension of employee performance was 0.685 (Table 5.21), greater than the squared correlation between them of 0.157 (Table 5.20); these tables show all the other relationships.

Table 5.20 Squared correlation matrix
(CI, EP & SQ)

	MET	COG	MOT	BEH	TAS	TRE	TAN	TANG	REL	RES	ASS	EMP
MET	1.000											
COG	0.056	1.000										
MOT	0.203	0.024	1.000									
BEH	0.017	0.019	0.037	1.000								
TAS	0.453	0.041	0.157	0.004	1.000							
TRE	0.021	0.001	0.271	0.044	0.004	1.000						
TAN	0.000	0.327	0.002	0.006	0.000	0.029	1.000					
TANG	0.279	0.079	0.064	0.004	0.656	0.000	0.013	1.000				
REL	0.046	0.000	0.254	0.038	0.023	0.881	0.019	0.006	1.000			
RES	0.001	0.274	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.009	0.920	0.012	0.003	1.000		
ASS	0.179	0.032	0.818	0.047	0.165	0.243	0.002	0.064	0.243	0.004	1.000	
EMP	0.085	0.852	0.064	0.023	0.068	0.004	0.223	0.100	0.006	0.189	0.078	1.000

Table 5.21 Average variance extracted for CI, EP & SQ

	MET	COG	MOT	BEH	TAS	TRE	TAN
TAS	.692	.694	.685	.702			
TRE	.693	.695	.685	.703			
TAN	.747	.750	.740	.758			
TANG	.758	.707	.698	.715	.694	.695	.750
REL	.690	.682	.673	.690	.669	.670	.725
RES	.731	.733	.724	.741	.720	.720	.775
ASS	.626	.629	.619	.636	.615	.616	.671
EMP	.595	.598	.588	.605	.584	.585	.640

5.3.4 Reliability

Reliability of a measuring instrument, in this case, cultural intelligence, employee performance, and service quality measures is tested through two indicators, internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) and composite reliability. Table 5.22 presents the composite reliability for each of the three scales and Cronbach's alpha values for the dimensions of these scales. The table shows that the composite reliability values of the cultural intelligence, employee performance, and service quality scales are 0.977, 0.987 and 0.970 respectively; these values are > 0.7, they are therefore acceptable. The table also shows that Cronbach's alpha values for the cultural intelligence variables of meta-cognition, cognition, motivation and behaviour are 0.904, 0.932, 0.915 and 0.925 respectively; those of the employee performance variables of task, treatment and tangibles are 0.964, 0.962 and 0.965 respectively; and the values for the service quality variables of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy are 0.905, 0.884, 0.902, 0.855 and 0.785 respectively. All these Cronbach's alpha values are high (>0.75), and are therefore acceptable.

Table 5.22 Reliability (Cronbach's alpha & composite reliability)

Scales	Composite reliability	Cronbach's alpha
Cultural intelligence	0.977	
Met		0.904
Cog		0.932
Mot		0.915
Beh		0.925
3Ts performance	0.987	
Tas		0.964
Tre		0.962
Tan		0.965
Service quality	0.970	
Tang		0.905
Rel		0.884
Res		0.902
Ass		0.855
Emp		0.785

5.4 Hypothesis testing

To help test the model's hypotheses a correlation matrix was produced; this matrix is also necessary to ensure that there is no multi co-linearity between the dimensions of the independent variable. This matrix is shown in Table 5.23 below. It displays the means, standard deviations and the correlations of the twelve variables of this study. The results show that all the means are higher than the middle point of the five point Likert scale. For example, the arithmetic mean of the meta-cognitive dimension is 3.490, and that for the task dimension is 3.420. The table also shows that most of the correlations between the twelve variables are statistically significant, and that there are no statistically significant relationships between some of the dimensions.

Three sets of hypotheses are involved in this research. The first set, H1, H2 and H3 represent the direct relationships between the independent variable (cultural intelligence) and the mediator (employee performance). The second set, H4 and H5, represents the direct relationships between the mediator and the dependent variable (service quality). The third set of hypotheses, H6 - H13 is the indirect relationships between the independent and dependent variables through the mediator. To test these hypotheses, the hierarchical multi regression analysis technique is used, taking into consideration the control variables of age, gender, and experience. The first and second sets of hypotheses are tested in the normal way; the third set of hypotheses is tested by using mediator variable analysis, as proposed by Baron and Kenney (1986). Preliminary analyses are conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multi-co linearity and homoscedasticity.

Table 5.23

Correlations

CI, EP, SQ

	Met	Cog	Mot	Beh	Tas	Tre	Tan	Tang	Rel	Res	Ass	Emp
Met	1											
Cog	0.237**	1										
Mot	0.451**	0.155*	1									
Beh	0.131	0.137	0.193**	1								
Tas	0.673**	0.203**	0.396**	0.064	1							
Tre	0.145*	-0.024	0.521**	0.210**	0.060	1						
Tan	-0.020	0.572**	-0.041	0.076	0.019	-0.172*	1					
Tang	0.528**	0.280**	0.253**	0.066	0.810**	-0.014	0.144	1				
Rel	0.214**	-0.007	0.504**	0.195**	0.151*	0.939**	-0.139*	0.084	1			
Res	-0.028	0.523**	-0.013	0.055	0.015	-0.094	0.959**	0.115	-0.052	1		
Ass	0.423**	0.178**	0.905**	0.216**	0.406**	0.493**	0.043	0.257**	0.496**	0.067	1	
Emp	0.291**	0.923**	0.254**	0.150*	0.260**	0.064	0.472**	0.319**	0.081	0.436**	0.283**	1
Mean	3.490	3.670	3.470	3.380	3.420	3.410	3.290	3.400	3.410	3.280	3.530	3.730
Std Dev	0.810	0.703	0.708	0.713	0.794	0.841	1.130	0.897	0.806	1.056	0.620	0.580

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

5.4.1 Direct relationships: Cultural intelligence and employee performance

Hypothesis set H1

Hypothesis set H1 assesses the ability of the four independent variables of cultural intelligence to predict task performance (H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d) of hotel employees, after controlling for the influence of age, gender and experience. Age, gender and experience are entered at model1, explaining 0.6% (R^2 = .006, adjusted R^2 = -.009) of the variance in task performance. The entry of the meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions of cultural intelligence at model 2 result in an additional 47.2% (ΔR^2 = .472) of variance in task performance being explained. The model as a whole is significant, F (7, 193) =25.24, p < .001, and accounts for 45.9% (adjusted R^2 = .459) of the variance in task performance. Table 5.24 shows the values for the predictors of task performance (see also Appendix 5). In the final model, the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance (H1a) is statistically significant, recording a beta value of 0.620, p < .001. This hypothesis is thus supported. Hypothesis H1c which proposes a positive direct relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance is also upheld by the finding (β = .126, p < .05). In contrast, concerning the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance (hypothesis H1b), the model does not support this hypothesis as it shows a non-significant relationship between these two variables (β = .039, *ns*). The finding of this study also does not support hypothesis H1d, as it shows a non-significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and task performance (β = -0.054, *ns*).

Table 5.24 Hierarchical regression analysis evaluating predictors of task

Measures	R	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	df	β
	.077	.006	.006	.396	3, 197	
Age						-.097
Gender						.006
Experience						.016
Cultural	.691	.478	.472	43.62**	4, 193	
intelligence						.620**
Met						.039
Cog						.126*
Mot						-.054
Beh						

*p< .05 **p < .001

Note. Betas reported are those from the model at which the variable was entered into the equation.

Hypothesis set H2

Hypothesis set H2 was about the ability of meta-cognitive (H2a), cognitive (H2b), motivational (H2c), and behavioural (H2d) cultural intelligence to predict treatment performance. These hypotheses are investigated after controlling for the influence of age, gender and experience. Age, gender and experience are entered at model1, explaining 0.7% (R^2 = .007, adjusted R^2 = -.008) of the variance in treatment performance. The entry of meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural cultural intelligence at model 2 results in explaining an additional 30.4% (ΔR^2 = .304) of the variance in treatment performance. The model as a whole is significant, F (7, 193) =12.43, p < .001, and accounts for 28.6% (adjusted R^2 = .286) of the variance in treatment performance. Table 5.25 shows the values for the predictors of treatment performance (see also Appendix 5).

The finding shows that there is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance (β = .562, p < 0.001) as proposed by hypothesis H2b. This hypothesis is therefore supported. Similarly, the relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment performance as proposed by hypothesis H2d is also statistically significant, recording a beta value of .140, p < 0.05. Therefore, hypothesis H2d is also supported. The model shows no significant relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance (hypothesis H2a) (β = -.114, *ns*), and no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and treatment performance (H2c) (β = -.098, *ns*).

Table 5.25 Hierarchical regression analysis evaluating predictors of treatment

Measures	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	*df*	β
	.083	.007	.007	.459	3, 197	
Age						-.025
Gender						.031
Experience						-.042
Cultural	.558	.31	.304	21.27 **	4, 193	
intelligence						-.114
Met						.562**
Cog						-.098
Mot						.14 *
Beh						

*p< .05 **p < .001

Note. Betas reported are those from the step at which the variable was entered into the equation.

Hypothesis set H3

Hypothesis set H3 assesses the ability of the four independent variables of cultural intelligence to predict tangibles performance (H3a, H3b, H3c & H3d), after controlling for the influence of age, gender and cross experience. Age, gender and experience are entered at model1, explaining 5.1% (R^2 = .051, adjusted R^2 = .037) of the variance in tangibles performance. The entry of the meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions of cultural intelligence at model 2 results in explaining an additional 34% (ΔR^2 = .340) of variance in tangibles performance. The model as a whole is significant, F (7, 193) =17.73, p < .001, and accounts for 36.9% (adjusted R^2 = .369) of the variance in tangibles performance. Table 5.26 shows the values for the predictors of tangibles performance (see also Appendix 5).

The finding of this study shows that hypothesis H3b, which proposed a positive relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and tangibles performance, is supported (β = .601, p < .001). On the other hand, hypothesis H3a which proposed a relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and tangibles was not supported (β = -.117, *ns*). The relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and tangibles performance as proposed by hypothesis H3c is also not upheld (β = -.083, *ns*). Similarly, hypothesis H3d, which proposed a positive relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and tangibles is not supported (β = .007, *ns*).

Table 5.26 Hierarchical regression analysis evaluating predictors of tangibles

Measures	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	*df*	β
	.226	.051	.051	3.54 *	3, 197	
Age						.007
Gender						-.066
Experience						.17*
Cultural	.626	.391	.340	26.97 **	4, 193	
intelligence						-.117
Met						.601**
Cog						-.083
Mot						.007
Beh						

* p < .05 **p < .01

Note. Betas reported are those from the step at which the variable was entered into the equation.

5.4.2 Direct relationships: Employee performance and service quality

Hypothesis set H4

Hypothesis set H4 assesses the ability of task performance to predict reliability (H4a), responsiveness (H4b), assurance (H4c) and empathy (H4d). To test this set of hypotheses, the standard regression analysis was used instead of the hierarchical regression analysis. This is because in these relationships there is no control variable effect as the employees' performance questionnaires were not filled by themselves; rather they were filled by their managers.

The model explains 88.6% (adjusted R^2 = .886) of the variance in reliability, F (3, 197) = 521.293, p < .001. It shows a significant relationship between task performance and reliability (β = .077, p < 0.01), as proposed by hypothesis H4a (see Appendix 6 & Table 5.27). This hypothesis is thus supported. As for responsiveness, the model explains 92.4% of the variance, F (3, 197) = 810.99, p < .001. However, hypothesis H4b which proposed a relationship between task performance and responsiveness was not supported by the result, as it shows no significant relationship between these two variables (β = -.014, *ns*) (see Appendix 6 & table 5.28). The model for assurance explains 32.2% of the variance, it is significant at F (3, 197) = 32.7, p < .001. There is also a significant positive relationship between task performance and assurance (β = .263, p < 0.001), supporting hypothesis H4c (see Appendix 6 & Table 5.29). The model also supports hypothesis H4d which proposed a relationship between task performance and empathy, F (3, 197) = 29.645, p < .001. There is also a significant positive relationship between task performance and empathy (β = .255, p < 0.001), supporting hypothesis H4d (see Appendix 6 & Table 5.30).

Table 5.27 Hierarchical regression analysis evaluating predictors of reliability

Measures	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	*df*	β
Employee performance	.942	.89	.89	521.3 **	3, 197	.077**
Task						.94**
Treatment						.015
Tangibles						

*p< .05 **p < .01

Note. Betas reported are those from the step at which the variable was entered into the equation.

Table 5.28 Hierarchical regression analysis evaluating predictors of responsiveness

Measures	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	*df*	*β*
Employee	.96	.93	.93	810.9 **	3, 197	
performance						-.014
Task						.073**
Treatment						.97**
Tangibles						

*p< .05 **p < .01

Table 5.29 Hierarchical regression analysis evaluating predictors of assurance

Measures	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	*df*	*β*
Employee	.577	.333	.333	32.71**	3, 197	
performance						.263**
Task						.517**
Treatment						.109
Tangibles						

*p< .05 **p < .01

Table 5.30 Hierarchical regression analysis evaluating predictors of empathy

Measures	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	*df*	*β*
Employee	.558	.311	.311	29.65**	3, 197	
performance						.255**
Task						.150*
Treatment						.477**
Tangibles						

*p< .05 **p < .01

Hypothesis set H5

Hypothesis set H5 assessed the ability of the variable treatment performance to predict reliability (H5a), responsiveness (H5b), assurance (H5c), and empathy (H5d), as perceived by the sample of foreign guests.

The model shows that treatment performance is significantly positively related to reliability (β =.942, p < 0.001) (see Appendix 6 & Table 5.27). Hypothesis H5a is thus supported. The model also shows a significant positive relationship between treatment performance and responsiveness (β = 0.073, p < 0.001) as proposed by hypothesis H5b (Appendix 6 & Table 5.28). Hypothesis H5b is thus supported. The relationship between treatment performance and assurance as proposed by hypothesis H5c is shown to be statistically positively significant (β =0.517, p < 0.001) (Appendix 6 & Table 5.29). Hypothesis H5c is thus supported. Furthermore, the model displays a significant relationship between treatment performance and empathy (β = 0.15, p < 0.05), as proposed by hypothesis H5d (Appendix 6. 4 & Table 5.30). Hypothesis H5d is thus supported.

5.4.3 Indirect relationships: Cultural intelligence and service quality via employee performance

Hypothesis set H6

Hypothesis set H6 proposes indirect positive relationships linking meta-cognitive cultural intelligence to reliability (H6a), responsiveness (H6b), assurance (H6c), and empathy (H6d), using the task dimension of employee performance as a mediator. Testing the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability through the mediation of task performance (hypothesis H6a) is undertaken using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four steps test. 1) The relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability is tested, and the result shows no significant relationship between these variables (β = -.013, *ns*) (see Appendix 7). 2) The relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task is tested and the result shows there is a significant positive relationship between these two dimensions (β = 0.620, $p < 0.01$) (see Appendix 5). 3) The relationship between task and reliability is tested and the result shows a significant relationship between these two variables (β = 0.077, $p < 0.01$) (see Appendix 6). 4) The relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability is tested in the presence of task, and the result shows no significant relationship (β = .019, *ns*) (Appendix 7). Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger (1998) suggested that only steps 2 and 3 must be met to establish mediation. They stated that a path from the independent variable to the dependent variable is implied if steps 2 and 3 are met. Such a mediated path, according to MacKinnon, Fairchild, and Fritz (2007), maybe one of inconsistent mediation, if c' is opposite in sign to ab (ab = c - c') (see, sub-section 3.3.2.5 of the Methodology chapter). In hypothesis H6a, the statistics for path c is B = -0.013, and for path c' is B = .019 (see Appendix 7); therefore ab = -.032. As ab and c' have opposite signs, there is still mediation but it is inconsistent. As path c in step 1 is not statistically significant, and the new path c' resulting from adding task performance to the regression, does not equal to zero, there is no perfect mediation. It is thus necessary to test if the change from c to c' is significant to claim partial mediation. Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher & Leonardelli, 2015) is used. The statistical significance is equal to Z-test = 3.01046, $p < 0.01$, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0133 (see Table 5.31). As there is evidence for partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability is mediated by task performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H6a is thus supported.

Table 5.31 Sobel test (Met-Tas-Rel)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H6a Met-Tas-Rel	a = 0.608 b = 0.066 s_a = 0.058 s_b = 0.021	3.01046**	0.0133

**$p < 0.01$

a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Met predicting Tas, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)

b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tas predicting Rel, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

The relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness through the mediation of task (H6b) is similarly tested, again using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four steps test. The result shows: 1) there is no significant relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness (*β* = -.125, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task (*β* = 0.62, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 5). 3) There is no significant relationship between task and responsiveness (*β* = -.014, *ns*) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between meta-cognition and responsiveness in the presence of task (*β* = -.144, *ns*) (Appendix 7). Therefore, hypothesis H6b which proposed an indirect relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and the responsiveness using task performance as mediator is not supported because conditions 1, 3 and 4 of Baron and Kenny's test are not met.

Testing the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance through the mediation of task performance (hypothesis H6c) is undertaken, again using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four steps test. 1) The relationship between meta-cognitive dimension and assurance is tested, and the result shows no significant relationship between these variables (*β* = -.011, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) The relationship between the meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task is tested and the result shows there is a significant positive relationship between these two dimensions (*β* = 0.620, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 5). 3) The relationship between task and assurance is tested and the result shows a significant relationship between these two dimensions (*β* = .263, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) The relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance in the presence of task is tested, and the result shows no significant relationship (*β* = -.028, *ns*) (Appendix 7). As conditions 2 and 3 are statistically significant, a mediated path from meta-cognitive cultural intelligence to assurance is implied. The statistics for path c is B = -.008, and for path c' is B = -.021. Therefore, ab = .013. As ab and c' have opposite signs, the mediation is inconsistent. However, it is necessary to test if the change from c to c' is significant to claim partial mediation.

Sobel test throws Z-test = 4.1051, $p < 0.01$, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0257 (see Table 5.32). As Z value is statistically significant, there is evidence for partial mediation. Hypothesis H6c is thus supported.

Table 5.32 Sobel test (Met-Task-Ass)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H6c Met-Tas-Ass	a = 0.608 b = 0.174 s_a = 0.058 s_b = 0.039	4.1051**	0.0257

**$p < 0.01$
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Met predicting Tas, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tas predicting Ass, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

Testing the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy through the mediation of task performance (hypothesis H6d) is undertaken using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four steps test. 1) The relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy is tested, and the result shows no significant relationship between these variables (β = .021, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) The relationship between the meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task is tested and the result shows there is a significant positive relationship between these two variables (β = 0.620, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 5). 3) The relationship between task and empathy is tested and the result shows a significant relationship between these two variables (β = .255, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) The relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy in the presence of task is tested, and the result shows no significant relationship (β = -.006, *ns*) (Appendix 7). As conditions 2 and 3 are statistically significant, a mediated path from meta-cognitive cultural intelligence to empathy is implied. The statistics for path c is B = .015, and for path c' is B = -.004. Therefore, ab = .019. As ab and c' have opposite signs, the mediation is inconsistent. It is necessary to test if the change from c to c' is significant to claim partial mediation. Sobel test throws Z-test = 4.1051, $p < 0.01$, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0257 (Table 5.33). As Z value is statistically significant, there is evidence for partial mediation. Hypothesis H6d is thus supported.

Table 5.33 Sobel test (Met-Task-Emp)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H6d Met-Tas-Emp	a = 0.608 b = .158 s_a = 0.058 s_b = .037	3.954**	0.024

**$p < 0.01$
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Met predicting Tas, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tas predicting Emp, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

Hypothesis set H7

Hypothesis set H7 proposed indirect relationships linking cognitive cultural intelligence to reliability (H7a), responsiveness (H7b), assurance (H7c) and empathy (H7d), using task performance as a mediator. Testing the relationship between the cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability through the mediation of task (H7a) is undertaken following the same steps as in hypothesis set H6. The results are: 1) there is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability (β = .498, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance (β = 0.039, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between task and reliability (β = 0.077, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability in the presence of task (β = .500, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). As not all the four conditions are met, there is no significant indirect relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability through the mediation of task, indicating that hypothesis H7a is not supported.

Similarly, the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness through the mediation of task performance (H7b) is tested. The result shows: 1) there is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness (β = -.041, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task (β = 0.039, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) There is no significant relationship between task and responsiveness (β = -0.014, *ns*) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness, in the presence of task (β = -.042, *ns*) (Appendix 7). Therefore, hypothesis H7b which proposed an indirect relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness using task performance as mediator is not supported because not all the conditions of Baron and Kenny's test are met.

Testing the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance through the mediation of task performance (hypothesis H7c) is undertaken using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four steps test. 1) The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance is tested, and the result shows a significant relationship between these variables (β = .913, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task (β = .039, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) The relationship between task and assurance shows a significant relationship between these two variables (β = .263, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance in the presence of task is tested,

and the result shows a significant relationship (β = .913, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). Therefore, hypothesis H7c which proposed an indirect relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance using task performance as mediator is not supported, because not all the conditions of Baron and Kenny's test are met.

Testing the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy through the mediation of task performance (hypothesis H7d) is undertaken using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four steps test. 1) The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy is significant (β = .120, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). 2) The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task is tested and the result shows no significant relationship between these two variables (β = .039, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) The relationship between task and empathy is tested and the result shows a significant relationship between these two dimensions (β = .255, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy in the presence of task is significant (β = .118, p = 0.01) (Appendix 7). Therefore, hypothesis H7d which proposed an indirect relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy using task performance as mediator is not supported, because the conditions of Baron and Kenny's test are not met.

Hypothesis set H8

Hypothesis set H8 proposed indirect relationship linking motivational cultural intelligence to reliability (H8a), responsiveness (H8b), assurance (H8c) and empathy (H8d), using task performance as a mediator. Following the same procedure as above, the findings for H8a were: 1) there is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and reliability (β = -.093, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance (β = 0.126, p < 0.05) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between task performance and reliability (β = 0.077, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and reliability in the presence of task performance (β = -.086, *ns*) (Appendix 7).

As conditions 2 and 3 are statistically significant, a mediated path from motivational cultural intelligence to reliability is implied. The statistics for path c is B = -.107, and for path c' is B = -.099. Therefore ab = -.008. As ab and c' have the same sign, there is still mediation but it is not inconsistent. However, as path c' does not equal to zero, it is necessary to test for partial mediation to see if the change from c to c' is significant.

Sobel test throws Z-test = 1.7571, p = 0.08 (>.05), standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0053 (Table 5.34). As Z value is not statistically significant, there is no evidence for partial mediation. Hypothesis H8a is thus not supported.

Table 5.34 Sobel test (Mot-Task-Rel)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H8a Mot-Tas-Rel	a = .142 b = .066 s_a = .067 s_b = .021	1.7571	0.0053

P= 0.07 (> 0.05)
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Mot predicting Tas, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tas predicting Rel, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

Testing the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and responsiveness through the mediation of task (H8b) shows: 1) there is a significant relationship between motivation and responsiveness (*β* = .534, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance (*β* = .126, p < 0.05) (Appendix 5). 3) There is no significant relationship between task and responsiveness (*β* = -.014, *ns*) (Appendix 6). 4) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and responsiveness, in the presence of task (*β* = .530, p < *0.01*) (Appendix 7). Therefore, hypothesis H8b which proposed indirect relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and responsiveness using task performance as mediator is not supported, because not all the conditions of Baron and Kenny's test were met.

Testing the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and assurance through the mediation of task (H8c) showed: 1) there is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and assurance (*β* = .037, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance (*β* = .126, p < 0.05) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between task performance and assurance (*β* = .263, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and assurance, in the presence of task (*β* = .033, *ns*) (Appendix 7). As conditions 2 and 3 are met, there is an indication of partial mediation which might have been inconsistent. The statistics for path c is B = .032, and for path c' is B = .029. Therefore ab = 0.003. As ab and c' have same signs, there is still mediation but it was not inconsistent. Furthermore, Sobel test shows statistical significance (Z-test = 1.9143, p =0.05, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0129 (see table 5.35).

Table 5.35 Sobel test (Mot-Tas-Ass)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H8c Mot-Tas-Ass	a = .142 b = .174 s_a = .067 s_b = .039	1.9143*	0.0129

*p = 0.05
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Mot predicting Tas, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tas predicting Ass, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is evidence for significant partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and assurance is mediated by task performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H8c is thus supported.

The relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and empathy through the mediation of task performance (H8d) is tested. Following the same procedure as above, the results shows: 1) there is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and empathy (β = .899, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance (β = 0.126, p < 0.05) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between task performance and empathy (β = .255, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and empathy in the presence of task performance (β = .893, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). As all the four conditions are statistically significant, a mediated path from motivational cultural intelligence to empathy is implied. The statistics for path c is B = .745, and for path c', B = .740. As path c' does not equal to zero, there is only partial mediation. However, it is necessary to see if the change from c to c' was significant to claim partial mediation. To test for partial mediation Sobel test is used; it throws Z-test = 1.898, p = 0.05, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.012 (Table 5.36). As Z value is statistically significant, there is evidence for partial mediation. Hypothesis H8d is thus supported.

Table 5.36 Sobel test (Mot-Task-Emp)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H8d Mot-Tas-Emp	a = 0.142 b = .158 s_a = 0.067 s_b = .037	1.898	0.012

p = 0.05
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Mot predicting Tas, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tas predicting Emp, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

Hypothesis set H9

Hypothesis set H9 proposed indirect relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability (H9a), responsiveness (H9b), assurance (H9c) and empathy (H9d), using task performance as a mediator. Following the same procedure as above, the findings for H9a are: 1) There is a significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability (β =.127, $p < 0.05$) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and task performance (β = -.054, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between task and reliability (β = .077, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) There is a significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability in the presence of task (β = .127, $p < 0.05$) (Appendix 7). As all the four conditions have not been met, there is no significant indirect relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability through the mediation of task; thus hypothesis H9a is not supported.

Testing the relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness through the mediation of task (H9b) showed: 1) there is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness (β = .000, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and task performance (β = -.054, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) There is no significant relationship between task and responsiveness (β = -.014, *ns*) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness, in the presence of task (β = .000, *ns*) (Appendix 7). Therefore, hypothesis H9b which proposed indirect relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness using task performance as mediator is not supported because all the four conditions of Baron and Kenny's test are not met.

Similarly, the result for the proposed relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and assurance (H9c) and empathy (H9d) are not supported, as in both hypotheses the essential condition 2 of Baron and Kenny's test is not met (β = -.054, *ns*).

Hypothesis set H10

Hypothesis set H10 proposed indirect relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and reliability (H10a), responsiveness (H10b), assurance (H10c), and empathy (H10d), using treatment performance as a mediator.

Following the same procedure as above, the statistical results for H10a are: 1) There is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and reliability (β = -.093, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and treatment (β = -.098, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and reliability (β = .0942, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and reliability in the presence of treatment (β = -.001, *ns*) (Appendix 7). As not all the four conditions are met, there is no significant indirect relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and reliability through the mediation of treatment; hypothesis H10a is thus not supported.

The statistical results for H10b were: 1) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and responsiveness (β = .534, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and treatment (β = -.098, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and responsiveness (β = .073, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and responsiveness in the presence of treatment (β = .530, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 7). As not all the four conditions are met, there is no significant indirect relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and responsiveness through the mediation of treatment; hypothesis H10b is thus not supported.

Testing the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and assurance (H10c) through the mediation of treatment shows: 1) there is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and assurance (β = .037, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and treatment (β = -.098, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and assurance (β = .517, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between motivation and assurance, in the presence of treatment (β = .039, *ns*) (Appendix 7). It can thus be concluded that the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and assurance is not mediated by treatment performance. Hypothesis H10c is thus not supported.

Testing the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and empathy through the mediation of treatment (H10d) shows: 1) There is a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and empathy (β = .899, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 7). 2) There is no significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and

treatment performance (β = -.098, *ns*) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment performance and empathy (β = .150, $p < 0.05$). 4) There is a significant relationship between motivation and empathy in the presence of treatment (β = .903, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 7). Hypothesis H10d is not supported because not all the conditions of Baron and Kenny's test are met.

Hypothesis set H11

Hypothesis set H11 proposed indirect relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability (H11a), responsiveness (H11b), assurance (H11c) and empathy (H11d), using treatment performance as a mediator.

Following the same procedure as above, the finding for H11a shows: 1) There is a significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability (β = .127, $p < 0.05$) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between behaviour cultural intelligence and treatment (β = .140, $p < 0.05$) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and reliability (β = .942, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability in the presence of treatment (β = -.005, *ns*) (Appendix 7). As conditions 2 and 3 are met, there is an indication of partial mediation which may be inconsistent. The statistics for path c is B = .144, and for path c' is B = -.006. Therefore ab = 0.15. As ab and c' do not have the same sign, there was still mediation but it is inconsistent. Furthermore, Sobel test shows statistical significance (Z-test = 2.2261, $p < 0.05$, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.06678) (Table 5.37).

Table 5.37 Sobel test (Beh-Tre-Rel)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H11a Beh-Tre-Rel	a = .165 b = .901 s_a = .074 s_b = .023	2.2261*	0.06678

*$p < 0.05$

a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Beh predicting Tre, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tre predicting Rel, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is evidence for significant partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability is mediated by treatment performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H11a is thus supported.

The results for H11b are: 1) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness (β = .000, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a

significant relationship between behaviour cultural intelligence and treatment (β = .140, p < 0.05) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and responsiveness (β = .073, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness in the presence of treatment (β = .005, *ns*) (Appendix 7). As conditions 2 and 3 are met, there is an indication of partial mediation which may be inconsistent. The statistics for path c is B = .000, and for path c' is B = .008. Therefore ab = -.008. As ab and c' do not have the same sign, there is still mediation but it is inconsistent. Furthermore, Sobel test shows statistical significance (Z-test = 1.906, p = 0.05, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.00796) (Table 5.38).

Table 5.38 Sobel test (Beh-Tre-Res)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H11b Beh-Tre-Res	a = .165 b = .092 s_a = .074 s_b = .025	1.906*	0.00796

*p = 0.05
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Beh predicting Tre, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tre predicting Res, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is evidence for significant partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness is mediated by treatment performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H11b is thus supported.

Testing the relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and assurance through the mediation of treatment (H11c) showed: 1) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and assurance (β = .043, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment (β = .140, p < 0.05) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and assurance (β = .517, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and assurance, in the presence of treatment performance (β = .040, *ns*) (Appendix 7). Partial mediation is obtained because steps 2 and 3 are met. The calculation shows that the mediation is not inconsistent as ab and c' have the same sign (for c, B = .038, for c', B = .034, and for ab, (c - c') = 0.004). Furthermore, Sobel test shows statistical significance (Z-test = 2.1619, p < 0.05, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.029) (Table 5.39).

Table 5.39 Sobel test (Beh-Tre-Ass)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H11c Beh-Tre-Ass	a = .165 b = .380 s_a = .074 s_b = .043	2.1619*	0.029

*p < 0.05
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Beh predicting Tre, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tre predicting Ass, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is evidence for significant partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and assurance is mediated by treatment performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H11c is thus supported.

Testing the relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and empathy through the mediation of treatment performance (H11d) shows: 1) There is no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and empathy (β = .015, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment (β = .140, p < 0.05) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and empathy (β = .150, p < 0.05) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between behaviour and empathy, in the presence of treatment (β = .009, *ns*) (Appendix 7). Partial mediation is obtained because steps 2 and 3 are met. In hypothesis H11d, the statistics for path c is B = .012, and for path c' is B = .008. Therefore ab = 0.004, the same sign as c'. This indicates that the mediation is not inconsistent. However, Sobel test shows no statistical significance (Z-test = 1.6676, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0102, at p > 0.05) (Table 5.40).

Table 5.40 Sobel test (Beh-Tre-Emp)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H11d Beh-Tre-Emp	a = .165 b = .103 s_a = .074 s_b = .041	1.6676	0.0102

p= 0.09 (> 0.05)
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Beh predicting Tre, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tre predicting Emp, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is not sufficient evidence for significant mediation (p > .05), it is concluded that the relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and empathy is not mediated by treatment performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H11d is thus not supported.

Hypothesis set H12

Hypothesis set H12 proposed that meta-cognitive cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H12a), responsiveness (H12b), assurance (H12c), and empathy (H12d) by treatment performance. A similar calculation to the above shows that hypothesis H12a, H12b, H12c and H12d are not supported as the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance (condition 2 of Baron and Kenny's test) is not significant (β = -.114, *ns*) (Appendix 5).

Hypothesis set H13

Hypothesis set H13 proposed that cognitive cultural intelligence is indirectly positively related to reliability (H13a), responsiveness (H13b), assurance (H13c), and empathy (H13d) by treatment performance. The result for H13a shows: 1) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability (β = .498, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment (β = .562, p < 0.01) (appendix 5.2). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and reliability (β = .942, p < 0.01) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability in the presence of treatment (β = -.034, *ns*) (Appendix 7). As conditions 2 and 3 are met, there is an indication of partial mediation which may be inconsistent. The statistics for path c is B = .577, and for path c' is B = -.039; therefore ab = 0.616. As ab and c' do not have the same sign, there is still mediation but it is inconsistent. Furthermore, Sobel test shows statistical significance, Z-test = 7.9389, p = 0, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0772 (Table 5.41).

Table 5.41 Sobel test (Cog-Tre-Rel)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H13a Cog-Tre-Rel	a = .681 b = .901 s_a = .084 s_b = .023	7.9389*	0.0772

*p = 0

a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Cog predicting Tre, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tre predicting Rel, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is evidence for significant partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability is mediated by treatment performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H13a is thus supported.

The result for H13b shows: 1) There is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness (β = -.041, *ns*) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment (β = .562, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and responsiveness (β = .073, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) There is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness in the presence of treatment (β = -.018, *ns*) (Appendix 7). As conditions 2 and 3 are met, there is an indication of partial mediation which may be inconsistent. The statistics for path c is B = -.062, and for path c', B = -.027; therefore ab = -0.035. As ab and c' have the same sign, there is still mediation but it was not inconsistent. Furthermore, Sobel test shows statistical significance, Z-test = 3.3509, $p < 0.01$, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.01869 (Table 5.42).

Table 5.42 Sobel test (Cog-Tre-Res)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H13b Cog-Tre-Res	a = .681 b = .092 s_a = .084 s_b = .025	3.3509**	0.01869

**$p < 0.01$

a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Cog predicting Tre, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tre predicting Res, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is evidence for significant partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness is mediated by treatment performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H13b is thus supported.

Testing the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance through the mediation of treatment (H13c) shows: 1) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance (β = .913, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment (β = .562, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and assurance (β = .517, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 6). 4) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance, in the presence of treatment performance (β = .899, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 7). Mediation is obtained because all the conditions are met. However, this mediation is partial as c' is not equal to zero (for c, B = .814 and for c', B = .801). Furthermore, Sobel test shows statistical significance, Z-test = 5.974, $p = 0$, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0433 (Table 5.43).

Table 5.43 Sobel test (Cog-Tre-Ass)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H13c Cog-Tre-Ass	a = .681 b = .380 s_a = .084 s_b = .043	5.974*	0.0433

*p = 0
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Cog predicting Tre, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tre predicting Ass, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is evidence for significant partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance is mediated by treatment performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H13c is thus supported.

Testing the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy through the mediation of treatment performance (H13d) shows: 1) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy (β = .120, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). 2) There is a significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment (β = .562, p < 0.01) (Appendix 5). 3) There is a significant relationship between treatment and empathy (β = .150, p < 0.05) (Appendix 6). 4) There is a significant relationship between cognitive and empathy, in the presence of treatment (β = .097, p < 0.01) (Appendix 7). Mediation is obtained because all the conditions are met. However, this mediation is partial as c' is not equal to zero (for c, B = .100 and for c', B = .081). Furthermore, Sobel test shows statistical significance, Z-test = 2.3996, p < 0.05, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0292 (Table 5.44).

Table 5.44 Sobel test (Cog-Tre-Emp)

Hypothesis	Input of Sobel test	Sobel Z test	Standard error (s_{ab})
H13d Cog-Tre-Emp	a = .681 b = .103 s_a = .084 s_b = .041	2.3996*	0.0292

*p < 0.05
a= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Cog predicting Tre, s_a = Standard error (appendix 5)
b= unstandardised coefficient B resulting from Tre predicting Emp, s_b = Standard error (appendix 6)

As there is sufficient evidence for significant partial mediation, it is concluded that the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy is mediated by treatment performance after having statistically controlled for age, gender and experience. Hypothesis H13d is thus supported.

The mediator calculations using Baron and Kenny's 4-step test is presented in Table 5.45, and the results of all the tested hypotheses are shown in Table 6.1. Step 4 in

Table 5.45 is taken from Appendix 8, showing the mediation effect of each of the three employee performance dimensions (task performance, treatment performance and tangibles performance) in the presence of the other two.
Task performance mediation controlling for treatment and tangibles is shown in Appendix 7, and treatment performance mediation controlling for task and tangibles is also shown in Appendix 7.

Table 5.45 Baron and Kenny's mediator test

Step 1

Model	TANG			REL			RES			ASS			EMP		
	β	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F
1		.007	.441		.003	.200		.045	3.07*		.02	1.32		.003	.199
Age	-.08			-.012			-.003			-.002			-.004		
Gender	.005			-.016			-.063			-.029			-.006		
Experience	-.028			-.048			.156			.035			-.017		
2		.311	12.4**		.273	10.3**		.312	12.5**		.854	160.9**		.867	179.2**
MET	.48**			-.013			-.125			-.011			.021		
COG	.026			.498**			-.041			.913**			.120**		
MOT	.172*			-.093			.534**			.037			.899**		
BEH	-.019			.127*			.000			.043			.015		
Δ R^2		.304**			.270**			. 267**			.834**			.864**	

** *p*< .001 *p<.05

Step 2

Model	TAS			TRE			TAN		
	β	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F
1		.006	.396		.007	.459		.051	3.54*
Age	-.097			-.025			.007		
Gender	.006			.031			-.066		
Experience	.016			-.042			.170*		
2									
MET	.620**	.478	25.2**	-.114	.311	12.43**	-.117	.391	17.729**
COG	.039			.562**			.601**		
MOT	.126*			-.098			-.083		
BEH	-.054			.140*			.007		
Δ R^2		.472**			.304**			.340**	

Step 3

Model	TANG			REL			RES			ASS			EMP		
1	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F
		.842	350.4**		.888	521.29**		.924	810.9**		.333	32.71**		.311	29.65**
TAS	.914**			.077**			-.014			.263**			.255**		
TRE	.007			.942**			.073**			.517**			.150*		
TAN	.039			.015			.972**			.109*			.477**		

Step 4 (showing the mediation of each of the three EP dimensions in the presence of the other two)

Model	Tang			Rel			Res			Ass			Emp		
	β	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F	*β*	R^2	F
1		.007	.441		.003	.200		.045*	3.07*		.020	1.316		.003	.199
Age	-.019			.015			-.013			.000			.001		
Gender	.004			-.044			-.005			-.025			-.009		
Experience	-.030			-.012			-.003			.021			-.010		
2		.847	105.**		.894**	159.8**		.928**	243.5**		.861**	117.5**		.871**	127.9**
MET	.022			.072*			-.006			-.013			-.008		
COG	.009			-.038			.001			.897**			.091*		
MOT	.061			-.025			-.041			-.019			.915**		
BEH	-.013			-.007			-.033			.036			.010		
TAS	.886**			.054*[a]			-.002			.033			.059* [b]		
TRE	.000			.958**			.085**			.042			.044		
TAN	.014			.034			.999**			.096**			-.032		
Δ R^2		.840**			.891**			.883**			.841**			.868**	

[a] Task predicted reliability at *p* =.065, and [b] task predicted empathy at *p* =.064

Chapter 6
Discussion and conclusion

6.1 Introduction

Analysis of the literature (chapter 2) of this thesis culminated in proposing a theoretical model of hypotheses pointing to a number of causal relationships between the 12 variables of the constructs of cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality (Fig. 2.8). The findings from analysing the qualitative data obtained from the interviews (Chapter 4) resulted in a provisional empirical model of relationships which supported the theoretical model and pointed to additional relationships between the 12 variables of these constructs (figure 4.1). This model shows that all the four dimensions of cultural intelligence indirectly affect the reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy dimension of service quality through both task performance and treatment performance.

In chapter five, the quantitative analysis chapter, use was made of three scales: cultural intelligence, employee performance and service quality, to test the hypotheses of the provisional model. Using SPSS version 22, these scales were tested for the factorability of their correlation matrices using principal component analysis. The interpretation of the components of the modified cultural intelligence scale was consistent with Earley and Ang's (2003) original formulation of the scale. Also, the interpretation of the components of the slightly modified service quality SERVPERF scale was consistent with Cronin and Taylor's (1992) original scale. The factorability of the new employee performance scale which was developed by the researcher was also confirmed. Furthermore, the goodness of fit of the three scales was tested using confirmatory factor analysis. The statistics obtained confirmed the construct, convergent and discriminant validity of these scales. The two reliability measures of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability of the three scales were also acceptable. The model's hypotheses were tested using the hierarchical multi regression analysis technique. The hypotheses which proposed direct causal relationships between cultural intelligence and employee performance, and between employee performance and service quality were tested in the normal way; while the indirect hypotheses linking cultural intelligence and service quality via employee performance were tested using mediator variable analysis (Baron & Kenney, 1986). Some of these hypotheses were statistically supported, while others were not supported; see Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Summary of the results of the model's hypotheses

Hypothesis	Relationship	Test result	Hypothesis	Relationship	Test result
H1a (+)	**Met - Tas**	**Supported**	**H6a (+)**	**Met - Tas - Rel**	**Supported**
H1b (+)	Cog - Tas	Not supported	H6b	Met - Tas - Res	Not supported
H1c (+)	**Mot - Tas**	**Supported**	**H6c (+)**	**Met - Tas - Ass**	**Supported**
H1d (-)	Beh - Tas	Not supported	**H6d (+)**	**Met - Tas - Emp**	**Supported**
H2a (-)	Met - Tre	Not supported	H7a	Cog – Tas – Rel	Not supported
H2b (+)	**Cog - Tre**	**Supported**	H7b	Cog – Tas - Res	Not supported
H2c (-)	Mot - Tre	Not supported	H7c	Cog – Tas - Ass	Not supported
H2d (+)	**Beh - Tre**	**Supported**	H7d	Cog – Tas - Emp	Not supported
H3a (-)	Met - Tan	Not supported	H8a (+)	Mot – Tas - Rel	Not supported
H3b (-)	**Cog - Tan**	**Supported**	H8b	Mot – Tas - Res	Not supported
H3c (-)	Mot - Tan	Not supported	**H8c (+)**	**Mot – Tas - Ass**	**Supported**
H3d (+)	Beh - Tan	Not supported	**H8d (+)**	**Mot – Tas - Emp**	**Supported**
H4a (+)	**Tas - Rel**	**Supported**	H9a	Beh – Tas - Rel	Not supported
H4b (-)	Tas - Res	Not supported	H9b	Beh – Tas - Res	Not supported
H4c (+)	**Tas - Ass**	**Supported**	H9c	Beh – Tas - Ass	Not supported
H4d (+)	**Tas - Emp**	**Supported**	H9d	Beh – Tas - Emp	Not supported
H5a (+)	**Tre - Rel**	**Supported**	H10a	Mot – Tre - Rel	Not supported
H5b (+)	**Tre - Res**	**Supported**	H10b	Mot – Tre - Res	Not supported
H5c (+)	**Tre - Ass**	**Supported**	H10c	Mot – Tre - Ass	Not supported
H5d (+)	**Tre- Emp**	**Supported**	H10d	Mot – Tre - Emp	Not supported
			H11a	**Beh – Tre - Rel**	**Supported**
			H11b	**Beh – Tre - Res**	**Supported**
			H11c	**Beh – Tre - Ass**	**Supported**
			H11d	Beh – Tre - Emp	Not supported
			H12a	Met - Tre - Rel	Not supported
			H12b	Met - Tre - Res	Not supported
			H12c	Met - Tre - Ass	Not supported
			H12d	Met - Tre - Emp	Not supported
			H13a	**Cog – Tre – Rel**	**Supported**
			H13b	**Cog – Tre - Res**	**Supported**
			H13c	**Cog – Tre - Ass**	**Supported**
			H13d	**Cog – Tre - Emp**	**Supported**

6.2 Direct relationships: Cultural intelligence and employee performance

The statistical testing of hypothesis set H1a-H1d (cultural intelligence to task performance) supports hypothesis H1a (β = .620, p < .001), confirming that the meta-cognitive cultural intelligence of employees predicts their task performance. This finding concurs with Ang *et al*.'s (2007) multi-cultural expatriate study, which also showed a significant positive relationship between these two variables (β = 0.30, p < 0.05). It should, however, be noted that Ang *et al*.'s (2007) work was not undertaken in a cross-cultural service interaction context. Thus the statistically supported relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance in a cross-cultural service context adds to the literature in this field. This finding indicates that front-line service employees who have high meta-cognitive cultural intelligence ability are more likely to be conscious of the cultural knowledge they used and able to adjust this knowledge and check its accuracy as they interacted with people from different cultures (Earley & Ang, 2003). The finding also suggests that this knowledge enables these employees to perform their tasks correctly, as requested, in the right order, and promptly (Chase & Stewart, 1994; Stewart, 2003). They are also more likely to be able to prioritise tasks and work with diligence, energy and mastery. Thus their performance would be good or inspiring, and they would be concerned with the quality of their service and with making guests feel safe (Cronin & Taylor, 1994; Zeithaml *et al*., 1990). This finding also confirms Campbell's (1999) study which suggested that knowledge is an important indicator of task performance, as the employee who has knowledge is able to understand and perform the expected task in a culturally appropriate way. Furthermore, the results from this study's test show that the proposed positive relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and employee task performance (hypothesis H1b) is not statistically supported (β = .039, *ns*). The finding concurs with Ang *et al.*'s (2007) study, which also showed that this relationship was not statistically significant (β = 0.19, *ns*). Although the literature and statistical finding of this study show no statistical support for the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance, nevertheless, the empirical qualitative research of the study indicated a strong positive relationship between these two variables. This finding raises issues which require further research, particularly, as the positive relationship between the meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance (hypothesis H1a above) is statistically significant.

The finding of this study upholds hypothesis H1c, which proposes a positive direct relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance (β = .126,

$p < .01$). This result does not concur with Ang *et al.* (2007), who did not find a significant relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance ($\beta = -0.01$, *ns*). It, however, agrees with Chen *et al.*'s (2010) expatriate study, where motivational cultural intelligence was found to have an indirect effect on task performance, and with Chen *et al.*'s (2012) study of agents' sales performance in real estate firms which showed that individuals' motivational cultural intelligence positively affected their sales to customers of other cultures. This study's finding suggests that front-line employees, who enjoy interacting, coexisting and socialising with people from different cultures, and have the ability to adjust to these people, are more likely to perform their tasks better than other employees.

Furthermore, the finding does not support hypothesis H1d, as it shows no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and task performance ($\beta = -0.054$, *ns*). This result is in contrast to Ang *et al*.'s (2007), which confirmed that behavioural cultural intelligence had significant positive influence on task performance ($\beta = 0.47$, $p < 0.001$).

The result for hypothesis set H2a - H2d (Cultural intelligence to treatment performance) shows that there is a significant positive relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance (H2b) ($\beta = .562$, $p < 0.001$). This finding suggests that front-line service employees who know more about the social position, religious customs, habits, norms, arts and crafts, and language of people from other cultures, are more likely to receive guests positively, enjoy talking to them in a friendly manner, and display good interpersonal skills and helpful attitudes.

Similarly, the result supports hypothesis H2d as it displays a significant positive relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment performance ($\beta = .140$, $p < 0.05$). This finding suggests that service employees who enjoy interacting, coexisting and socialising with people from different cultures, and have the ability to adjust to these people, are more able to receive guests positively, enjoy talking to them in a friendly manner, and display good interpersonal skills and helpful attitudes. On the other hand, the results do not support hypothesis H2a and H2c as no significant relationship is found between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance (H2a) ($\beta = -.114$, *ns*), and between motivational cultural intelligence and treatment performance (H2c) ($\beta = -.098$, *ns*).

This is the first study in cross-cultural hospitality service environment which statistically confirm that cognitive and behavioural cultural intelligence positively affect treatment performance. These findings add to knowledge in the field.

It was argued in section 2.9.1 of the literature review chapter that because of the interlocking relationships between task, treatment and tangibles as suggested by Stewart (2003), cultural intelligence may also affect the tangibles dimension of employee performance; hence hypothesis set H3a - H3d (cultural intelligence to tangibles performance). The empirical qualitative data does not provide much evidence of such relationships. Furthermore, the statistical analysis does not support hypothesis H3a, as there is no significant relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and tangibles performance (β =-0.117, *ns*).

Data from this study's interviews indicates that there might be a relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and tangibles performance (hypothesis H3b). The result supports hypothesis H3b, where a significant positive relationship is found between cognitive cultural intelligence and tangibles performance (β = 0.601, p < 0.001). This finding suggests that front-line service employees who know more about the social position of people from other cultures, their religious customs and habits, their norms and customs, their arts and crafts, the rules of their languages, and their rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours, are more likely to be appropriately presented and dignified, dress in clean clothes, and use clean facilities. This finding also offers a contribution to the literature. However, the contrasting results between H3a and H3b merit further research.

The relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and tangibles (H3c) is not supported as no significant relationship is found between these variables (β = -.083, *ns*).

The relationship between the behavioural cultural intelligence and tangibles performance (hypothesis H3d) does not feature frequently in the data from the interviews. It is also not upheld by the result of the statistical analysis (β = 0.007, *ns*).

6.3 Direct relationships: Employee performance and service quality

Analysis of the data obtained from interviewing the samples of hotel managers and foreign guests resulted in proposing hypothesis set H4a - H4d (task performance to service quality) shows a significant positive relationship between task performance and reliability (β = 0.077, p < 0.01); supporting hypothesis H4a. This result indicates that

employees who performed their tasks correctly, as requested, in the right order and priority, promptly, diligently, with mastery and inspiration that make guests feel safe; are likely to be more able than others to provide help and accurate information and services as promised and right at the first time. The result also lends statistical support to Stewart's (2003) argument which suggested that employee task performance affects the reliability dimension of service quality.

On the other hand, the relationship between task performance and responsiveness as proposed by hypothesis H4b is not found to be statistically significant (β = -.014, *ns*), and is therefore not supported. In contrast to hypothesis H4a, The result relating to hypothesis H4b does not support Stewart's (2003) argument which suggested that task performance affects the responsiveness dimension of service quality.

There is also a significant positive relationship between task performance and assurance (β = .263, $p < 0.001$), supporting hypothesis H4c. This suggests that employees who perform their tasks correctly, promptly, diligently, and with mastery and inspiration, are more likely than other employees to be able to communicate with their guests effectively in their language, show personal attention to them, and know their specific needs. This finding adds to the literature, as the relationship between task performance and assurance has not been previously specifically investigated.

Furthermore, the results show a significant positive relationship between task performance and empathy (β = .255, $p < 0.001$), supporting hypothesis H4d. This suggests that employees, who perform their tasks well, as described above, are more likely to be able to communicate with their guests effectively, show personal attention to them, and know their specific needs. This finding also adds to the literature.

The result of hypothesis set H5a-H5d (treatment performance to service quality) supports hypothesis H5a, showing a significant positive relationship between treatment performance and reliability (β =.942, $p < 0.001$). This result indicates that employees who acknowledge the guests' presence; behave, treat and interact with them politely, professionally and appropriately; show appreciation, listen to and talk in a friendly tone with them; show courtesy and positive attitude rather than getting bothered, grumble or complain when serving them; these employees are more able to give prompt and helpful service to their guests, and more able to tell the guests exactly when services would be provided. This finding adds to the literature, as the relationship between reliability and treatment performance has not been previously studied.

The results also display a significant positive relationship between treatment performance and responsiveness ($\beta = 0.073$, $p < 0.001$), supporting hypothesis H5b. This finding indicates that employees who acknowledge the guests' presence; behave, treat, interact and communicate with them in the way described in H5a above are likely to be able to tell guests exactly when services would be provided, give them prompt service and show willingness to help.

Additionally, the results show a significant positive relationship between treatment performance and assurance ($\beta = 0.517$, $p < 0.001$), supporting hypothesis H5c. This suggests that service employees, who provided their guests with good treatment as described above, are likely to have product knowledge of hotel information and the required skill to perform service, and to speak with guests by using an appropriate address form. These employees are also more likely to be trustworthy and guests feet safe with their service.

The results display a significant positive relationship between treatment performance and empathy ($\beta = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$), supporting hypothesis H5d. It suggests that front-line service employees, who provide their guests with good treatment as shown above, are likely to be able to communicate with their guests effectively, show personal attention to them, and know their specific needs.

These findings also provide statistical support for Stewart's (2003) argument which suggested that treatment performance affect the service quality dimensions of responsiveness, assurance and empathy.

6.4 Indirect relationships: Cultural intelligence and service quality via employee performance

The provisional empirical model (Fig. 4.1) has eight sets of indirect relationships (hypothesis sets H6 - H13).

The result for hypothesis set H6a- H6d (meta-cognitive cultural intelligence to service quality via task performance) shows that hypothesis H6a was statistically supported, indicating partial inconsistent mediation between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability through task performance. This is because only the two essential conditions of Baron and Kenny's test are met: condition 2, showing statistical significance between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance ($\beta = 0.620$, $p < 0.01$), and condition 3 which displays statistical significance between task performance and reliability ($\beta = 0.077$, $p < 0.01$). This finding suggests that front-line service employees who are conscious of the cultural knowledge they use and able to

adjust this knowledge and check its accuracy as they interact with guests from different cultures are more likely to perform their tasks well. As a result they are more likely to be able to provide their guests with help and accurate information and services as promised, and right at the first time.

In contrast, the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness via the mediation of task performance (H6b) is not met, as only condition 2, the relationship between task performance and responsiveness shows statistical significance ($\beta = 0.62$, $p < 0.01$).

The result of the analysis shows that the relationship between Meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance (hypothesis H6c) is partially and inconsistently mediated by task performance. This is because condition 2, showing statistical significance between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance ($\beta = 0.620$, $p < 0.01$), and condition 3 which displayed statistical significance between task performance and assurance ($\beta = .263$, $p < 0.01$) are met. This finding suggests that employees who are conscious of the cultural knowledge they used and are able to adjust this knowledge as they interact with guests from different cultures, are more likely to perform their tasks well. Their high meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance enable them to have product knowledge of hotel information and the required skill to perform service. They are also likely to speak with guests by using an appropriate address form, to be trustworthy and make guests feel safe with their service.

The results show that the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy (hypothesis H6d) is partially and inconsistently mediated by task performance. This is because condition 2, showing statistical significance between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance ($\beta = 0.620$, $p < 0.01$), and condition 3 which displayed statistical significance between task performance and empathy ($\beta = .263$, $p < 0.01$) are met. This suggests that employees who have high metacognitive cultural intelligence are able to perform their task well. As a result, they are likely to be able to communicate with their guests effectively, show personal attention to them, and know their guests' specific needs.

The finding for hypothesis set H7a - H7d (cognitive cultural intelligence to service quality via task performance) does not support hypothesis H7a (cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability via task performance) as Baron and Kenny's condition 2 is not met; there is no significant relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance ($\beta = 0.039$, *ns*). Similarly, the relationship between the cognitive

cultural intelligence and responsiveness via the mediation of task performance (H7b) is not supported as none of Baron and Kenny's four conditions are met. Furthermore, hypothesis H7c which proposed an indirect relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance via task performance, and hypothesis H7d which proposed an indirect relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy through task performance are not supported, as in both cases condition 2, concerning the relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and task performance, is not met (β = .039, *ns*).

The results for Hypothesis set H8a - H8d (motivational cultural intelligence to service quality via the mediation of task performance) show that hypothesis H8a which proposed that motivational cultural intelligence is indirectly positively affected reliability through task performance is not supported. This is because although condition 2 (β = 0.126, $p < 0.05$) and condition 3 (β = 0.077, $p < 0.01$) are met, the Z value was not significant (Z-test = 1.7571, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0053, $p > 0.05$).
Hypothesis H8b, which proposed that motivational cultural intelligence indirectly positively affected responsiveness via task performance, is not supported. This is because condition 3 is not met (β = -.014, *ns*).
There is partial inconsistent mediation between motivational cultural intelligence and assurance via task performance (H8c) as condition 2 (relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance) is met (β = .126, $p < 0.05$), and condition 3 (relationship between task performance and assurance) is met (β = .263, $p < 0.01$). The finding suggests that employees who have high motivational cultural intelligence perform their task well. As a result, they are likely to have product knowledge of hotel information and the required skill to perform service, and to speak with guests by using an appropriate address form. These employees are also more likely to be trustworthy and guests felt safe with their service.
The results also show partial mediation between motivational cultural intelligence and empathy via task performance, confirming hypothesis H8d. This is because condition 1, the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and empathy is met (β = .899, $p < 0.01$); Condition 2, the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and task performance is met (β = 0.126, $p < 0.05$); condition 3, the relationship between task performance and empathy is met (β = .255, $p < 0.01$); and condition 4, the relationship between motivational cultural intelligence and empathy in the presence of task performance is met (β = .915, $p < 0.01$). The finding indicates that employees

who have high motivational cultural intelligence ability perform their tasks well, and as such, they are likely to be able to communicate with their guests effectively, show personal attention to them, and know their specific needs.

The findings for Hypothesis set H9a - H9d show no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability through the mediation of task. This is because condition 2 is not met (β = -.054, *ns*); thus hypothesis H9a is not supported. There is also no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness through the mediation of task. This is because condition 2 is not met (β = -.054, *ns*) and condition 3 is not met (β = -.033, *ns*); hypothesis H9b is thus not supported. Furthermore, there is no significant relationships between behavioural cultural intelligence and assurance (H9c) and empathy (H9d) through task performance, as in both hypotheses condition 2 is not met (β = -.054, *ns*). Hypotheses H9a, H9b, H9c and H9d are thus not supported.

The result for hypothesis set H10a - H10d (motivational cultural intelligence to service quality via treatment performance) does not support these hypotheses, as in each case condition 2 is not met (β = -.098, *ns*).

For hypothesis set H11a - H11d (behavioural cultural intelligence to service quality via treatment performance), the result shows partial inconsistent mediation between behavioural cultural intelligence and reliability via treatment performance (H11a) as condition 2 (relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and treatment performance) is met (β = .140, $p < 0.05$), and condition 3 (relationship between treatment performance and reliability) is met (β = .942, $p < 0.01$).
The result also shows partial inconsistent mediation between behavioural cultural intelligence and responsiveness via treatment performance (H11b) as condition 2 is met (β = .140, $p < 0.05$), and condition 3 (relationship between treatment performance and responsiveness) is met (β = .073, $p < 0.01$).
The relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and assurance via treatment performance (H11c) is partially mediated. This is because condition 2 is met (β = .140, $p < 0.05$), and condition 3 (relationship between treatment performance and assurance) is met (β = .073, $p < 0.01$).
The result also shows that there is no significant mediation between behavioural cultural intelligence and empathy via treatment (H11d), because although condition 2

(β = .140, p < 0.05) and condition 3 (β = .150, p < 0.05) are met, the Z value is not significant (Z-test = 1.6676, standard error (s_{ab}) = 0.0102, at p > 0.05).
The findings of hypotheses H11a - H11d suggest that employees with high behavioural cultural intelligence are likely to offer good treatment performance. As such they are likely to provide help and accurate information and services as promised and right at the first time. They are also likely to give prompt and helpful service to their guests, or tell the guests exactly when services would be provided. They are also likely to be able to communicate with their guests effectively, show personal attention to them, and know their specific needs. They may not, however, necessarily have product knowledge of hotel information and the required skills to perform service, and to speak with guests by using an appropriate address form.

The results of testing hypothesis set H12a - H12d (meta-cognitive cultural intelligence to service quality by treatment performance) show that these hypotheses are not supported. This is because the relationship between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance (condition 2 of Baron and Kenny's test) is not significant (β = -.114, *ns*) (appendix 6.1).

In relation to hypothesis set H13a - H13d (cognitive cultural intelligence to service quality by treatment performance), the result shows partial inconsistent mediation between cognitive cultural intelligence and reliability via treatment performance (H13a) as condition 2 (relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and treatment performance) is met (β = .562, p < 0.01), and condition 3 (relationship between treatment performance and reliability) is met (β = .942, p < 0.01).
The result also shows partial inconsistent mediation between cognitive cultural intelligence and responsiveness via treatment performance (H13b) as condition 2 is met (β = .140, p < 0.05), and condition 3 (relationship between treatment performance and responsiveness) is met (β = .073, p < 0.01).
The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and assurance via treatment performance (H13c) is partially mediated. This is because condition 1 is met (β = .913, p < 0.01), condition 2 is met (β = .140, p < 0.05), condition 3 is met (β = .517, p < 0.01) and condition 4 is met (β = .897, p < 0.01).
The relationship between cognitive cultural intelligence and empathy via treatment performance (H13d) is partially mediated. This is because condition 1 is met (β = .120,

$p < 0.05$), condition 2 is met ($\beta = .140$, $p < 0.05$), condition 3 is met ($\beta = .150$, $p < 0.05$) and condition 4 is met ($\beta = .091$, $p = 0.01$).

The findings of hypotheses H13a - H13d suggest that employees with high cognitive cultural intelligence are likely to offer good treatment performance. As such they are likely to provide help and accurate information and services as promised and right at the first time. They are also likely to give prompt and helpful service to their foreign guests, or tell the guests exactly when services would be provided. They are also likely to have been able to communicate with their guests effectively, show personal attention to them, and know their specific needs. Furthermore, they are likely to have product knowledge of hotel information and the required skill to perform service, and to speak with guests by using an appropriate address form. These employees are more likely to be trustworthy and guests felt safe with their service.

There is evidence in the data from the interviews of inconsistent mediation between cultural intelligence and service quality via employee performance. A quote from the response of a hotel manager illustrates this:

> Most of our guests are women; the most important thing is not to be too close or too near to them, or to have conversations with them. And I, as manager, go around, there and back and watch my employees. There is no such thing [workers to talk to women guests], we do not allow it because it creates problems; we enforce this issue with our workers, and the worker himself is trained, he has to be clever, he must avoid women visitors but at the same time make them feel that he is serving them. He must safeguard his reputation and that of the hotel. And the worker is watched in all the hotel corners, and he knows this. In addition we installed cameras.
> ...among them there are some women who like to be complemented and to be courteous to; we emphasise on the worker that there is a red line not to be crossed. (m1, h2)

One would expect that in the context of the hospitality service, the direct effect of the service employee's behaviour on foreign guests' perception of service quality would be positive (the more appropriate the behaviour, the more the service quality). However, it is likely that the effect of employee behaviour on treatment performance was positive (the more appropriate the behaviour, the more the treatment) and the effect of treatment performance on service quality was negative (the more the treatment, the less the service quality), making the indirect effect negative and inconsistent. The above quoted manager, governed by the local culture, was not allowing his service

employees to directly come in contact with women during the service encounter. He considered that his service employees' prescribed behaviour towards, and treatment performance of foreign women guests were appropriate, while the women guests might have felt that such behaviour and treatment performance lacked reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy.

6.5 Evaluating the contributions of the predictor variables to service quality

The mediation model shows that employee performance (task, treatment and tangibles) explained: 62.1% (R^2 Change = .621, $p < .01$) of the variance in reliability, 61.6% (R^2 Change = .616, $p < .01$) of the variance in responsiveness, 0.7% (R^2 Change = .007, $p < .05$) of the variance in assurance, and 0.4% (R^2 Change = .004, *ns*) of the variance in empathy (see Table 6.2). This result shows that the mediation effect of employee performance was strong on reliability and responsiveness, where over 60% of the variance in these two variables is explained by employee performance. On the other hand, the mediation effect was weak on assurance and empathy where less than 1% of the variance is explained by employee performance.

Table 6.2 Effect of predictor variables on the variance of service quality variables

Model	Tang		Rel		Res		Ass		Emp	
	R^2	Δ R^2	R^2	Δ R^2	R^2	Δ R^2	R^2	Δ R^2	R^2	Δ R^2
1[a]	.007	.007	.003	.003	.045	.045*	.02	.020	.003	.003
2[b]	.311	.304**	.273	.270**	.312	.267**	.854	.834**	.867	.864**
3[c]	.847	.536**	.894	.621**	.928	.616**	.861	.007*	.871	.004

*$p < .05$ **$p < .001$
a. Predictors: experience, age, gender
b. Predictors: experience, age, gender, met, beh, mot, cog
c. Predictors: experience, age, gender, met, beh, mot, cog, tre, tas

In evaluating each of the predictor variables, the model (Table 5.45) shows that, controlling for other variables, treatment performance is the biggest significant unique contributor to the prediction of reliability ($\beta = .958$, $p < .001$); it also makes a significant unique contribution to the prediction of responsiveness ($\beta = .08$, $p < .001$). At a slightly higher significance level, task performance makes a significant unique contribution to the prediction of reliability ($\beta = .054$, $p = .065$) and to the prediction of empathy ($\beta = .059$, $p = .064$).

Moreover, again controlling for all the other predictor variables, meta-cognitive cultural intelligence makes a significant unique contribution to the prediction of reliability ($\beta = .072$, $p < .05$). Also cognitive cultural intelligence makes a big, significant and unique

contribution to the prediction of assurance (β = .897, p <.001), and a significant unique contribution to the prediction of empathy (β = .091, p <.05). Furthermore, motivational cultural intelligence contribution to the prediction of empathy is the biggest among all the other predictor variables (β = .915, p <.001).

6.6 Conclusion

This study originated in the city of Karbala-Iraq where the researcher is a native. The City receives in excess of ten million tourists (mainly religious tourists) annually from around the world. The trigger for this study was the general awareness of the pressure caused by this extraordinary number of visitors on the hotel services of this relatively small city, resulting in a noticeable vocal dissatisfaction on the part of foreign visitors. This prompted the researcher to undertake a pilot study to gain a better insight into the problem. The outcome of the pilot study revealed that a big part of the problem lied in the service encounter between hotel front-line service employees and foreign visitors. This led to the examination of the multi-disciplinary service and hospitality management literature, focusing on cross-cultural service encounters. Such an examination has also responded to calls for linkages to be made across conflicting paradigms in the Management literature (Lewis & Kelemen, 2002).

The interpretive reading of the literature which was undertaken revealed that service culture shaped the attitudes and behaviours of service employees and by doing so affected customers' perceptions of service quality. In service environments, this argument prompted the researcher to examine the interplay between personality, intelligence and job performance of service employees, and customer perception of service quality. This examination showed that in the service encounter, intelligence was more relevant to service quality than personality, and in the cross-cultural service encounters, cultural intelligence was more relevant than emotional intelligence. Subsequently, an analysis of the literature on cultural intelligence was conducted to identify the cultural intelligence version to use in this thesis and its dimensions. As the cross-cultural service interaction literature is silent over the relationship between cultural intelligence and service quality, an indirect relationship was developed by the use of a mediating construct. The literature showed that the meta-cognitive, motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence positively affected employees' task performance in a multi-cultural expatriate environment (Ang *et al*., 2007; Chen *et al*., 2010, 2012). Past exploratory research also suggested that service employees' task, treatment and tangibles performance (3Ts) were likely to affect service quality (Stewart, 2003). Based on these relationships, employees' performance, using Stewart's 3Ts performance framework was adopted as mediator. Consequently, a theoretical model of relationships was developed which linked cultural intelligence to service quality via employee performance (Fig. 2.8).

The research methodological design adopted for this study was a novel pragmatic one. It consisted of a pilot study followed by a mixed method approach in two stages. The first stage was qualitative research in the form of interviews conducted in international hotels in the city of Karbala, Iraq. The purpose of this stage was to understand the dynamics of cross-cultural service interactions in this particular hospitality context and to find out whether the developed theoretical model, referred to above, has provisional empirical support. Thematic analysis of the data showed that the hospitality service culture in the City was underdeveloped. It also resulted in a number of overarching themes, coalescing around the theoretical constructs of cultural intelligence of service employees, their performance, and foreign guests' perceptions of service quality. The findings supported the theoretical model, and showed additional causal relationships between the dimensions of these three constructs that were not articulated in the literature. A provisional empirical model of causal relationships was thus proposed which showed that all cultural intelligence dimensions indirectly affected service quality dimensions through employee performance (Fig. 4.1).

In the second, quantitative stage, the provisional model was statistically tested. This required first, the design and testing of an employee performance scale, as well as testing the adapted versions of cultural intelligence and service quality scales. Of particular importance in this model was the employee performance scale. In developing this measure, perceived conceptual problems regarding the precise definitions of each of the 3Ts (task, treatment and tangibles), and operational problems concerning confirmation of the measure's factor structure, and its validity and reliability, had to be overcome. Task performance, treatment performance, and tangibles performance were confirmed as the three dimensions of this scale, and a pool of measurement items for each of these dimensions had been identified from the literature (Bitner, 1992; Hogan & Holland, 2003; Stewart, 2003) and the findings of the qualitative research of this study. The employee performance scale exhibited a high degree of validity and reliability. The scale's dimensions and items can serve as a managerial tool to evaluate the service encounter performance of front-line employees in hospitality and other services, where little research has been conducted. The development of this scale thus adds to a growing body of literature in the hospitality service encounters. It also calls for further research to test its application to other sectors of the service industry.

The provisional empirical model was tested in the City's international hotels; at the individual level; in a 360-degrees appraisal scheme (Pollack & Pollack, 1996) of front-

line service employees, using three questionnaires. A self-report cultural intelligence questionnaire was administered to a convenient sample of employees; an employee performance questionnaire given to the managers of these employees to assess the employees' service performance; and a SERVPERF questionnaire administered to foreign guests served by these employees, seeking their perceptions of service quality. The results concurred with Ang *et al.*'s (2007) findings, as the meta-cognitive cultural intelligence was found to affect task performance, while cognitive cultural intelligence did not. Similarly, the results concurred with Chen *et al.*'s (2010, 2012) findings, which showed that motivational cultural intelligence affected task performance. However, and in contrast to Ang *et al.'s* (2007), this study's findings showed no significant relationship between behavioural cultural intelligence and task performance.

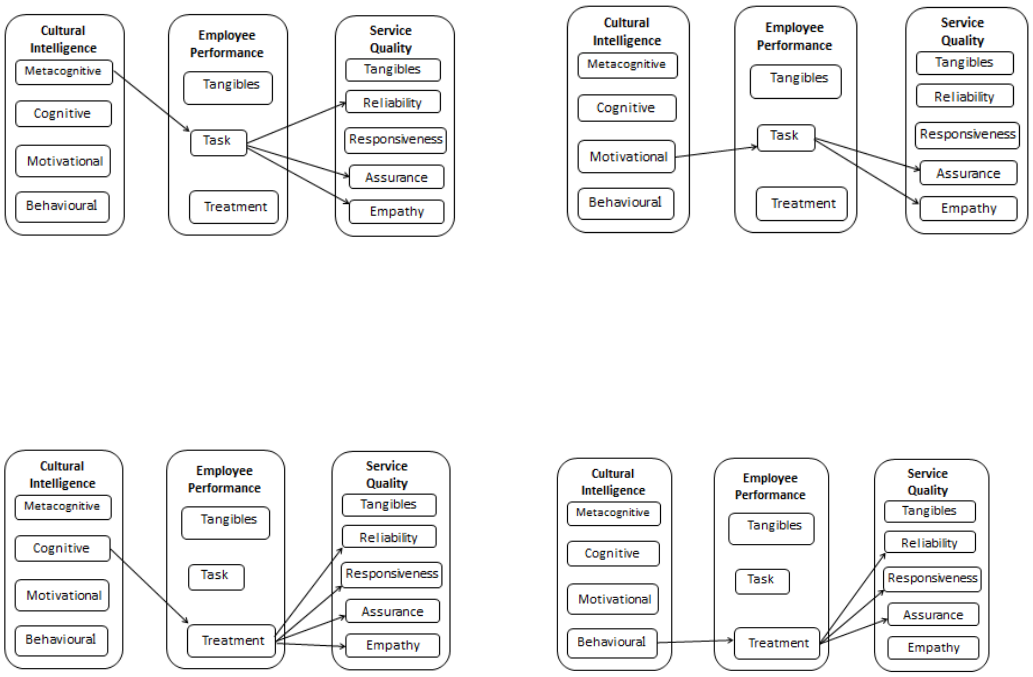
The findings also confirmed the propositions that cognitive and behavioural cultural intelligence predicted treatment performance. These two relationships have not been previously studied or tested. Their confirmation adds to the cross-cultural service literature.

This study also found that task performance affected reliability, assurance and empathy; and more significantly that treatment performance affected reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. These results provide new contributions to the literature as these relationships have not been previously statistically tested. It should be noted that with the exception of the relationship between treatment performance and reliability, all the other relationships were suggested by Stewart's (2003) exploratory study. The statistical confirmation of treatment performance as a strong predictor of service quality lends support to the argument which suggests that front-line service employees' ability to take initiative, engage in proactive behaviour and anticipatory actions that help prevent service delivery failures (Frese & Fay, 2001, Parker *et al*., 2006, Raub & Liao's, 2012) is critical for successful service delivery and customer satisfaction.

Furthermore, the findings show that employee performance mediated 12 out of the 32 relationships between cultural intelligence and service quality. It was established that task performance mediated the relationships: a) between meta-cognitive cultural intelligence and the service quality dimensions of reliability, assurance and empathy; and b) between motivational cultural intelligence, and assurance and empathy. However, the findings show that task performance did not mediate the relationship between cultural intelligence and responsiveness. It was also found that treatment

performance mediated the relationships: a) between cognitive cultural intelligence and the service quality dimensions of reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy; and b) between behavioural cultural intelligence and the service quality dimensions of reliability, responsiveness and assurance (see fig 6.1 & Table 6.1). It is clear from the results that treatment performance had a broader effect on service quality than task performance.

Figure 6.1 Statistically tested mediation paths between cultural intelligence and service quality via employee performance



The tested model further shows that in cross-cultural hospitality service interactions, employee performance accounted for more than 60% of the total variance in reliability and responsiveness compared to cultural intelligence which accounted for around 27% of the variance in these service quality variables. It also shows that employee performance only accounted for a mere fraction of the variance in assurance and empathy (0.7% and 0.4%) compared to cultural intelligence which accounted for over 80% of the variance in these variables (Table 6.2).

Moreover, the model (Table 5.45) shows that employee treatment performance made a much stronger unique and significant contribution to the prediction of reliability (β = .958, p <.001) and responsiveness (β = .085, p <.001) than employee task performance, where beta values are much lower, at (β = .054, p <.001) and (β = -.002, *ns*) respectively. It should also be noted that employee task performance did not mediate the relationships between cognitive and behavioural cultural intelligence and service quality variables; and that employee treatment performance did not mediate the relationships between meta-cognitive and motivational cultural intelligence and service quality variables.

These statistically established mediated relationships strongly suggest that, in cross-cultural hospitality service encounters, front-line service employees who know the social position, customs and habits, rules of languages and expression of people from other cultures, and who are able to change their verbal and non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it; are more likely to offer guests good treatment performance. As a result, they are more able to provide guests with help and accurate information and services as promised; tell guests exactly when services would be provided, give them prompt service and show willingness to help. They are also more likely to have product knowledge of hotel information and the required skill to perform the service. Furthermore, they are more likely to speak with guests by using an appropriate address form, to be trustworthy and make guests feel safe with their service. They are also more likely to be able to communicate with guests effectively, show them personal attention, and know their specific needs. These findings have implications for managers, as they point to the need for developing employees' cognitive and behavioural cultural intelligence ability to improve their treatment performance. Such an improvement requires not only training but also empowering employees. Empowerment should be aimed at providing employees with access to job related knowledge and skills and at granting them discretion in their work, enabling them to think, behave and make autonomous decisions. This is seen to enhance employees' self-efficacy, allowing them to express trust and commitment and to accept greater responsibility and exercise more control over the way they perform their work.

The findings further suggest that front-line employees who are conscious of the cultural knowledge they use and are able to adjust this knowledge and check its accuracy as they interact with customers from different cultures, and who enjoy interacting, socialising with, and had the ability to adjust to people from different cultures; these employees are more likely to perform their tasks well. As a result, they are also more likely to be able to provide guests with a reliable, assuring and empathetic hospitality service. These findings have further implications for hospitality service managers in terms of the design and scripting of hospitality tasks, instituting task performance training programmes, motivating and developing the meta-cognitive cultural intelligence ability of their front-line employees.

The findings of this study are likely to have further potential implications for management practice and employee training in the cross-cultural hospitality and

service management fields. They highlight the need for: diverse training for service employees to enable them to provide similar levels of service to customers from various cultures. The training program should enable employees to be more aware of their prejudices and address them by learning proper behavioural responses in cross-cultural service encounters. Managers may need to train their employees to provide a standardised service to all the customers irrespective of their cultural background. In the hospitality industry where the services are complex and personalised, managers may find it useful to train their employees to be more aware of cultural differences in customer expectations, to reduce cultural stereotyping and prejudices, particularly, serving customers from different cultures.

In this study, employee performance was found to mediate some of the relationships between cultural intelligence and service quality, as not all the mediating relationships which were strongly indicated by the findings of the qualitative research of this study, were statistically supported. The lack of statistical support for the other relationships in the model might be attributed to a number of reasons. First, the cultural intelligence scale which was used in this study is only a slightly modified version of Early and Ang (2003) scale, which was designed for, and applied to highly qualified expatriates from Western countries. In contrast, this study was applied to a population of much less qualified local front-line service employees of a much less developed country, and who in general lacked international experience. Second, unlike this study which was conducted on local employees in their service encounters with guests from other cultures; Ang *et al.*'s (2007) and Chen *et al*.'s (2010, 2012) studies were performed in a multi-cultural setting of expatriates from different cultures. Third, it was felt that major modification of this scale might affect its validity and reliability, hence requiring a redesign of the scale, a task which was not part of the purpose of this study. It is interesting, however, to note that only relatively recently (post this study's data collection using the original four-factor cultural intelligence scale); Van Dyne *et al*. (2012) recognised that the four-factor cultural intelligence scale was parsimonious. They acknowledged that focussing on a small number of highly abstract and general dimensions (i.e., meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, behavioural), instead of on a larger number at a more specific level might have hindered understanding. Accordingly, and in an attempt to address this shortcoming, they presented an expanded 11-factor conceptualisation of cultural intelligence (see section 2.5.1). A future study might look

into modifying and testing the cultural intelligence scale so that it can be applied more successfully to various study contexts and populations.

Furthermore, this study's developed and tested model focused on the cultural intelligence and performance of front-line hospitality service employees. It overlooked other individual differences, such as: international experiences and personal commitment; and multi-level constructs, such as: perceived organisational and supervisor support, social norms, organisational culture, industry characteristics, and status of job. It is acknowledged that these other factors play their part in predicting employee performance and service quality in cross-cultural service interactions. They thus remain as unstated assumptions associated with the model. These assumptions and the level of analysis, whether at the individual, team, or multi-level should be kept in mind as limitations when applying the model.
It should also be noted that this study was undertaken in a context where service culture was found to be underdeveloped. An important area of further research would be to apply the model in settings where service culture is well-developed to find out whether there are any significant differences and draw comparative conclusions.

Finally, and to sum up, this study has made a number of important contributions. It has developed and tested a model which showed that in cross-cultural service encounters, employee performance mediated the relationships between cultural intelligence and service quality; thus adding to the cross-cultural service literature. The study has also offered an employee performance scale to be used in assessing employee performance in the service encounters with customers; thus adding to the service management literature. Furthermore, the study made a contribution to research methodology, as the research methodological design was a novel pragmatic one, consisting of a pilot study followed by a two staged mixed method approach; such an approach proved to be central in arriving at the findings of this study. It is also worth mentioning that the multi-disciplinary nature of this study, by linking conflicting paradigms from various disciplines, has provided a new understanding of the dynamics of cross-cultural service encounters. It has also helped in addressing the need for such research in Management.

References

Adelman, M. B., A. Ahuvia, and C. Goodwin (1994). Beyond smiling: Social support and service quality, in service quality. In: R. T. Rust, & R. L. Oliver (Eds.), *New directions in theory and practice* (pp.139-171), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Adler, N. J. (2002). *International dimensions of organizational behaviour*. (4th ed). Cincinnati, OH, South-Western College.

Albacete-Sáez, C. A., Fuentes-Fuentes, M. M., & Lloréns-Montes, F. J. (2007). Service quality measurement in rural accommodation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34(1)*, 45-65.

Allik, J., & Mccrae, R. R. (2004). Toward a geography of personality traits: patterns of profiles across 36 cultures. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 35*, 13-28.

Al-Qummi, Ja'far ibn Qūlawayh (2008). *Kāmil al-Ziyārāt. trans. Sayyid Mohsen al-Husaini al-Mīlāni*. Qumm, Shiabooks.ca Press.

Al-Tabari, Muhammad ibn Jarir (1991). *History of the Prophets and Kings; Volume XIX, The Caliphate of Yazid ibn Muawiyah*, translated by I.K.A Howard. New York, Suny Press.

Anastasi, A., & Urbina, S. (1997). *Psychology testing* (7th ed.). N. J.: Upper Saddle River.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended twostep approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*, 411-423.

Aneshensel, C. S. (2002). *Theory-based data analysis for the social sciences*. California, Sage Publications, Inc.

Ang, S. & Inkpen, A. C. 2008. Cultural intelligence and offshore outsourcing success: A framework of firm-level intercultural capability. *Decision Sciences, 39*, 337–358.

Ang, S., & Van Dyne, L. (2008). Conceptualization of cultural intelligence: Definition, distinctiveness, and nomological network. In Ang, S. & Van Dyne, L. (eds), *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications* (pp. 3–15). Armonk, NY, M. E. Sharpe.

Ang, S., & Van Dyne, L. (2015). *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications*. Armonk, NY: Routledge.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Koh, S. K. (2006). Personality correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Group and Organization Management, 31*, 100–123.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., & Ng, K. Y. (2004). The measurement of cultural intelligence. Paper presented at the Symposium of Cultural Intelligence, Academy of Management Meetings, New Orleans, LA.

Ang, S., Dyne, L. V., Koh, C., Ng, K., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgement and decision making, cultural adaptation, and task performance. *Management and Organization Review, 3(3*), 335-371.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Tan, M. L. (2011). Cultural intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg &. B. S. Kaufman (Eds.), *Cambridge Handbook of Intelligence* (pp. 582–602). Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Armstrong, R. W., Mock, C., Go, F. M., & Chan, A. (1997). The importance of cross-cultural expectations in the measurement of service quality perceptions in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 16(2)*, 181-190.

Atilgan, E., Akinci, S., & Aksoy, S. (2003). Mapping service quality in the tourism industry. *Managing Service Quality, 13(5)*, 412-422.

Austin, J. T., & Klein, H. J. (1996). Work motivation and goal striving. In K. Murphy (Ed.), *Individual differences and behaviour in organisations* (pp. 209-257). San Francisco, JosseyBass.

Babakus, E. & Boller, G. W. (1992). An empirical assessment of the SERVQUAL scale. *Journal of Business Research, 24*, 253–268.

Babakus, E., U. Yavas, O.M. Karatepe and T. Avci (2003). The effect of management commitment to service quality on employees' affective and performance outcomes. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 31,* 272–286.

Baker, D. A., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1997). Effects of service climate on managers' and employees' rating of visitors' service quality expectations. *Journal of Travel Research, 36(1)*, 15-22.

Bakir, A., & Bakir, V. (2006a). Unpacking complexity, pinning down the 'elusiveness' of strategy: A grounded theory study in leisure and cultural organisations. *Qualitative Research in Organisation and Management: An International Journal, 1 (3)*, 152-172.

Bakir A., & Bakir, V. (2006). A critique of the capacity of Strauss' gounded theory for prediction, change and control in organisational strategy via a grounded theorisation of leisure and cultural strategy. *The Qualitative Report, 11(4)*, 687-718. Retrieved [Insert date], from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR11-4/bakir.pdf

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A. (2002). Social cognitive theory in cultural context. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 51(2)*, 269–290.

Barger, P., & Grandey, A. (2006). "Service with a smile" and encounter satisfaction: Emotional contagion and appraisal mechanisms. *Academy of Management Journal, 49(6)*, 1229 –1238.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 51*, 1173-1182.

Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organisational research. *Human Relations, 61*, 1139 –1160.

Batchelor, J. A., & Briggs, C. M. (1994). Subject, project or self? Thoughts on ethical dilemmas for social and medical researchers. *Social Science & Medicine, 39(7)*, 949-954.

Baydoun, R., Rose, D., & Emperado, T. (2001). Measuring customer service orientation: An examination of the validity of the customer service profile. *Journal of Business and Psychology 15 (4)*, 605-620.

Beamer, L., & Varner, I. (2001). *Intercultural communication in the global workplace*. Boston, McGraw-Hill.

Bell, B. S., & Kozlowski, S. W. J. (2008). Active learning: Effects of core training design elements on self-regulatory processes, learning, and adaptability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*, 296–316.

Bergh, Z. C., & Theron, A. L. (2006). *Psychology in the workplace* (3rd ed). Cape Town, Oxford.

Bernard, H. R. (1994). *Research methods in anthropology: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. (2nd ed.). Walnut Creek, CA, AltaMira.

Berry, L. L. (1995). Relationship marketing of services - growing interest, emerging perspectives. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 23*, 236–245.

Berry, L. L., & Bendapudi, N. (2003). Clueing in customers. *Harvard Business Review, 81 (2)*, 100-106.

Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1991). *Marketing services: competing through quality*. The Free Press, New York, NY.

Berry, J. W., & Ward, C. (2006). Commentary on redefining interactions across cultures and organisations. *Group & Organisation Management, 31*, 64-77.

Bettencourt, L. A. (1997). Customer voluntary performance: Customers as partners in service delivery. *Journal of Retailing, 73(3)*, 383-406.

Bitner, M. J. (1990). Evaluating service encounters: The effects of surroundings and employee responses. *Journal of Marketing, 54*, 69-82.

Bitner, M. J. (1992). Servicescapes: The impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *Journal of Marketing, 56*, 57-71.

Bitner, M. J., Booms, B. H., & Tetreault, M. S. (1990). The service encounter: Diagnosing favourable and unfavourable incidents. *Journal of Marketing 54*, 71-84.

Bitner, M. J., Booms, B. H. and Mohr, L. A. (1994). Critical service encounters: The employee viewpoint. *Journal of Marketing 58 (4)*, 95-106.

Bitner, M. J., Brown, S. W., & Meuter, M. L. (2000). Technology infusion in service encounters. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28 (1)*, 138–49.

Bochner, S. (1982). *Cultures in contact: Studies in cross-cultural interaction*. New York, Pergamon Press.

Blaikie, N. (1993). *Approaches to social enquiry*. Cambridge, Polity Press.

Blaikie, N. W. H. (2000). *Designing social research: The logic of anticipation*. Cambridge, Blackwell.

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. K. (1982). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods*. (2nd ed.). Boston, Allyn & Bacon.

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Self-concordance at work: Toward understanding the motivational effects of transformational leaders. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*, 554–571.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman, (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organisations* (pp. 71–98). San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass.

Borman, W. C., Penner, L. A., Allen, T. D., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2001). Personality predictors of citizenship performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 9*, 52–69.

Borucki, C. C., & Burke, M. J. (1999). An examination of service-related antecedents to retail
store performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *20*, 943-962.

Boulding, W., Kalra, A., Staelin, R., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1993). A dynamic model of service quality: from expectations to behavioral intentions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 30*, 7–27

Bowe, H. J., & Martin, K. (2007). *Communication across cultures: Mutual understanding in a global world*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Bowen, D. E., & Schneider, B. (1988). Services marketing and management: Implications for organizational behaviour. *Research in Organisational Behaviour, 10*: 43-80.

Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*, 1147–1158.

Brackett, M. A., & Salovey, P. (2006). Measuring emotional intelligence with the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test (MS-CEIT). *Psicothema, 18*, 34-41.

Brady, M. K. & Cronin, J. J. (2001). Some new thoughts on conceptualising perceived service quality: A hierarchical approach. *Journal of Marketing, 65*, 34-49.

Brady, M. K., Cronin, J., & Brand, R. R. (2002). Performance–only measurement of service quality: A replication and extension. *Journal of Business Research, 55(1)*, 17-31.

Brislin, R., Worthley, R., & MacNab, B. (2006). Cultural intelligence: Understanding behaviours that serve people's goals. *Group and Organization Management, 31*, 40–55.

Broderick, A. (1999). Role theory and the management of service encounters. *The Service Industries Journal 19(2)*, 117–131.

Brothers, L. (1997). *Friday's footprint: How society shapes the human mind*. New York, Oxford University Press.

Brown, T. J., Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr., & Peter, J. (1993). Improving the measurement of service quality. *Journal of Retailing, 69*, 127-39.

Brown, T. J., Mowen, J. C., D. Donavan, T., & Licata, J. W. (2002). The customer orientation of service workers: Personality trait determinants and effects on self- and supervisor performance ratings. *Journal of Marketing Research, 39*, 110–19.

Bubic, A., von Cramon, D., & Schubotz, R. I. (2010). Prediction, cognition and the brain. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience, 4*, 1–15.

Bucher, R. (2008). *Building cultural intelligence (CQ) nine megaskills*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.

Burke, R. J. (2003). Nursing staff attitudes following restructuring: the role of perceived organisational support, restructuring processes and stressors. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy 23*, 129-157.

Burton, M. L., & Kirk, L. (1980). Ethno-classification of body parts: A three-culture study. In D. Brokensha, D. M. Warren, & O. Werner (Eds.), *Indigenous knowledge systems and development* (pp. 269–296). Lanham, MD, University Press of America.

Cacioppo, J. T., Semin, G. R., & Berntson, G. G. (2004). Realism, instrumentalism, and scientific symbiosis: Psychological theory as a search for truth and the discovery of solutions. *American Psychologist, 59*, 214–223.

Campbell, J. P. (1999). The definition and measurement of performance in the new age. In D. R. Ilgen & E. D. Pulakos (Eds.), *The changing nature of performance* (pp. 399-430). San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass.

Campbell, J.P., McCloy, R.A., Oppler, S.H., & Sager, C.E. (1993). A theory of performance. In: Schmitt, J., Borman, W.C. (eds.), *Associates. Personnel Selection in Organizations* (pp. 35-69). San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass.

Carman, J. M. (1990). Consumer perceptions of service quality: An assessment of the SERVQUAL dimensions. *Journal of Retailing 66 (1)*, 33–55.

Capron, A. M. (1989). Human experimentation. In Veatch, R. M. (ed.), *Medical ethics* (125-172). Boston: Jones & Bartlett.

Chapman, M., Gajewska-De Mattos, H., Clegg, J., & Buckley, P. J. (2008). Close neighbours and distant friends: Perceptions of cultural distance. *International Business Review, 17*, 217–234.

Charmaz, K. (2000). Grounded theory: Objectivist and constructivist methods. In N. Denzin, & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.) (pp.509–536). Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Chase, R. B., & Stewart, D. M. (1994). Make your service fail-safe. *Sloan Management Review, 35(3)*, 35-44.

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new generalized self-efficacy scale. *Organisational Research Methods, 4*, 62–83.

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., Whiteman, J. A., & Kilcullen, B. N. (2000). Examination of relationships among trait-like individual differences, state-like individual differences, and learning performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 835–84.

Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kim, K., Farh, C. I. C., Tangirala, R. (2010). When does cross-cultural motivation enhance expatriate effectiveness? A multilevel investigation of the moderating roles of subsidiary support and cultural distance. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*, 1110-1130.

Chen, X.-P., Liu, D., & Portnoy, R. (2012). A multi-level investigation of motivational cultural intelligence, organizational diversity climate, and cultural sales: Evidence from U.S. real estate firms. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*, 93–106.

Chen, L. C., Wallace, M. (2011). Multiskilling of frontline managers in the five star hotel industry in Taiwan. *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management 19 (1)*, 25–42.

Chow, I.H., Lau, V.P., Lo, T.W., Sha, Z., & Yun, H. (2007). Service quality in restaurant operations in China: decision- and experiential-oriented perspectives. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 26*, 698–710.

Cole, J. (2003). *Sacred space and Holy War: The Politics, Culture and History of Shi'ite Islam*. London, IB Tauris.

Cole, J. R., & Momen M. (1986). Mafia, mob and Shi'ism in Iraq: The rebellion of Ottoman Karbala, 1824-43, *Past and Present, 112*, 112-43.

Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D.J. (1990). Stories of experience and narrative inquiry. *Educational Researcher, 19(5)*, 2-14.

Conte, J. M. (2005). A review and critique of emotional intelligence measures. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 26*, 433−440.

Conte, J. M., & Dean, M. A. (2006). Can emotional intelligence be measured? In K. R. Murphy (Ed.), *A critique of emotional intelligence* (pp. 59-77). Mahwah, NJ, Erlbaum.

Coulthard, L. J. (2004). Measuring service quality: A review and critique of research using SERVQUAL. *International Journal of Market Research, 46*, 479–497.

Coyle, M. P., & Dale, B. G. (1993). Quality in the hospitality industry: A study in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 12(2)*, 141-153.

Crant, J. M., & Bateman, T. S. (2000). Charismatic leadership viewed from above: The impact of proactive personality. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 21*, 63–75.

Creswell, J. W. & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice, 39(3)*, 124-131.

Crick, A. P., & Spencer, A. (2011). Hospitality quality: new directions and new challenges, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 23(4)*, 463-78.

Cronin, J. J. Jr., & Taylor, S. A. (1992). Measuring service quality: A re-examination and extension. *Journal of Marketing, 56 (3)*, 55–68.

Cronin, Jr., J. J., & Taylor, S. A. (1994). SERVPERF versus SERVQUAL: Reconciling performance-based and perceptions-minus-expectations measurement of service quality. *Journal of Marketing, 58*, 125-131.

Crowne, K. A. (2013) Cultural exposure, emotional intelligence, and cultural intelligence: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management 13(1)*, 5-22.

Cui, G., & Awa, N. E. (1992). Measuring intercultural effectiveness: An integrative approach. *International Journal of Intercultural relations, 16*, 311-328.

Cushner, K., & Brislin, R. W. (1996). *Intercultural Relations: A Practical Guide* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

D'Andrade, R. (1991). The identification of schemas in naturalistic data. In M. J. Horowitz, (Ed.), *Person schemas and maladaptive interpersonal patterns* (pp. 279–301). Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

Deci, E. L. (1975). *Intrinsic Motivation*. New York, Plenum Press.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour*. New York, Plenum.

de Jong, A., de Ruyter, K., & Lemmink, J. (2005). Service climate in self-managing teams: Mapping the linkage of team member perceptions and service performance outcomes in a business-to-business setting. *Journal of Management Studies, 42(8*), 1593-1620.

DeNisi, A. S., & Pritchard, R. D. (2006). Performance appraisal, performance management and improving individual performance: A motivational framework. *Management and Organization Review, 2*, 253–277.

Denzin, N. K. (1970). The research act: *A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. Chicago, Aldine

Denzin, N. K. (1997). *Interpretive ethnography*. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Denzin, N. K., Lincoln, Y. S. (2003). *Qualitative research*. London, Sage.

Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis: A user-friendly guide for social scientists*. London, Routledge Kegan Paul.

Digman, J. M. (1997). Higher order factors of the Big Five. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73*, 1246–1256.

Earley, P. C. (2002). Redefining interactions across cultures and organizations: Moving forward with cultural intelligence. In B. M. Staw, & R. I. Sutton (Eds.), *Research in organisational behaviour* (pp. 271-299). New York, JAI Press.

Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Stanford, CA, Stanford University Press.

Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2004). Cultural intelligence. *Harvard Business Review, 82(10)*, 139 –146.

Earley CP, Murnieks C, & Mosakowski E. (2007). Cultural intelligence and the global mindset. In M., Javidan, R. M., Steers, & M. A. Hitt (Eds.), *The Global Mindset* (pp. 75–103). New York, Elsevier.

Easterby-Smith, M. P. V., Thorpe, R., and Jackson, P. (2008). *Management research: Theory and research*, London, Sage.

Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. In S. T.Fiske, D. L. Schacter, & C. Zahn-Waxler (Eds.) *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. 53. (pp. 109–132). Palo Alto, CA, Annual Reviews.

Eisenberger, R., Cummings, J., Armeli, S., & Lynch, P. (1997). Perceived organisational support, discretionary treatment, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*, 812–820.

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organisational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 42–51.

Ekinci, Y., & Dawes, P. (2009). Consumer perceptions of front-line service employee personality traits, interaction quality and consumer satisfaction. *Service Industries Journal, 29(4)*, 503-521.

Endsley, M. R. (1995). Toward a theory of situation awareness in dynamic systems. *Human Factors, 37*, 32–64.

Erez, M., & Early, P. (1993). *Culture, self-identity and work*. New York, University Press.

Erez, A., & Judge, T. A. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations to goal setting, motivation, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 1270–1279.

Eriksson, P., & Kovalainen, A. (2008). *Qualitative methods in business research*. London, Sage Publications Ltd.

Frese, M., & Fay, D. (2001). Personal initiative: An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. In B. M. Staw & R. L. Sutton (Eds.), *Reserach in organisational behaviour* (Vol. 23, pp. 133–187). Stamford, CT, JAI Press.

Friedman, V. J., & Antal, A. B. (2005) Negotiating reality: a theory of action approach to intercultural competence. *Management Learning, 36*, 69–86.

Fernandez, S., & Moldogaziev, T. (2012). Using employee empowerment to encourage innovative behaviour in the public sector. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory 23(1)*, 155-187.

Fay, C. H., & Thompson, M. A. (2001). Contextual determinants of reward systems' success: An exploratory study. *Human Resources Management, 40*, 213–226.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics with SPSS* (2nd ed.). London, Sage.

Fielding, N. G., & Fielding, J. L. (1986). *Linking data*. Newbury Park, CA, Sage.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 39–50.

Flowers, P. (2009). *Research philosophies - Importance and relevance*. Bedford, Great Britain, Cranfield School of Management.

Frei, R. L., & McDaniel, M. A. (1998). Validity of customer service measures in personnel selection: A review of criterion and construct evidence. *Human Performance, II (1)*, 1-27.

Frese, M., & Fay, D. (2001). Personal initiative: An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. In B. M. Staw & R. L. Sutton (Eds.), *Reserach in organizational behaviour* (Vol. 23, pp. 133–187). Stamford, CT, JAI Press.

Friedman, V. J., & Antal, A. B. (2005). Negotiating reality: a theory of action approach to intercultural competence. *Management Learning, 36*, 69–86.

Frochot, I., & Hughes, H. (2000). HISTQUAL: The development of a historic houses assessment scale. *Tourism Management, 21(2)*, 157-167.

Fuller, L., & Smith, V. (1991). Consumers reports: Management by customers in a changing economy. *Work Employment and Society, 5(1)*, 1-16.

Furrer, O., Liu, B. S., & Sudharshan, D. (2000). The relationships between culture and service quality perceptions: basis for cross-cultural market segmentation and resource allocation. *Journal of Service Research, 2(4)*, 355-71.

Geertz C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures*. New York, Basic Books.

Gelfand, M. J., Imai, L., & Fehr, R. (2008). Thinking intelligently about cultural intelligence: The road ahead. In Ang, S. & Van Dyne, L. (Eds) *Handbook on cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement and applications* (pp. 375–387). New York, M. E. Sharpe.

Ghen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kim, K., Farh, G. I. G., & Tangirala, S. (2010). When does cross-cultural motivation enhance expatriate effectiveness? A multilevel investigation of the moderating roles of suhsidiary support and cultural distance. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*, 1110-1130.

Gill, J. & Johnson, P. (1991). *Research methods for managers*. Paul Chapman, London.

Glaser, B.G. (1978). *Theoretical sensitivity*. Mill Valley, California, The Sociology Press.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New York, McGraw-Hill.

Gould-Williams, J. (1999). The impact of employee performance cues on guest loyalty, perceived value and service quality. *The Service Industries Journal 19(3)*, 97–118.

Gowing, M. K. (2001). Measures of individual emotional competencies. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 83–131). San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Grant, A. M., & Parker, S. K. (2009). Redesigning work design theories: The rise of relational and proactive perspectives. *Academy of Management Annals, 3*, 273–331.

Green, A. L., Hill, A. Y., Friday, E., & Ve Friday, S. S. (2005). The use of multiple intelligences to enhance team productivity. *Management Decision, 43(3)*, 349–359.

Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*, 327–347.

Grönroos, C. (1984). A service quality model and its marketing implications. *European Journal of Marketing, 18(4)*, 34-44.

Grönroos, C. (1990). *Service management and marketing – Managing the moments of truth in service competition*. Lexington, MA, Lexington Books.

Grove, S. J., Fisk, R. P., & Dorsch, M. J. (1998). Assessing the theatrical components of the service encounter: a cluster analysis examination. *The Service Industries Journal, 18(3)*, pp. 116-134.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA, Sage.

Gudykunst, W. B., Ting-Toomey, S., & Chua, E. (1988). *Culture and interpersonal communication*. Newbury Park, California, Sage.

Gwinner, K. P., Bitner, M. J., Brown, S. W., & Kumar, A. (2005). Service customisation through employee adaptiveness. *Journal of Service Research, 8*, 131–148.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ, Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hall, E. T. (1959). *The silent language*. Greenwich, Conn., Fawcett.

Hallowell, R, & Heskett, J. (1993). Southwest Airlines: 1993 (A), Case 9-694-023, Harvard Business School Publishing, Boston.

Hammersley, M. (1992). *What's wrong with ethnography?* New York, Routledge.

Hansen, J. T. (2004). Thoughts on knowing: Epistemic implications of counselling practice. *Journal of Counselling & Development, 82*, 131– 138.

Harris, L. C. (2012). 'Ripping off' tourist: An empirical evaluation of tourists' perceptions and service worker (mis)behaviour. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39(2)*, 1070–1093.

Hart, C. W. L., Heskett, J. L., & Sasser, W. E. Jr. (1990). The pro table art of service recovery, *Harvard Business Review, 68*, 148-56.

Hartline, M. D., & Ferrell, O. C. (1996). The management of customer-contact service employees: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Marketing, 60*, 52–70.

Hartline, M. D., & Jones, K. C. (1996). Employee performance cues in a hotel service environment: Influence on perceived service quality, value, and word-of-mouth intentions. *Journal of Business Research, 35*: 207–215.

Hatch, M. J., & Cunliffe, A. L. (2006). *Organisation theory: Modern, symbolic, and post-modern perspectives*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hennig-Thurau, Mark B. Houston, & Srihari Sridhar (2006). Can good marketing carry a bad product? Evidence from the motion picture industry. *Marketing Letters, 17 (3)*, 205–219.

Herbig, P., & Genestre, A. (1997). International motivational differences. *Management Decision, 35(7)*, 562-567.

Hepple, J., Kipps, M., & Thomson, J., (1990). The concept of hospitality and an evaluation of its applicability to the experience of hospital patients. *International Journal of Hospitality Management 9 (4)*, 305–317.

Heskett, J. L. (1987). Lessons in the service sector. *Harvard Business Review 65*, 118–126.

Hesketh, B., & Neal, A. (1999). Technology and performance. In D. R. Ilgen & D. P. Pulakos (Eds.), *The changing nature of performance: Implications for staffing, motivation and development* (pp. 21–55). San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Hinkin, T. R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organisations. *Journal of Management, 21*, 967-988.

Hocutt, M. A., Bowers, M. R., & Donovan, D. T. (2006). The art of service recovery: Fact or fiction? *Journal of Service Marketing, 20(3)*, 199-207.

Hoecklin, J., 1995. *Managing cultural differences: Strategies for competitive advantage*. Workingham, Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organisations: Software of the mind*. London, McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (1998). Attitudes, values and organisational culture: Disentangling the concepts. *Organisation Studies, 19(3)*, 477–92.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviours, institutions, and organisations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, California, Sage.

Hofstede, G. (2004). *Cultures and organisations: Software of the mind* (2nd ed.). London: Mcgraw-Hill.

Hogan, J., & Holland, B. (2003). Using theory to evaluate personality and job performance relations: A socio-analytic perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 100 –112.

Hogreve, J., & Gremler, D. D. (2009). Twenty years of service guarantee research: A synthesis. *Journal of Service Research, 11(5)*, 322-43.

Horn, J. L. (1986). Intellectual ability concepts. In Sternberg, R. J. (Ed.), *Advances in psychology of human intelligence* (pp. 35-77). Hillsdale, NJ, Erlbaum.

Hostage, G. (1975). Quality control in a service business. *Harvard Business Review, 53(4)*, 98-106.

Howe, K. R. (1988). Against the quantitative-qualitative incompatability thesis, or, Dogmas die hard. *Educational Researcher, 17*, 10-16.

Howe, K., & Eisenhardt, M. (1990). Standards for qualitative (and quantitative) research: A prolegomenon. *Educational Researcher, 19 (4)*, 2-9.

Hughes, C., Blaxter, L., & Tight, M. (2006). *How to research*. Maidenhead, England, Open University Press.

Hurley, R. F. (1998). Service disposition and personality: A review and a classification scheme for understanding where service disposition has an effect on customers. *Advances in Services Marketing and Management, 1*, 159-191.

Huysamen, G. K. (2006). Coefficient alpha: unnecessarily ambiguous, unduly ubiquitous. *South-African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 32,* 34–40.

Ilgen, D. R., & Hollenbeck, J. R. (1991). The structure of work: Job design and roles. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology (2nd ed.) (pp.165–207). Palo Alto, CA, Consulting Psychology Press.

Ilgen, D. R., & Pulakos, E. D. 1999. Employee performance in today's organizations. In D. R.
Ilgen & E. D. Pulakos (Eds.), *The changing nature of performance: Implications for staffing, motivation, an development* (pp. 21–55). San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Imai, L., & Gelfand, M. J. (2010). The culturally intelligent negotiator: The impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) on negotiation sequences and outcomes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 112,* 83 – 98.

Jacobs, J. E., & Paris, S. G. (1987). Children's metacognition about reading: Issues in definition, measurement and instruction. *Educational Psychologist, 22*, 143–158. James, 2007.

James, K., & Vinnicombe, S. (2002). Acknowledging the individual in the researcher. In D. Partington (Ed.), Essential skills for management research (84-98). London, Sage.

Johns, N., & Howard, A. (1998). Customer expectations versus perceptions of service performance in the food service industry. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 9(3)*, 248-65.

Johnson, J. W. (1996). Linking employee perceptions of service climate to customer satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, *49*, 831-851.

Johnson, J. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (2003). The effects of psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism: Not all social exchanges are created equal. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 24*, 627– 647.

Jones, G., & Schneider, W. J. (2006). Intelligence, human capital, and economic growth: A bayesian averaging of classical estimates (BACE) approach. *Journal of Economic Growth 11(1)*, 71-93.

Joreskog, K. G., & Sorbom, D. (1993). *LISREL 8: Structural equation modelling with the SIMPLIS command language*. Hillsdale, NJ, Erlbaum.

Judge, T. A., Erez, A., & Bono, J. A. (1998). The power of being positive: The relation between positive self-concept and job performance. *Human Performance, 11*, 167-187.

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., & Durham, C. C. (1997). The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. *Research in Organizational Behaviour, 19*, 151-188.

Juwaheer, T. D. (2004). Exploring international tourists' perceptions of hotel operations by using a modified SERVQUAL approach: a case study of Mauritius. *Managing Service Quality 14 (5)*, 350–364.

Kanfer, R., & Heggestad, E. D. (1997). Motivation traits and skills: A person-centred approach to work motivation. *Research in Organizational Behaviour, 19*, 1–56.

Kang, G., & James, C. (2004). Service quality dimensions: an examination of Grönroos' service quality model. *Managing Service Quality, 14(4)*, 266-77.

Karma, K., & Vedina, R., (2009). Cultural intelligence as a prism between workforce diversity and performance in modern organization. *Review of International Comparative Management, 10(3)*, 527-542.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organisations* (2nd. ed.). New York, Wiley

Keith, N., & Frese, M. (2005). Self-regulation in error management training: Emotion control and metacognition as mediators of performance effects. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 677–691.

Kenny, D. A. (2014). Mediation. Retrieved September 8, 2015, from http://davidakenny.net/cm/mediate.htm.

Khan, M. (2003). ECOSERV: Ecotourists' quality expectations. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30(1)*, 109–124.

Kim, M. G., Wang, C., & Mattila, A. S. (2010). The relationship between consumer complaining behavior and service recovery: An integrative review. *International Journal of*
Contemporary Hospitality Management, 22(7), 975- 991.

King, C., & Garey, J. G. (1997). Relational Quality in Service Encounters. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 16(1)*, 39-63.

Kingman-Brundage, J. (1991). Technology, design and service quality. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 2(3)*, 47-59.

Kirk, J., & Miller, M. L. (1986). *Reliability and validity in qualitative research*. Beverly Hills, CA, Sage.

Knapp, M., & Hall, J. (2010). *Nonverbal communication in human interaction* (7th ed). Boston, MA, Wadsworth.

Kraimer, M. L., & Wayne, S. J. (2004). An examination of perceived organizational support as a multidimensional construct in the context of an expatriate assignment. *Journal of Management, 30*, 209-237.

Kraimer, M. L., Wayne, S. J., & Jaworski, R. A. (2001). Sources of support and expatriate performance: The mediating role of expatriate adjustment. *Personnel Psychology, 54*, 71-99.

Kowalewski, S., & Phillips, S. (2012). Preferences for performance based employee rewards. *International Journal of Management and marketing Research, 5(2)*, 65-76.

Kusluvan, S., Kusluvan, Z., Ilhan, I., & Buyruk, L. (2010). The human dimension: a review of human resources management issues in the tourism and hospitality industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly 51 (2)*, 171–214.
Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Ladhari, R. (2008). Alternative measures of service quality: A review. *Managing Service Quality 18 (1)*, 65–86.

Ladhari, R. (2009). A review of twenty years of SERVQUAL research. *International Journal of Quality and Services Sciences 1 (2)*, 172–198.

Ladhari, R. (2010). Developing e-service quality scales: a literature review. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 17*, 464-77.

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

Lee, L.Y., & Sukoco, B. M. (2010). The effects of cultural intelligence on expatriate performance. The moderating effects of international experience. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 21*, 963–981.

Leidner, R. (1993). *Fast food, fast talk: Service work and the routinisation of everyday life*. Berkeley, University of California Press.

Lehtinen, U., & Lehtinen, J. R. (1991). Two approaches to service quality dimension. *The Service Industries Journal, 11(3)*, 287-303.

Leung, K., Ang, S., & Tan, M. L. (2014). Intercultural competence. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organisational Behaviour, 1*, 489 –519.

Lewis, M. W., & Kelemen, M. L. (2002). Multi-paradigm inquiry: Exploring organisational pluralism and paradox. *Human Relations*, *55(2)*, 251–275.

Liao, H. (2007). Do it right this time: The role of employee service recovery performance in customer-perceived justice and customer loyalty after service failures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 475-489.

Liao, H., & Chuang, A. (2004). A multilevel investigation of factors influencing employee service performance and customer outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, *47*, 41-58.

Liao, H., Liu, D., & Loi, R. 2010. Looking at both sides of the social exchange coin: A social cognitive perspective on the joint effects of relationship quality and differentiation on creativity. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*, 1090-1109.

Liao, H., Toya, K., Lepak, D. P., & Hong, Y. (2009). Do they see eye to eye? Management and employee perspectives of high-performance work systems and influence processes on service quality*. Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*: 371–391.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hill, Sage.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2000). The only generalisation is: There is no generalisation, in R. Gomm, M. Hammersley, & P. Foster (Eds.) *Case Study Method* (pp. 27–44). London, Sage.

Litvak, M. (2000). A failed manipulation: The British, the Oudh Bequest and the Shi'i 'Ulama' of Najaf and Karbala, *British Journal of Middle Eastern Studies*, 27 (1), 69-89.

Liu, B. S.-C., Furrer, O., & Sudharshan, D. (2001). The relationship between culture and behavioral intentions towards services. *Journal of Service Research, 4*, 118-129.

Looy, B.V., Gemmel, P., Desmet, S., Dierdonck, R.V., & Serneels, S. (1998). Dealing with productivity and quality indicators in a service environment: some field experiences, *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 9(4)*, 359-76.

Lovelock, C. (1975). Southwest airlines (A). case 9-575-060, Boston, Harvard Business School Publishing.

Luk, S. T-K., & Layton, R. (2004). Managing both outcome and process quality is critical to quality of hotel service. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence, 15(3)*, 259-278.

Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., & Peterson, S. J. (2010). The development and resulting performance impact of positive psychological capital. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 21*, 41–67.

Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge*. New York, Oxford University Press.

MacKinnon, D. P., Warsi, G., & Dwyer, J. H. (1995). A simulation study of mediated effect measures. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 30*, 41-62.

Masdek, N. R. N. M., Aziz, Y. A., & Awang, K. W. (2011). Impact of selected organisational characteristics on psychological and behavioural outcomes of hotel front-line employees. *Pertanika Journal of Social Science & Humanity, 19 (2)*, 369-383.

Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. (2002). *Emotional intelligence: Science and myth?* Cambridge, MA, MIT Press.

Mattila, A. S. (1999). The role of culture and purchase motivation in service encounter evaluations. *Journal of Service Marketing, 13(4/5)*, 376-389.

Mattila, A. S., Ro, H. (2008). Discrete negative emotions and customer dissatisfaction responses in a casual restaurant setting. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research 32 (1)*, 89–107.

Maxwell, J. A. (1992). *Understanding and validity in qualitative research*. Harvard Educational Review, 62, 279-299.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R., & Sitarenios, G. (2003). Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0. *Emotion 3*, 97–105.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, R. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings and implications. *Psychological Inquiry, 15(3)*, 197-215.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2008). Emotional intelligence: New ability or eclectic traits? *American Psychologist, 63*, 503−517.

McDaniel, M., & Frei, R. (1994). Validity of customer service measures in personnel selection: A meta-analysis. Ninth annual conference of the society for industrial and organisational psychology. Inc., Nashville.

McGrath, J. E., & Johnson, B. A. (2003). Methodology makes meaning: How both qualitative and quantitative paradigms shape evidence and its interpretation. In P. M. Camic, J. E. Rhodes, & L. Yardley (Eds.), *Qualitative research in psychology: Expanding perspectives in methodology and design* (pp. 31–48). Washington, DC, American Psychological Association.

Mels, G., Boshoff, C., & Nel, D. (1997). The dimensions of service quality: The original european perspective revisited. *Service Industries Journal, 17 (1)*, 173-89.

Meyer, A., Chase, R., Roth, A., Voss, C., Sperl, K.-U., Menor, L., & Blackmon, K. (1999). Service competitiveness - an international benchmarking comparison of service practice and performance in Germany, UK and USA., *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 10(4)*, 369-79.

Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E., & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee commitment and motivation: A conceptual analysis and integrative model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 991–1007.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mohr, L. A., & Bitner, M. J. (1991). Mutual understanding between customers and employees in service encounters. In R. H. Holman & M. R. Solomon (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 18* (pp. 611–617). Provo, UT, Association for Consumer Research.

Molinsky, A. (2007). Cross-cultural code-switching: The psychological challenges of adapting behaviour in foreign cultural interactions. *Academy of Management Review, 32*, 622–640.

Moon, T. (2010a). Emotional intelligence correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25*, 876-898.

Moon, T. (2010b). Organisational cultural intelligence: Dynamic capability perspective. *Group & Organization Management, 35*, 456-493.

Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1(1)*, 48-76.

Morrison, E. W., & Phelps, C. C. (1999). Taking charge at work: Extra role efforts to initiate workplace change. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*, 403–419.

Morrow, S. L. (2005). Quality and trustworthiness in qualitative research in counselling psychology. *Journal of Counselling Psychology, 52*, 250– 260.

Morse, J. M. & Field, P. A. (1998). *Nursing research of qualitative approaches*. Cheltenham, Stanley Thornes.

Murdock, G. P. (1987). *Outline of cultural materials*. New Haven, CT, HRAF.

Murphy, P. R., & Jackson, S. E. (1999). Managing work-role performance: Challenges for 21st century organizations and employees. In D. R. Ilgen & E. D. Pulakos (Eds.), *The changing nature of work performance* (pp. 325–365). San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Mwaura, G., Sutton, J., & Roberts, D. (1998). Corporate and national culture – an irreconcilable dilemma for the hospitality manager? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 10 (6)*, 212–220.

Ng, K. Y., & Earley, C. P. (2006). Culture and intelligence: Old constructs, new frontiers. *Group and Organization Management, 31*, 4–19.
Ng, K. Y., Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2009). Developing global leaders: the role of international experience and cultural intelligence. *Advanced Global Leadership 5*, 225–50.

Ng, K.Y., Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2012). Cultural intelligence: a review, reflections, and recommendations for future research. In: Ryan, A. M., Leong, F. T. L., & Oswald, F. (eds), *Conducting multinational research projects in organizational psychology* (pp. 29–58). Washington, DC, Am. Psychol. Assoc.

Nickson, D., Warhurst, C., & Dutton, E. (2005). The Importance of Attitude and Appearance in the Service Encounter in Retail and Hospitality. *Managing Service Quality 15(2)*, 195–208.

Novelli, M., & Burns, P. (2010). Peer-to-peer capacity-building in tourism: Values and experiences of field-based education. *Development Southern Africa,27(5)*, 741-756.

Oakley, A. (2000). *Experiments in knowing: Gender and method in the social sciences*. Cambridge, Polity Press.

Oliver, Richard L. (1997). Satisfaction: *A behavioural perspective on the consumer*. New York, McGraw–Hill.

O'Neil, H. E., & Abedi, J. (1996). Reliability and validity of a state metacognitive inventory: Potential for alternative assessment. *The Journal of Educational Research, 89*, 234–245.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. J. (2005). On becoming a pragmatic researcher: The importance of combining quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 8*, 375-387.

Oolders, T., Chernysherdco, O. S., & Stark, S. (2008). Cultural intelligence as a mediator of relationships between Openness to Experience and adaptive performance. In: Ang, S. & Van Dyne, L. (eds.), *Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications* (pp. 145-158). New York, NY: Sharpe.

O'Rielly, C., & Pfeffer, J. (1995). Southwest airlines: Using human resources for competitive advantage, case HR-1A, Boston, Harvard Business School Publishing.

Pallant, J., (2007). SPSS Survival Manual: *A step-by-step guide to data analysis using SPSS version 15* (3rd edition), Milton Keynes, Open University Press.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1988). SERVQUAL: A multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of Retailing, 64*, 12-40.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V., & Berry, L. L. (1994). Reassessments of expectations as a comparison standard in measuring service quality: Implications for further research. *Journal of Marketing, 58(1)*:111-124.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Leonard, L. B. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing, 49*, 41–50.

Parayani, K., Masoudi, A. and Cudney, E. (2010). QFD application in hospitality industry – a hotel case study. *Quality Management Journal, 17(1)*, pp. 7-28.

Parker, S. K., Williams, H., M., & Turner, N. (2006). Modeling the antecedents of proactive behaviour at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*: 636 – 652.

Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. (2010). Making things happen: A model of proactive motivation. *Journal of Management, 36*, 827-856.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed). Newbury Park, CA, Sage.

Peter, J. P., & Churchill, G. A. (1986). Relationships among research design choices and psychometric properties of rating scales: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research 23*, 1-10.

Peterson, B. (2004). *Cultural intelligence: A guide to working with people from other cultures*. Yarmouth, ME, Intercultural Press.

Pintrich, P. R., & De Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*, 33–40.

Pizam, A., & Sussman S. (1995). Does nationality affect tourist behaviour? *Annals of Tourism Research 22(2)*, 901–917.

Pizam, A., Pine, R., Mok, C., & Shin, J. (1997). Nationality vs industry culture: Which has a greater effect on managerial behaviour. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 16(2)*, 127-145.

Plum, E. (2008). *Cultural intelligence: The art of leading cultural complexity*. London, England, Middlesex University Press.

Podsdakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organisational citizenship behaviours: Critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management, 26*, 513–563.

Pollack, D. M., & Pollack, L. J. (1996). Using 360 degree feedback in performance appraisal. Public Personnel Management, 25, 507–528.

Ponterotto, J. G. (2005). Qualitative research in counselling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of Counselling Psychology, 52*, 126–136.

Popper, K. R. (1972). *Objective knowledge: An evolutionary approach*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behaviour Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers, 36*, 717-731.

Preacher, K., & Leonardelli, G. (2015). Calculation for the Sobel test: An interactive calculation tool for mediation tests. Retrieved January 10, 2015, from http://quantpsy.org/sobel/sobel.htm

Pulakos, E. D., Arad, S., Donovan, M. A., & Plamondon, K. E. (2000). Adaptability in the workplace: Development of a taxonomy of adaptive performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 612-624.

Punch, K. (2005). *Introduction to social research* (2nd ed). London, Sage.

Rank, J., Carsten, J. M., Unger, J. M., & Spector, P. E. (2007). Proactive customer service performance: Relationships with individual, task, and leadership variables. *Human Performance*, *20*, 363-390.

Raub, S., & Liao, H. (2012). Doing the right thing without being told: Joint effects of initiative climate and general self-efficacy on employee proactive customer service performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97(3)*, 651–667.

Raykov, T. (2001). Estimation of congeneric scale reliability using covariance structure analysis with non-linear constraints. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology, 54*, 315-323.

Redmond, M. V. (2000). Cultural distance as a mediating factor between stress and intercultural communication competence. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 24(1)*, 151–159.

Reisinger and Turner (1998a). Cultural differences between Mandarin speaking tourists and Australian hosts and their impact on cross-cultural tourist host interaction. *Journal of Business Research, 42*, 175-187.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1998b). Cross-cultural differences in tourism: A strategy for tourism marketers. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 7(4)*, 79-106.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organisational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 698-714.

Riddle, D. (1992). Leveraging cultural factors in international service delivery. *Advances in Services Marketing and Management, 1*, 297-322.

Ridley, D. S., Schutz, P. A., Glanz, R. S., & Weinstein, C. E. (1992). Self-regulated learning: The interactive influence of metacognitive awareness and goal-setting. *Journal of Experimental Education, 60*, 293–306.

Rust, R. T., & Richard L. O. (1994). Service quality: Insights and managerial implications from the frontier. In: Rust, R. T.& Oliver, R. L. (Eds.) *Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice* (pp. 1-19). Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage Publications.

Rotundo, M., & Sackett, P. R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 66 – 80.

Ryan, G. W., & Bernard, H. R. (2003). Techniques to identify themes. *Field Methods, 15(1)*: 85-109.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*, 54–67.

Raykov, T. (1997). Estimation of composite reliability for congeneric measures. *Applied Psychological Measurement, 21*, 173-184.

Saarni, C. (1999). *The development of emotional competence*. New York, Guilford Press.

Sandelowski, M. (1995). Qualitative analysis: What it is and how to begin. *Research in Nursing and Health 18*: 371–75.

Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J. A. (2001). The science of training: A decade of progress. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 471–499.

Salanova, M., Agut, S., & Peiro´, J.M. (2005). Linking organisational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty: the mediation of service climate, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 1217-1227.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D.(1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality, 9*, 185-211.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007). *Research Methods for Business Students* (4th ed), England, Pearson Education Limited.

Savani, K., Morris, M. W., Naidu, N. V. R., Kumar, S., & Berlia, N. V. (2011). Cultural conditioning: Understanding interpersonal accommodation in India and the U.S. in terms of the modal characteristics of interpersonal influence situations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 100*, 84–102.

Scaduto, A., Lindsay, D., & Chiaburu, D. S. (2008). Leader influences on training effectiveness: Motivation and outcome expectation processes. *International Journal of Training and Development, 12*, 158–170.

Schlesinger, L. A., & Heskett, J. L. (1991). Breaking the cycle of failure in services, *Sloan Management Review, 32(3)*, 17-28.

Schmidt, A. M., & Ford, J. K. (2003). Learning within a learner control training environment: The interactive effects of goal orientation and meta-cognitive instruction on learning outcomes. *Personnel Psychology, 56*, 405– 429.

Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. (2000). Select on intelligence. In E. Locke (ed). *The Blackwell handbook of principles of organizational behaviour*, Oxford, UK, Blackwell.

Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M. G., Mayer, D. M., Saltz, J. L., & Niles-Jolly, K. (2005). Understanding organizationcustomer links in service settings. *Academy of Management Journal, 48*, 1017-1032.

Schneider, B., White, S., & Paul, M. (1998). Linking service climate and customer perceptions of service quality: Test of a causal model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 150–163.

Schumann, J. H., Wangenheim, F. V., Stringfellow, A., Yang, Z., Blazevic, V., Praxmarer, S., Shainesh, G., Komor, M., Shannon, R. M., & Jimenez (2010). Cross-cultural differences in the effect of received word-of-mouth referral in relational service exchange. *Journal of International Marketing 18(3)*, 62–80.

Schwab, D. P. (2005). *Research methods for organisational studies* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ, Erlbaum.

Schwandt, T.A. (1994). Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln, (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 118– 137). Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Schwandt, T. A. (2000). Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 189-213). Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Sciarra, D. (1999). The role of the qualitative researcher. In M. Kopala & L. A. Suzuki (Eds.), *Using qualitative methods in psychology* (pp. 37–48). Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Sen, A. (2004). Elements of a theory of human rights. *Philosophy and Public Affairs, 32(4)*, pp. 315–356.

Seymour, D. (2000). Emotional labour: a comparison between fast food and traditional service work. *International Journal of Hospitality Management 19 (2)*, 159–171.

Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., Gregersen, H., Black, J. S., & Ferzandi, L. A. (2006). You can take it with you: Individual differences and expatriate effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 109–125.

Sharma, P., Tam, J. L. M., & Kim, N. (2009). Demystifying intercultural service encounters: toward a comprehensive conceptual framework, *Journal of Service Research, Vol. 12(2)*, 227-242.

Sharma, P., Tam, J. L., & Kim, N. (2012), Intercultural service encounters (ICSE): an extended framework and empirical validation, *Journal of Services Marketing, 26 (7)*, 521–534.

Shingo, S. (1986). *Zero quality control: Source inspection and the poka-yoka system. Portland*, OR, Productivity Press.

Shoemaker, Stowe, & Lewis, Robert. (1999). Customer loyalty: The future of hospitality marketing. *Hospitality Management, 18*, 349.

Sijtsma, K. (2009). On the use, the misuse, and the very limited usefulness of Cronbach's alpha.*Psychometrika*. doi:10.1007/s11336-008-9101-0

Sinha, M. (1993). Winning Back Angry Customers, *Quality Progress, 26(11)*, 53-56.

Sinnott-Armstrong, W. (2003). Consequentialism. In Zalta, E. N. (ed.), *The Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy*. Available at http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/consequentialism/

Sizoo, S., Plank, R., Iskat, W., & Serrie, H. (2005). The effect of intercultural sensitivity on employee performance in cross-cultural service encounters, *The Journal of Services Marketing, 19(4)*, 245-55.

Sizoo, S. (2006). A comparison of the effect of intercultural sensitivity on employee performance in cross-cultural service encounters: London vs. Florida. *Journal of Euromarketing, 15*, 77-99.

Sitzmann, T., Bell, B. S., Kraiger, K., & Kanar, A. M. (2009). A Multilevel analysis of the effects of prompting self-regulation in technology-delivered instruction. *Personnel Psychology, 62*, 697–734.

Sitzmann, T. & Ely, K. (2011). A meta-analysis of self-regulated learning in work-related training and educational attainment: What we know and where we need to go. *Psychological Bulletin, 137*, 421–442.

Slack, N., Chambers, S., & Johnston, R. (2009). *Operations Management*, Harlow, Essex, Prentice Hall.

Smith, M. P. (1998). The Global City – whose social construct is it anyway? A comment on White. *Urban Affairs Review 33(4)*, 482–489.

Smith A. K., Bolton R. N., & Wagner J. (1999). A Model of customer satisfaction with service encounters involving failure and recovery. *Journal of Marketing Research, 36*, 356-372.

Sobel, M. E. (1982). Asymptotic intervals for indirect effects in structural equations models. In S. Leinhart (Ed.), *Sociological methodology* (pp. 290–312). San Francisco, Jossey-Bass

Solomon, M. R., Surprenant, C., Czepiel, J. A., & Gutman, E.G. (1985). A role theory perspective on dyadic interactions: the service encounter. *Journal of Marketing, 49(1)*, 99-111.

Spencer-Oatey, H. (2008). Face, (im)politeness, and rapport. In Spencer-Oatey, H. (Ed.), *Culturally speaking: Culture, communication, and politeness theory* (2nd ed) (pp. 11–47). London: Continuum.

Speier, C., & Frese, M. (1997). Generalized self-efficacy as a moderator between control and complexity at work and personal initiative: A longitudinal study in East Germany. *Human Performance, 10*, 171-192.

Spencer-Rodgers, J., & McGovern, T. (2002). Attitudes toward the culturally different: The role of intercultural communication barriers, affective responses, consensual stereotypes, and perceived threat. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 26*, 609–631.

Stephens, N., & Gwinner, K. P. (1998). Why don't some people complain? A cognitive – emotive process model of consumer complaint behaviour. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing science, 26(3),*172 – 89.

Stauss, B., & Mang, P. (1999). Culture shocks in inter-cultural service encounters. *Journal of Services Marketing, 13(4/5)*, 329 – 346.

Sternberg, R. J., & Detterman, D. K. (1986). *What is intelligence? Contemporary viewpoints on its nature and definition*. Norwood, NJ, Ablex.

Sternberg, R. J., & Lubart, T. I. (2002). *Defying the crowd: Cultivating creativity in a culture of conformity*. New York, NY, Free Press.

Sternberg, R. J., Forsythe, G. B., Hedlund, J., Horvath, J., Snook, S., & Williams, W. M., *et al*. (2000). *Practical intelligence in everyday life*. New York, Cambridge University Press.

Stevens, J. (1996). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum.

Stewart, D. M. (2003). Piecing together service quality: A framework for robust service. *Production and Operations Management, 12(2)*, 246-265.

Stewart, D. M., & Chase. R. B. (1999). The impact of human error on delivering service quality. *Production and Operations Management 8 (3)*, 240-264.

Stone-Romero, E., Stone, D. L., & Salas, E. (2003). The influence of culture on role conceptions and role behaviour in organisations. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 52*, 328–362.

Strauss, A. (1987). *Qualitative analysis*. New York, Cambridge University Press.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. London, Sage Publications.

Strauss, C., & Quinn, N. (1997). *A cognitive theory of cultural meaning*. Cambridge, UK, Cambridge University Press.

Srivastava, A., Locke, E. A., Judge, T. A., & Adams, J. W. (2010). Core self-evaluations as causes of satisfaction: The mediating role of seeking task complexity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77*, 255-265.

Sureshchandar, G. S., Rajendran, C., & Kamalanabhan, T. J. (2001) Customer perceptions of service quality: A critique. *Total Quality Management, 12(1)*, 111-125.

Susskind, A. M., Borchgrevink, C. P., Kacmar, K. M., & Brymer, R. A. (2000). Customer service employees' behavioural intentions and attitudes: An examination of construct validity and a path model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 19*, 53-77.

Susskind, A., Borchgrevink, C., & Kacmar, K. (2003). Customer service providers' attitudes relating to customer service and customer satisfaction in the customer-server exchange. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(1)*, 179-187.

Streubert, H. J., & Carpenter, D. R. (Eds.). (1999). *Qualitative research in nursing. Advancing the humanistic imperative* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia, Lippincott.

Sutton, W. (1967). Travel and understanding: Notes on the social structure of tourism. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology,* 8(2): 21 8-223.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). Boston, MA, Pearson.

Takeuchi, R., Tesluk, P. E., Yun, S., & Lepak, D. P. (2005). An integrative view of international experience. *Academy of Management Journal, 48(1)*, 85-100.

Tan, J. S. (2004). Cultural intelligence and the global economy. *Leadership in Action, 24 (5)*, 19-21.

Tansik, D. A., & Smith, W. L. (1991). Dimensions of job scripting in service organisations. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 2(1)*, 35–49.

Tax, S., Brown, S., & Chandrashekaran, M. (1998). Customer evaluations of service complaint experiences: Implications for relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 60*, 60-76.

Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1998). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource* (3rd ed.). New York, Wiley.

Teas. R. K. (1993). Expectations, performance evaluation, and consumer's perceptions of quality. *Journal of Marketing, 57*, 18-34.

Teas, K. R. (1994). Expectations as a comparison standard in measuring service quality: an assessment of a reassessment. *Journal of Marketing, Vol. 58*, 132-9.

Tharenou, P., Saks, A., & Moore, C. (2007). A review and critique of research on training and organisational-level outcomes. *Human Resource Management Review, 17*, 251–73.

Thomas, D. C., Au, K., & Ravlin, E. C. (2003). Cultural variation and the psychological contract. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 24*, 451-471.

Thomas, D. C., & Inkson, K. (2004). *Cultural intelligence: People skills for global business*. San Francisco, Berrett-koehler.

Tooby, J., & Cosmides, L. (1992). The psychological foundations of culture. In J. Barkow, L. Cosmides, & J. Tooby (Eds.), *The Adapted Mind: Evoutionary Psychology and the Generation of Culture* (pp. 19-136). New York, Oxford University Press.

Tierney, P., & Farmer, S. M. (2002). Creative self-efficacy: Potential antecedents and relationship to creative performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*, 1137–1148.

Triandis, H. C. (1994). *Culture and social behaviour*. New York, McGraw Hill.

Triandis, H. C. (2006). Cultural intelligence in organisations. *Group and Organisation Management, 31*, 20–26.

Tsang, N. (2007). *Measuring service and service culture in the tourism industry*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

Tsang, N., & Ap, J. (2007). Tourists' perceptions of relational quality service attributes: A cross-cultural study. *Journal of Travel Research, 45*, 355–363.

Tse, E. C. Y., & Ho, S. (2009). Service quality in the hotel industry: When cultural contexts matter. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 50(4)***,** 460-474.

Usunier, J. -C. (2003). Cultural aspects of international business negotiation. In P. N. Ghauri, & J. -C. Usunier (Eds.), *International business negotiation* (2nd ed.) (pp. 97–135). Oxford, Pergamon.

Usunier, J.-C., & Lee, J. A. (2009). Marketing across cultures (5th ed.). Retrieved from http://vig.pearsoned.co.uk/catalog/academic/product/0,1744,027371394,00.htm

Utley, J. S., Hensley, R. L., & Dobie, K. (2011). Safety in service operations: A front-line perspective. *Journal of Service Science, 4(1)*, 31-37.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Koh, C. (2008). Development and validation of the CQS: The cultural intelligence scale. In Ang, S. & Van Dyne, L. (Eds.), *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications* (pp. 16–38). Armonk, NY, ME Sharpe

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., Ng, K. Y., Rockstuhl, T., Tan, M. L., & Koh, C. (2012). Sub-dimensions of the four factor model of cultural intelligence: Expanding the conceptualization and measurement of cultural intelligence. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 6(4)*, 295-313.

van Emmerik, H., Gardner, W. L., Wendt, H., & Fischer, D. (2010). Associations of culture and personality with McClelland's motives: A cross-cultural study of managers in 24 countries. *Group and Organization Management, 35*, 329-367.

Victor, D. (1992). *International business communication*. New York, Harper-Collins.

Victorino, L. & Bolinger, A. R. (2012). Scripting Employees: An Exploratory Analysis of Customer Perceptions. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 53(3)***,** 196-206.

Vogt, C. A., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1995). Tourists and retailers' perceptions of services. *Annals of Tourism Research, 22(4)*, 763-780.

Wahab, S. (2003). Global regions futures: Middle East. In: Lockwood, A. & Medlik, S. (eds). *Tourism and hospitality in the 21st Century* (pp.163-171). Elsevier, Oxford.

Wall, E. A. & Berry, L. L. (2007). The combined effects of the physical environment and employee behavior on customer perception of restaurant service quality. *Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 48(1)*, 59-69.

Wall, T. D., Cordery, J. L., & Clegg, C. W. (2002). Empowerment, performance, and operational uncertainty. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 51*, 146 –169.

Walker, D. M. (2003). *Doing business internationally: The guide to cross-cultural success*. New York, NY, McGraw-Hill.

Ward, C., Fischer, R., Lam, F. S. Z. & Hall, L. (2009). The convergent, discriminant and incremental validity of the scores on a self-report measure of cultural intelligence. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 69*, 85–105.

Warhurst, C., & Nickson, D. (2007). Employee experience of aesthetic labour in retail and hospitality. *Work, Employment & Society, 21(1)*, 103–120.

Watkins, L., & Gnoth, J. (2011). The value orientation approach to understanding culture. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38(4)*, 1274-1299.

Way, S. A., Sturman, M. C., & Raab, C. (2010). What matters more? Contrasting the effects of job satisfaction and service climate on hotel food and beverage managers' job performance. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly 51*, 379-97.

Welbourne, T. M., Johnson, D. E., & Erez, A. (1998). The role-based performance scale: Validity analysis of a theory-based measure. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*, 540-555.

Werner, O., & Schoepfle, G. M. (1987). *Systematic fieldwork*. Newbury Park, CA, Sage.

Westphal, M., Seivert, N. H., & Bonanno, G. A. (2010). Expressive flexibility. *Emotion, 10*, 92–100.

Wiggins, J. S., & Trapnell, P. D. (1996). A dyadic-interactional perspective on the five-factor model. In J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), *The five-factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 88-162). New York, Guilford Press.

Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation. *Contemporary. Educational Psychology, 25*, 68–81.

Winsted, K. F. (1997). The service experience in two cultures: A behavioural perspective. *Journal of Retailing 73 (3)*, 337-360.

Wright, B. E., & Kim, S. (2004). Participation's influence on job satisfaction. *Review of Public Personnel Administration 24*, 18–40.
Wong, O. M. A., Dean, A. M., & White, C. J. (1999). Analysing service quality in the hospitality industry. *Managing Service Quality, 9 (2)*, 136-143.

Wyckoff, D. D. (1984). New tools for achieving service quality. *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, 78-91.

Yilmaz, I. (2009). Measurement of service quality in the hotel industry. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research, 20 (2)*, 375-386.

Youngdahl, W. E., & Kellogg, D. L. (1997). The relationship between service customers' quality assurance behaviours, satisfaction, and effort: A cost of quality perspective. *Journal of Operations Management, 15(1)*, 19-32.

Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (2004). Beyond valence in customer dissatisfaction: A review and new findings on behavioural responses to regret and disappointment in failed services. *Journal of Business Research, 57 (4)*, 445–55.

Zhang, J., Beatty, S. E., & Walsh, G. (2008), Review and future directions of cross-cultural consumer services research, *Journal of Business Research, 61*, 211-24.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1988). Communication and control processes in the delivery of service quality. *Journal of Marketing, 52*: 35-48.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1993). The nature and determinants of customer expectations of service. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science 21*, 1-12.

Zeithaml, V. A., & Bitner, M. J. (2000). *Services marketing*. Boston, MA, McGraw-Hill.

Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A. & Berry, L. L. (1985). Problems and strategies in services marketing. *Journal of Marketing 49*, 22-46.

Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A., & Berry, L. L. (1990). *Delivering quality service: Balancing customer perceptions and expectations*. New York, Free Press.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1993). The nature and determinants of customer expectations of service. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 21 (1)*, 1–12.

Zemke, R. (1993). The art of service recovery: Fixing broken customers and keeping them on your side. In: Schcuing, E. & Christopher. W (Eds). *The service quality handbook* (pp. 463-476). San Francisco, AMACOM.

Appendices

Appendix 1 Interview aide-memoires

Hotel front line employees

1. How do you deal with guests from different cultures and unfamiliar cultures; could you please explain?
2. To what extent are you aware that you use appropriate knowledge when providing service to guests from different cultures?
3. When serving guests from different cultures how you do know that you are dealing with them in a correct manner?
4. To what extent are you knowledgeable of: a) the legal and economic systems, b) marriage rules and rituals, and c) crafts and arts of the cultures where the guests you serve come from?
5. How do you communicate verbally and non-verbally with guests who speak different languages?
6. Describe your feeling when you are serving guests from different and unfamiliar cultures?
7. Describe how you deal with the stresses of adjusting to serving guests from a different culture?

Interview aide-memoire

Hotel managers/ supervisors

1. Could you please describe how your front line employee (e.g. employee XYZ) approach and perform his/ her task?
2. When serving the foreign guest how does your employee treat them?
3. In serving the guests, describe how your employee is presented and dressed, and what does he/she do when there is noise, light or other problems?

Interview aide-memoire

Hotel foreign guests

1. In your view, how is the employee presented and what is her/his service characteristics and mannerism?
2. What do you think of the employee's treatment of you when they provide you with service (for example, providing the service as promised, in time, helpful, informative)?
3. To what extent do you think the employee responds to your requests?
4. Are you assured by the skills of the employee and the service he/she provides you; please explain?
5. Does the employee understand your needs? Please tell me how?

Appendix 2 Questionnaires

2.1 Cultural intelligence self-report questionnaire

Dear employee,
My name is Elham Alshaibani and I am a PhD Researcher at Bucks New University in Backinghamshire, UK. As part of my study, I am conducting a research on the relationship between employees' cultural intelligence and foreign guests' perception of service quality in hotels in Karbala. This questionnaire is **not under any kind of funding or sponsorship**, and the results will only be used for academic purposes. **All responses remain strictly anonymous and confidential.** Please read carefully the instructions at the beginning of each section, answer all the questions as accurately as possible, it should not take you more than 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Please put the completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope, and return it to the researcher. I greatly appreciate your prompt response. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

عزيزي الموظف
اسمي الهام الشيباني انا طالبة دكتوراه في جامعة باكنكهامشاير في برطانيا كجزء من متطلبات الدراسة اجري بحثي في العلاقة بين الذكاء الثقافي للموظف وانطباع الزبائن الاجانب في جودة الخدمة المقدمة لهم في الفنادق في مدينة كربلاء. هذه الاستبانة غير مدعومة ماديا من اي جهة, والنتائج ستستخدم لاغراض الدراسة فقط. الاجابات ستكون سرية وغير معلنة.
رجاءا اقراء بعناية هذه الاستمارة من البداية واجب على كل الاسئلة بالدقة الممكنة. الاجابة على كل الاسئلة سوف لن تستغرق اكثر من عشرة دقائق.
رجاءا ضع الاستبانة المملوئة في الظرف المرفق واعدها الى الباحثة.. وسأكون شاكرة لاجاباتك ولتعاونك معي في هذا المجال.

Section one

About you (emoployee) الموظف

Please state: رجاءا اكتب
Your Age: ..... عمرك
Your Gender: ..... جنسك
Your education: ..... تحصيلك الدراسي

Section Two

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities. Select the answer that BEST describes you AS YOU REALLY ARE **اقرأ كل سؤال واختار الاجابة التي توصف قابلياتك الشخصية بأقرب شكل ممكن**	**1-strongly Disagree** **اتفق بشدة** **1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5-strongly agree** **لااتفق بشدة** **5**
1. I am conscious of cultural knowledge I use when interacting with guests with different cultural backgrounds. لدي الوعي الثقافي عندما اتعامل مع الضيوف من مختلف الثقافات والخلفيات					
2. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions. لدعي وعي بالمعرفة الثقافية التي استخدمها في التعامل مع ضيوف من مختلف الثقافات في آن واحد					
3. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me. اكيف معرفتي الثقافية في التعامل مع ضيوف من ثقافات غير مؤلوفة بالنسبة لي					
4. I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures. اراجع صحة معرفتي الثقافية عندما اتعامل مع ضيوف من ثقافات مختلفة					
5. I know the social position of people from other cultures. انا اعرف الحالة الاجتماعية للضيوف من ثقافات اخرى					
6. I know the religious customs and habits of other cultures. انا اعرف العادات والتقاليد الدينية للضيوف من ثقافات اخرى					
7. I know the norms and customs of other cultures. انا اعرف اعراف الضيوف من ثقافات اخرى					
8 I know the arts and crafts of people from other cultures. انا اعرف الحرف الفنية والمهنية للضيوف من الثقافات الاخرى					
9. I know the rules (e.g., grammar) of other languages. انا اعرف لغات من ثقافات اخرى وقواعدها					
10. I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in other cultures انا اعرف تعابير السلوك غير اللفظية للضيوف من ثقافات اخرى					
11. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures. انا استمتع عندما اتعامل مع ضيوف من ثقافات اخرى					
12. I enjoy coexisting with people from cultures that are unfamiliar to me. انا احب ال التعايش مع ناس من ثقافات غير مؤلوفة لي					
13. I am confident that I can socialize with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me. انا واثق من قدرتي على تكوين علاقات اجتماعية مع اناس من ثقافات غير مؤلوفة					
14. I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture. انا واثق بقدرتي على التعود على متطلبات التسوق من مختلف الثقافات					
15. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me. انا متأكد من استطاعتي في التكيف في التعامل مع الظغوطات من الثقافة الجديدة بالنسبة لي					
16. I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it. انا اغير السلوك اللفضي (اللهجة, نغمة الصوت) عندما يتطلب الامر في التعامل مع ناس من مختلف الثقافات					
17. I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.					

انـا اغيـر سـلوكي الغيـر لفضـي عنـدما يتطلـب الامـر فـي مواقـف ثقافـات مختلفـة					
18. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations. انـا اتوقف واصـمت بشـكل مختلـف ليناسـب المواقـف مـع انـاس مـن مختلـف الثقافـات					
19. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it. انا اغير سرعة التحدث عندما يتطلب الامر في المواقف لاناس من ثقافات مختلفة					
20. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it. انا اغير تعابير وجهي عندما يتطلب الامر في التعامل مع اناس من ثقافات مختلفة					

2.2 Employee performance questionnaire

Dear immediate supervisor/ manager,
My name is Elham Alshaibani and I am a PhD Researcher at Bucks New University in Buckinghamshire, UK. As part of my study, I am conducting a research on relationship between front line employees' cultural intelligence and foreign guests' perception of service quality in hotels in Karbala. This questionnaire is **not under any kind of funding or sponsorship**, and the results will only be used for academic purposes. **All responses remain strictly confidential.** Please read carefully the instructions at the beginning of each section, answer all the questions as accurately as possible, it should not take you more than 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Please put it in the enclosed envelope, and return it to me. I greatly appreciate your prompt response. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

عزيزي المدير المباشر
اسمي الهام الشيباني انا طالبة دكتوراه في جامعة باكنكهامشاير في برطانيا كجزء من متطلبات الدراسة اجري بحثي في العلاقة بين الذكاء الثقافي للموظف وانطباع الزبائن الاجانب في جودة الخدمة المقدمة لهم في الفنادق في مدينة كربلاء. هذه الاستبانة غير مدعومة ماديا من اي جهة, والنتائج ستستخدم لاغراض الدراسة فقط. الاجابات ستكون سرية وغير معلنة.
رجاءا اقراء بعناية هذه الاستمارة من البداية واجب على كل الاسئلة بالدقة الممكنة. الاجابة على كل الاسئلة سوف لن تستغرق اكثر من عشرة دقائق.
رجاءا ضع الاستبانة المملوئة في الظرف المرفق واعدها الى الباحثة. وسأكون شاكرة لاجاباتك ولتعاونك معي في هذا المجال.

Section one

About you (manager)

Please state: رجاءا اجب

Your Age: ..... عمرك

Your Gender: ..... جنسك

Your Education: ..... تحصيلك الدراسي

Section Two

Task, Treatment and Tangible Measurement

Throughout your working relationship with this employee. Please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate box. **رجاءا قيم الموظف حسب المعايير المحدده**	**اطلاقا Never 5**	**نادرا seldom 4**	**بعض الاوقات sometime 3**	**غالبا often 2**	**دائما always 1**
Task performance					
.1 Doing his/her work incorrectly عمله/عملها غير صحيح					
.2 Doing his/her work not as requested يؤدي/تؤدي العمل ليس كما المطلوب					
.3 Doing his/her work in the wrong order يؤدي/تؤدي العمل بالطلب الخاطئ					
.4 Doing his/her work too slowly يؤدي/تؤدي العمل ببطئ					
.5 Doing his/her work impromptly يؤدي/تؤدي العمل ليس بالوقت المضبوط					
.6 Doing his/her work without priorities يؤدي/تؤدي العمل بدون اولوية					
.7 Doing his/her work without diligence يؤدي/تؤدي العمل بدون اجتهاد					
.8 Doing his/her work without mastery يؤدي/تؤدي العمل بدون براعة					
.9 His/her work performance is poor اداءه/ادائها في العمل ردئ					
.10 His/her work performance is not inspiring اداءه/ادائها فى العمل ليس فيه الهام					
11.His/her work is not assuring عمله/عملها غير مطمئن					
12.His/her work performance does not make you feel safe اداءه/ ادائها في العمل لايعطي شعور بالامان					
13. Doing his/ her work without energy يؤدي/تؤدي العمل بدون طاقة					
14. Doing his/her work without concern for quality يؤدي/تؤدي العمل بدون اهتمام بجودته					
Treatment performance					
15. He/she ignores the guest's presence هو/هى يتجاهل حضور الضيف					
16. He/she does not behave politely with guests هو/هي لايتصرف بأدب مع الضيف					
17. He/she does not treat guests professionally هو/هي لايتعامل مع الضيف بحرفية					
18. He/she does not interact with guests appropriately هو/هي لايتفاعل مع الضيف بالشكل الملائم					
19. He/she does not show appreciation of guests هو/هي لايضهر تقديره للضيف					

20. He/she does not listen to the guests هو/هي لايستمع الى الضيف					
21. He/she gets bothered when serving guests هو/هي ينزعج عندما يقدم خدمة للضيف					
22. He/she talks in unfriendly tone to guests هو/هي لايتحدث بطريقة ودية مع الضيف					
23. He/she grumbles when serving guests هو/هي يتأفف عندما يقدم خدمة للضيف					
24. He/she complains when required to serve هو/هي يتشكى عندما يطلب منه ان يقدم خدمة					
25. He/she does not show courtesy to guests هو/هي ليس مجاملا مع الضيوف					
26. He/she does not demonstrate interpersonal skills هو/هي لايمتلك مهارة التعامل مع الاشخاص					
27. He/she does not show positive attitude هو/هي لايظهر مواقفه بشكل ايجابي					
Tangibles					
28. He/she does not use clean facilities هو/هى لايستخدم معدات خدمة نظيفة					
29. His/her cloths are not clean ملابسه/ملابسها غير نظيفة					
30. He/she does not control noise هو/هي لايسيطر على الضوضاء					
31. He/she suffers from body odour هو/هي يعاني من رائحة جسم كريها					
32. He/she is not appropriately presented هو/هي مضهره غير لائق					
33. He/she is sloppy هو/هي غير متزن					
34. His/her movement is not dignified حركته/حركتها غير مبجل					

2.3 Service quality questionnaire

Dear guest,
My name is Elham Alshiabani I am a PhD Researcher at Bucks New University in Buckinghamshire, UK. As part of my study, I am conducting a research on relationship between front line employees' cultural intelligence and foreign guests' perception of service quality in hotels in Karbala, Iraq. This questionnaire is **not under any kind of funding or sponsorship**, and the results will only be used for academic purposes. **All responses remain strictly confidential.**
Please read carefully the instructions at the beginning of each section, answer all the questions as accurately as possible, it should only take less than 10 minutes to complete it. Please put the completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope, and return it to me. I greatly appreciate your prompt response. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

عزيزي الضيف
اسمي الهام الشيباني انا طالبة دكتوراه في جامعة باكنكهامشاير في برطانيا كجزء من متطلبات الدراسة اجري بحثي في العلاقة بين الذكاء الثقافي للموظف وانطباع الزبائن الاجانب في جودة الخدمة المقدمة لهم في الفنادق في مدينة كربلاء. هذه الاستبانة غير مدعومة ماديا من اي جهة, والنتائج ستستخدم لاغراض الدراسة فقط. الاجابات ستكون سرية وغير معلنة.
رجاءا اقراء بعناية هذه الاستمارة من البداية واجب على كل الاسئلة بالدقة الممكنة. الاجابة على كل الاسئلة سوف لن تستغرق اكثر من عشرة دقائق.
رجاءا ضع الاستبانة المملوئة في الظرف المرفق واعدها الى الباحثة. وسأكون شاكرة لاجاباتك ولتعاونك معي في هذا المجال.

Section one

About you (Customer)

Please state: رجاءا اجب
Your Age: ..... عمرك
Your Gender: ..... جنسك
Your Country: ..... بلدك
Your Education: ..... تحصيلك الدراسي

Section Two

SERVPERF Scale

The score level are described as 5 = highest, 4 = high, 3 = moderate, 2 = low and 1 = lowest

Survey of your perceptions towards service quality of employee …….. based on your experiences as a customer of the …… hotel. Please put a tick (/) in a box, which mostly explains your attitudes. **انطباعك بجودة الخدمة للموظف ..... مرتكزة على خبرتك كزبون في فندق.....** **رجاءا ضع علامة(/) في الحقل الملائم لك**	**Level of perception** **مستوى الانطباع**				
	1	2	3	4	**5**
1.The employee dresses appropriately الموظف يرتدي بشكل ملائم					
2. The employee's uniform is clean. الزي الرسمي للموظف نظيف					
3. The employee provides the services with smile. الموظف يقدم الخدمة بابتسامة					
4.The employee has elegant appearance الموظف مضهره انيق					
5. The employee can provide you the services as promised الموظف يستطيع ان يجهز الخدمة كما وعد					
6. The employee provides you with accurate information الموظف س يقدم معلومات دقيقة					
7. The employee performs the service right at the first time الموظف يؤدي الخدمة بشكل صحيح من اول طلب					
8. The employee offers you some help الموظف يقدم لك بعض المساعدات					
9. The employee tells you exactly when services will be provided الموظف يخبرك بشكل مظبوط وقت تقديم الخدمة					
10. The employee gives you prompts service الموظف س يعطيك الخدمه بالوقت المضبوط					
11. The employee is willing to help you الموظف مستعد لمساعدتك					
12. The employee has product knowledge of hotel information الموظـــف لديـــه معرفـــة بالمعلومـــات الخاصـــة بخـــدمات الفنـــدق					
13. The employee has the required skill to perform service الموظف س لديه المهارات المطلوبة لاداء الخدمة					
14. The employee speaks with you by using an appropriate address form الموظف يتحدث معك باستخدام المخاطبة الصحيحة					
15. The employee is trustworthy الموظف جدير بالثقة					
16. The employee makes you feels safe when staying at the hotel الموظف س يجعلك تشعر بالامان عند اقامتك في الفندق					
17. The employee is able to communicate with you in your language الموظف قادر على التعامل معك بلغتك					
18. The employee is able to communicate effectively with you الموظف س قادر على التعامل معك بفاعلية					

19. The employee shows personal attention to you الموظف يبين اهتمامه الشخصي بك					
20. The employee knows your specific needs الموظف يعرف حاجاتك الشخصية					

Appendix 3 Data, coding and relating to the literature

3.1 Transcribed raw data from the interviews

Pilot Interview Transcripts (March 2011):

1) Hotel 1 VN850009

- Owner/Manager 1 (M, 46, local, also currently studying for a Masters degree in Lebanon) - 4 star hotel

R: What are the guests' nationalities, could you explain?
OM: Bahrain people, for example, come and stay us. Usually, these people prefer to bring their servants with them, and we rent to them the restaurant and the kitchen and we provide for them all what they need. They do this, because they want someone who knows how to serve them. Gulf people are generally like that, they like to bring their servants with them.

The Lebanese guests, mostly, find that our food unsuitable for their pallet. So, we rent them the hotel's restaurant and the kitchen, to do whatever they want.

R: So, what is the role of your workers here?
OM: Yeh, we change bed sheets, clean the bathrooms, clean the rooms, bring their grocery to, and the rest of the employees go around keeping eye on things.
When the Bahrainis arrive with their servants, I know I don't have to do more than the cleaning, and of course I have to have a maintenance person, and a receptionist, and another employee to look after whatever needed. This is what I generally do when I have people from the Gulf.

As for the Iranians, we cater for all their required services, but they nag and complain quite a lot, although, we cook Iranian food for them.

You asked me the nationalities of our guests. We receive Pakistanis, and generally people from all the Gulf states, Iranians, and Lebanese.

R: Do you face problems with customers who maybe dissatisfied, and how do you deal with them?
OM: The problems that occur are usually outside and before they reach the hotel; for example transport problems. The Gulf or the Lebanese visitors, in the high season, cannot enter the City in their cars or coaches, as you know for security reasons. They have to leave their cars at the City's borders, about 15km-30 km away, and rent a carriage pushed by a person. They pay $300-$400 for the carriage. So, the guests arrive at the hotel unhappy, and they pour their anger on the hotel staff, as it is the last abode of their journey. We, in this case provide all the available services; I will not allow the generator to stop in order that the guests feel comfortable, even though there is 6 or 7 hours power cut. We are providing 4 generators; to ensure that the hotel will not be without power for more than 2 minutes.

R: You did not mention Iraqi guests?
OM: No, the Iraqi guests we do not have a problem with, because they know the situation.

R: That means that your guests come from different countries; how do deal with them when you provide them with service?
OM: We have to satisfy them and go along with what they wish. For example, we know that the Lebanese would want dates; I have arrangements with some peasants I know to provide them with different types of good quality dates. They also like sweet; I make these available. Generally, the Lebanese people are educated and cultured, so dealing with them is nice. The difficult dealing is with the Iranians; language for example, although we have a few employees who know Iranian language, but the rest don't.

As for the Buhra (rich Islamic sect from India) people, they talk English, and we attempt to deal with them in this language as much as we are able to. These are good people, a cultured class, with high manners, and we attempt to satisfy them any way we can. For example, we offer them free cups of tea as part of our Arab hospitality.

R: If the rooms are full, and some of your usual guest arrived unexpectedly; what do you do?
OM: I attempt to contact friends, owners of other hotels, and book accommodation for them; I do not want them to get annoyed.

- Managing director (M, 52, local, vocational diploma holder) of same 3/4 star hotel

R: If your customers depart unsatisfied, what do you do?
MD: We are accustomed to the Iranians; they usually say that the hotel, all of it, is not good; we are accustomed to that. We get hold of them as they leave and ask them to tell us point after point what is not good. They say, either the television, or the fridge, or hot water, or the heater. But this is the nature of the Iranians; the smallest of things that go wrong, and they shout this place is 'Kharab' (ruins) - a big, bad word in our culture. Or they say it is 'kaseef' (filthy) for a small spot. In the beginning we used to get annoyed, but we got used to them. We started to respond by agreeing with them, "you are right", "whatever you say", with a smile. And of course we tell our worker: "you are not allowed to argue with the guest; if you can solve the problem, solve it. If you cannot, direct the problem to me".

R: What about the speed of your workers' response?
MD: Before the visitors arrive, we prepare everything; we prepare the room fully, and the bathroom. So, there is no problem, we are in control of the situation. But sometimes, arriving families, their children soil the bed sheets; in these cases our response is immediate; we change the sheets. Most of our visitors are Iranians and they are here all year round; they are nicknamed in the market as the "gold Lira" or "dollar", it keeps its value.

R: Do your guests keep coming to your hotel?
MD: Yes, always, our customers come to us; because the customers when they like a place, they don't just like how clean it is. They also like being received by the hotel manager. For example, some hotels are not very clean but the customers like to come to the place again because they like the manager. For example, you go to store whose keeper's face is grim and unwelcoming, even if you like the good you will not buy it from that store. You go to another store, whose keeper is friendly, with a smiling face and chats to you; even if the good is more expensive you will buy it.

R: Do your employees change their behaviour when dealing with different customers?
MD: We inform the employees that a visitor or a group of visitors from a specific place with such and such characteristics will be arriving; of course we do not have to tell them if the visitors are Iraqis. Our meetings with our employees are frequent and on a daily basis; we train them during their work about how to deal with various guests. For example, today we have a group of Iranian visitors who will be travelling to Najaf (45 miles) and back. During this period, I will have a meeting with my employees on how to deal with these visitors.

R: If an unexpected problem occurs, how do your employees deal with it?
MD: I have instructed them to placate the customer, "bring them water", "calm them", say "good words". For example, unexpected things happen, like thieving. From our side, we do not bring workers from the street; we take their address, we ask the locality official about them, we ask for guarantors. Working in a hotel is like marriage, because, there must be high degree of confidence in the worker.

R: How about the skill factor; is it required?
MD: Of course, a skilled worker is immediately snatched. At the same time we ask him, "where did you work before", "what is the reason for leaving your work"; and we afterwards also make contacts to check the truth of what he said. Even if he has the skills and expertise but turned out

to be a thief, I reject him. Most of our guests are women; the most important thing is not to be too close or too near to them, or to have conversations with them. And I as manager go around, there and back and watch my employees.

R: What if a woman guest, herself wants to talk to employee or worker?
MD: There is no such thing, we do not allow it because it creates problems; we enforce this issue with our workers, and the worker himself is trained, he has to be clever, he must avoid women visitors but at the same time gives her the impression that he is serving her. He must pay safeguard his reputation and that of the hotel. And the worker is watched in all the hotel corners, and he knows this. In addition we installed cameras.
Yes, among them there are some women who like to be complemented and to be courteous to; who emphasise on the worker that there is a red line not to be crossed. For example, if in the hotel court, one of the female guests smiled or shared a laugh with one of the workers; this normal; but if she called him to the room to attend to some repair, the worker must leave the guest room door wide open, finish his task and leave. And sometimes we bring a third person to stand at the door. We have quite a lot of experience in these things.

The problem with the Iraqi worker is that he is arrogant, he feels that he is above doing some of the services; cleaning the bathroom is not something he would do. This is a big problem, if he made a mistake or did something wrong, and you try to advise him; he will say: “could you settle my account, I want to leave”. The Iraqi worker requires a lot of time off work; one day his father dies, one day his mother dies, another, his brother dies; or so and so relative is ill; one day some relative broke his hand, another, his leg. The whole month, nearly fifty percent of it is lost in time off work.
In his first week of work, he asks for a loan; 3 to 4 months later he buys a new mobile. This is the Iraqi worker’s problem with us; and as such his contact with the guest will be little. And we are obliged to train the worker because there are no courses in training in tourism. We teach him how to deal with the guests. And the mood of the worker also plays a role; if he is married; one day, his son is ill; one day, his wife is not well.

R: The worker who responds and does tasks quickly, do you reward him?
MD: Yes, of course, so that we motivate the others. We had a case; one started as a worker, then we promoted him to the status of permanent employee; he desired to study, we helped materially; he finished his secondary school, then his degree in a college; all his expenses we paid, because he was a good employee. We even provided him with a room in the hotel where he lived. And we did all this because he was distinguished in his work. He has left us and now working for the local authority and until now he contacts us and we have relationship with him. He has good characteristics; for example, he smiles to the customer, he looks after the customer; “what he needs, what he doesn’t need”; and he deals with different customers; this person you feel comfortable with.

R: It is required of you to make all your employees like this person; what is your role?
MD: But I told you, he works 4 or 5 months and he buys a new mobile and leaves us. And if he remains in his work, he keeps busying himself between the mobile and ‘blottoth’. This is the problem with the Iraqi labour. For example, if he saved $1000 and borrowed few fils (coins) from here and there, he bought a car and left work. Or, they go and find work in the police or the army. That’s why the hotels are seeking to import foreign labour, because he does not ask for days off, staying with you all the year; once a week he is permitted to contact his family for free; and the foreign worker never rests. The foreign workers are now everywhere, even in retail business; and in garage workshops, and you see him very clean despite the nature of his work. He responds quickly to the customer. But also the customer also likes to see the manager going round; so that he does not say that the manager is sitting behind the desk, doing nothing.
And sometimes, the customer himself is patient if the service is not provided quickly; this may be due to a religious reason, although, some visitors don’t come for religious reasons but to accompany the others. We always give our mobile numbers so that they can contact us anywhere; one way of satisfying the customer.

The worker must always be watched, because the moment you leave him, he messes up; and as long as he feels that the manager is watching him he will do his duty.
Some of the service we offer; we allow the guest to make international call for free, sometimes it takes more than 30 minutes. The guests like this service very much. Sometimes, when they gather in the lobby, we serve them with tea or juice for free. Of course, this is the natural characteristics of the people of Karbala; serving the visitor is mostly free; our fathers instilled this in us, and the place gave birth to this idea.

R's observation:
At that moment a man entered asking for work; the manager's immediate response was: "no, no, we do not need any workers". I asked the manager, why did you not call him and talked to him to discover his abilities. His answer was "currently, we do not need workers; and like this person we see many every day. And I told you, he will stay with us for 2 days, and leaves work".

2) Hotel 2 (VN850011)

- Manager (M, 40, graduate)

R: What is your style of dealing with guests from different nationalities?
M: It must be the same service, there are no preferences. This is because most of our guests visit here for religious purposes; therefore, we treat all of them the same way.

R: So, don't they come over here for the purposes of trade, investment or tourism?
M: Yes, but less than those who come for religious purposes. "You come from a certain country, another woman comes from another country; treatment is the same".

R: So, what about the background of the visitor or tourist? More precisely is the Iranian visitor the same as the one from the Gulf?
M: Certainly not; we must deal positively with all; this means the Iranian, who arrives here for religious or commercial purposes, what is important that he leaves us satisfied. Although, the British investor who visits us must be accorded special treatment. Importantly, all should leave satisfied.
R: What is your understanding of the term, "satisfied" and how do you achieve it?
M: The hotel services in general; cleanliness and services whether inside or outside the hotel.
R: Ah, even outside the hotel?
M: Yes, for example, buying things for him, or guiding him.

R: Does the worker who works for you have experience in dealing with the visitors?
M: "Frankly, frankly, the labour that exists in Iraq, although I cannot generalise, is of low quality, that's why, lately we started to bring foreign labour". Here, we have central management; things that happen in the hotel, the manager must know about; any service I must know about, I do not depend on the workers, I direct them.

R: Some visitors like to be venerated, some are simple, others like to talk a lot, how do you deal with them?
M: We deal with everyone according to what they like, but the visitor should not cross his limit.
R: It is possible that, within the values of the visitor, what he does is normal, but for you he has crossed his limits, how do you deal with that?
M: Also true; we take this in consideration. It is possible, that the Iranian visitor, for example, uses words he thinks they are normal, while we consider them as disdainful, or undermines our dignity. But this behaviour, in time we got used to.

R: Do you workers speak Iranian?
M: Few of them; that is why I have centralised things.

R: What about the English language?
M: Yes, here two of us speak English; the second person is better than me in English, and I am better than him in Iranian. And the Arab visitor speaks our language, "so it is solved", there is no problem with language. We are forced to employ the foreign worker.

R: Why, is he better than the Iraqi worker?
M: Yes, of course better; in service performance, he stays for years; while the Iraqi worker, come to us for work and explains his difficult living condition; we give him work, a short period and he leaves. After you have spent months teaching etiquette, the way offer service; just like that he leaves work. In my view, the main reason why tourism is not developed in Iraq.
R: do you think you pay the Iraqi worker good wages?
M: Yes, but they are Iraqis, they are not content.

R: Currently, how many workers do you have?
M: 12
R: How many rooms?
M: 34
R: Are they enough?
M: Yes enough.

R: Is there a difference in performance from one worker to the other?
M: The workers work harder for the tips, because if they offer the visitor more service, e will give them. But we emphasise on them not to ask for tips. If the visitor likes he will give if he wishes. Generally, most visitors who tip the workers are the Iraqi visitors because they leave us comfortable and satisfied more than the foreign visitors.

R: You, as the hotel manager, what service does your hotel offer that differentiate it from other hotels?
M: Direct service to the customer; for example, the visitor wants cake, we go out and buy it for him; or other things the visitor wants, which are not part of our service, we do it for him. For example, we call the doctor for him.

R: on religious occasions, if the visitors want to celebrate in the hotel, can they do that?
M: Yes, possible, for example, the women on the 2nd floor wanted a religious recitation, we permitted it; this is normal according to our values. They liked the place and said, next year we must come to this hotel. In contrast to other hotels which refuse to offer this service?

R: Do you provide some local artefacts, for example, beads, praying stones, and others?
M: Yes, look at this place (pointing to a corner), it is especially for these things; rings for males and females, beads, stones, etc. This thing I also am responsible for, because originally I worked as goldsmith, ha ha ha (he laughs).

R: Did you face problems with the visitor?
M: Yes, problems occur and get solved. For example, the Iranian says this place is filthy (kaseef), and he does not feel that this is an insult, while we consider it as a big insult.

R: Do you have customers who come to your hotel every year?
M: Yes, yes, plenty; the Gulf in general.

R: I heard that the Gulf person brings his servants with him, does this happen here in your hotel?
M: Before the person from the Gulf used to bring his servant or maid. Presently, no, it doesn't happen. Yes, it happens in some hotels, but our visitors know our service.

R: Are there currently visitors who I can talk to?
M: Yes, we have a female tourist, she is out now; she always comes to us and likes this hotel. You can talk to her, and she has Iraqi origin, you can have a talk with her.

R: Is there anything else you would like to mention?
M: Yes, there is a topic which we have not touched. The subject of tourism is very important, the majority of the countries in the world pay attention to it, and develop it to the better, except in Iraq, progress in tourism does not exist. For example, when the visitor comes, he forms a general impression, not just about the hotel; he considers everything else he sees in the street.

There are a series of satisfactions; he must be satisfied with everything so that he will leave us fully satisfied. But if he finds the tourism policeman uneducated or uncultured, for example, he will not be satisfied. There was a case, where an Iraqi émigré who has a second nationality, accompanied by his foreign wife arrived at the airport, he was prevented from entry by the tourism police because his marriage certificate was in English. He was told that his marriage certificate was not recognised; they wanted an Arabic marriage certificate from him. Karbala tourism authority must arrange things for the visitors; it is unbelievable that the visitor cannot enter Karbala in his car; he is brought in by a man-pushed wooden cart; in what age are we living! As a result, the visitor arrives at our place angry because of city border control and transport. So, we bear the brunt, and the burden on us is heavy in terms of satisfying him.

3) Hotel 3 VN850013

- Manager (M, 31, university graduate)

R: Do your tourists come for religious purposes or for other purposes?
M: For various purposes, and most of our visitors are VIPs, and mast of these are from the Gulf, and some from India and the European Union and America and Belgium.

R: How many employees do you have?
M: I have 11 Bengali workers, and I have one Iraqi employee for maintenance work; so we can communicate with him; although our foreign workers speak Arabic and English.
R: Are these workers able to meet the demands of the Arab visitor?
M: Ha, most of the Bengali workers were working in Saudia and Dubai; they know what service the visitor wants from them.
R: Why did you choose Bengali workers in preference to Iraqi workers; is it because their wages are low or for other reasons?
M: No, the issue is not of wages; the Iraqi worker we give the highest wage and we welcome him and have no problems with him, but in the hotels in general, the Iraqi worker, with all due respect, has become like a disease, he has no intention of continuation in work.
R: Is there another purpose?
M: Yes, he does work sincerely.
R: Are there exhaustive demands from the customer, and like what?
M: Yes, for example, breakfast is from 07.00 to 09.30 in the morning, and if the visitors is departing or travelling very early, he will ask for breakfast at 06.00. This is a strain for the worker.
R: Do you have people who meet this special service?
M: Yes, we have; we do not refuse any service for the customer except anything to do with sex or alcohol.

R: How about food service?
M: The Lebanese wants breakfast only; for the rest of the visitors we have an open buffet.
“Satisfying people is an unachievable goal.”
R: How do ensure the tourist’s satisfaction?
M: A guest arrives; he normally lives in a villa, especially the Gulf Arabs, and he is very comfortable. Here the situation is different, the nearer you come to the Centre of the City, the hotel rooms become smaller. For example, the female visitor uses the room and the bathroom, and then she complains: she is not comfortable. We meet her demand, bear the cost of washing of the linen and towels she used, and offer her a new room. Satisfying the customer 100% does not exist; there is space for tolerance between expectation and service consumption. Always, the employee who is the first to meet the customer must be smiling (Although, when I entered his office, his face was grim; I could have been a new guest).

R: Do offer the customer, services from outside the hotel?
M: No, because of an incident I experienced; a woman from Oman wanted golden tea cups and saucers. She kept insisting more than once; I sent someone to buy them for her. When I gave the cups and saucers to the women, she exclaimed: “Yaa” (wow), I didn’t want them, why did you do it, I was joking with you. In addition, the visitor from the Gulf brings his servant with him,

but we do not allow the servant to offer him services inside the hotel. It is possible that the servant may bring things to the visitors from outside the hotel.

R: Do you find that you deal differently with visitors from different nationalities?
M: The visitors that we feel most comfortable with are the Iraqis. As for the different nationalities; the Tanzanians who live in Europe, America and Britain, are by their very nature content; for everything he says, thank you. And the most irritating is the Kuwaiti guest, because they feel that they are higher than us and we are less than them. They consider that people are less than them, and they show this even in the way they deal with people. I like the Emiratis, Omanis, but I hate the Kuwaitis. For example, two guests arrive and I only have one room, one is Omani and one is Kuwaiti; I choose the Omani because he is easy to satisfy. The Kuwaiti, whatever you offer him he is not satisfied; you offer him “your eyes” and he is not satisfied or contented. Sometimes, I refuse to offer him a room, because most Kuwaiti tourists make problems that we prefer to avoid. I mean the simplest of things; if the worker is late in delivering the service no more 3 minutes, we get a hail of loud complaints and bad temper.

- Guest 1 (F, 55)

R: Which country are you from?
G: From the Emirates, Dubai

R: Have you visited this hotel before?
G: Yes, my sister and my relatives here.

R: Why did you come to this hotel?
G: It is the best hotel compared with other I have been in.

R: What is here that is better than other hotels?
G: Cleanliness; I lived in another hotel, it was cleaner than here, but the people over there made me tired; their treatment, they did not respond quickly. I swore I will not go again to that hotel. I mean I stayed with them 12 days, they hurt me; I quarrel with them everyday, I fight with them; I told them I will expose you, your service. I used to stand in front of the reception, and shout: you have hurt me, may God hurt you.
R: What was their reaction?
G: They remain silent.

R: In this hotel was there a delayed service?
G: No, no; until now nothing I asked for came late. But I wanted a Bigger room than the one I have; they said all the rooms were taken by the Kuwaitis.

R: What service you feel they should provide for you?
G: No, by God, everything is good here, especially the Bangladeshi servants.
R: Do they know your language?
G: No, but the Bangladeshis in our county, I know their language and I talk to them in their own language.

- Guest 2 VN850014(M, 30s)

R: What is your nationality?
G: Kuwaiti.
R: Why did you come to this hotel?
G: This is the nearest hotel, and has good youthful service, their treatment is nice and sophisticated, and seamless service.
R: Is this your first visit to this hotel?
G: No, I have been here before; this is the fourth time, I have now relationships and friendships.
R: How long do you have to wait for service?
G: They always meet my need quickly, but in times of heavy demand, I notice they delay a bit; but we know this happens everywhere.

4) Hotel 4 (VN850015)

- Manager (M 41, university graduate)

R: What are the nationalities of the tourists who come to you?
M: Most are from the Gulf: Emirates, Bahrain, Oman, Kuwait; Germans; Turks; Tanzanian delegations; VIP Iranians. Some in groups, others: individuals. The Turks and Germans they come as individuals. Some come for religious tourism, some for trade and investment.

R: How do they know of this hotel?
M: Through prior booking or by phone, or email, or sometimes they come directly.

R: These people from different nationalities, they speak different languages, what are they and do you have people who can speaks these languages?
M: English, Iranian, Urdu, and the people from the Gulf are of course, Arabic. And we have Mohammed who is originally Iranian and speaks the language. Sabah and Raed speak English well.
R: And the German delegation?
M: They speak the English language; in addition, they have a translator with them.

R: How many service workers do you have?
M: Service workers about 28, and we have 86 rooms. If you want to add the employees and administrators, the total number becomes 43.

R: Are these numbers always here or seasonal?
M: Throughout the season they are here because the hotel is always full, we are one of the first class hotels; we offer rooms and catering.

R: How long does it take the worker to meet the requests of the guests?
M: We have a big number of workers, and you can find them on every floor with their floor manager. We have 4 floors, every floor has an Iraqi manager and the workers are from Bangladesh.

R: If the customer was bothered by something, what is your reaction?
M: We of course have power cuts, to transfer power takes 3 to 5 minutes. Our instructions to our workers, whatever the customers say in these periods do not argue with them. We have trained them, and they have years of work experience now. And our instructions are continuously enforced. We use the incentive and sanction system.

R: Who are better, the Iraqi workers or the non-Iraqi workers?
M: The Iraqis we have are managers and administrators, not workers. The Bengali worker works harder, the Iraqi is not fit for offering service; the Iraqi wants to give orders.

R: Customers from different nationalities have different characteristics; do the employees and workers know that?
M: We know the different characteristics of these customers. And the workers, as a result of our continuous instruction acquired this knowledge and learnt. Also our meeting with our staff is on a daily basis. For example, we now have a person from the Gulf; he wants his room to be cleaned three times a day. This is an ordinary thing for us and it is his right as a customer. Also, I instruct them: if the customer wants cleaning the room five times a day, then do that. Some Iranians do not accept anyone to enter their room three days on row, we respond to their wishes.

R: Did it happen that one customer complained about one of the employees?
M: Yes, but at the same time I have workers who complain of customers. We must understand the problem from both sides. But we fault the worker, of course, because the customer is always right.

R: Do you offer your customers services from outside the hotel?
M: Yes, any service we are able to offer we will do, inside or outside during the guest residence with us. For example, purchase of medicine, calling a doctor, buying local cake, helping people with wheel chairs going round. And this created lasting relationship and continuous communication with the customers.

R: I have heard of some complaints about the delay in the service you offer which contrasts with what you say?
M: The night shift workers were a bit slow and we have replaced them.

R: do the customers have any issue with the food you serve?
M: We offer open buffet; nine types of food, including: meat, chicken, fish to the extent that the visitors say: enough, we will be like monsters from the quantity of meat we eat; we need vegetables.

Qualitative research interview transcripts (Mid-August – end September 2011)

5) Hotel 5 (VN850016)
- Manager (M 52, Secondary school certificate)

R: Could explain how Faris performs his tasks and how motivated he is?
M: He does his tasks well, perhaps not as well as he should; Iraqi workers never do. He came to us by recommendation, and we pay him good wages.

R: Is his performance different than other workers?
M: I have three front line employees. Yes, Faris' performance is different; it is better than others. He has command of the English language, which makes the foreign visitor feel comfortable with us. Faris always attempts to improve his performance, wherever he has the chance to do so. When he joined us he did not know how to speak Iranian, but by time and through practice, now he speaks it better than us.
My three employees perform well; they all come to us through recommendation.

R: Is Faris able to do a number of tasks at the same time; is he motivated?
M: Yes, ordinarily, he is able to prioritise the tasks given to him; he finishes a task before he starts the next task. I have told you these workers are good; we had others who only stayed with us for one month. These three have stayed with us.

R: Do you give incentives apart from their wages?
M: Yes, of course, if there are additional things to do.

R: Do your guests speak well of Faris?
M: Yes, some guests praise him and praise my other workers, and other guests complain. But we are easy on our workers, because if we are not, they will leave us. And, of course, we direct them so that the service they provide will not suffer. We give standard a uniform and we make sure that they are presentable. We do not normally have problems.

R: Does the employee who receives the guests offer different treatment to different guests?
M: We offer the same treatment for all our guests.

R: What attributes do you look for in your employees?
M: Their dress, how they look, the way they speak, their demeanour, his suitability for the hospitality service; and of course, their qualifications.

6) Hotel 5 (VN850023)

- Manager (M 48, Secondary school certificate)

R: What is your impression of the Iraqi hotel worker?
M: The workers who work in hotels have little experience in tourism. For example, a worker without qualification works in hotels. When I am approached by a person who wants to work in hotels, I ask him: have you worked in hotels? The answer I get is: by God, no, I was a construction worker. However, we are compelled to employ him because there are no qualified workers. I haven't heard of any hotel manager who has refused to employ a person with a qualification in hospitality or tourism. Because there are no workers who are knowledgeable in hotel service, we are forced to employ what there is. And we constantly give them directions and guidance; do this, do that. In contrast, if a graduate of hospitality approaches me for work, I will learn from him. I will learn from him, for example, how he presents the glass, the cutlery; how he treats the guests; how he serves; our knowledge of all these service elements is zero. This is because there are no people who are aware in this field. For instance, a peasant with a large family, 6 to 7 family members, has to find work; if he comes to me, I have to employ him because there is no one else. I wish that those who are responsible for tourism provide specialist cadre and impose their employment in hotels. I also suggest that they require from the hotels to train their employees on the essentials of tourism, and work practices. Hotel service in Karbala and the rest of Iraq is zero; there is no proper service; for example, if you even looked in Baghdad (the capital) you will not find anyone who is a graduate of tourism. In the past, there was a tourism college and institute; now this does not exist. Two months ago, I have heard that the Department of tourism in Karbala has opened a tourism institute; and this makes me happy, because we suffer from the lack of such an institute. And as you know, visitors come to us (to Karbala) from all countries; those who come from Europe, those from the Gulf; where they have trained tourism cadres. When these visitors come here, they are shocked with our service; and when we ask them of their views of our service; they say everything is good except the service provided by the employees.

R: I am impressed with the building, the architecture, and hotel furniture.
M: It is a blessing from God. I wish you go up and see the rest of the hotel, you will be astonished, and I wish you ask any of our guests, you will find them extremely satisfied with, for example, the food; but we suffer because of the workers. Even when we give the worker a job, he will leave us within a week or ten days after he saved a bit of money. We are forced to employee foreign workers despite the fact that we have unemployment. The foreign workers have more experience serving guests from different nationalities.

R: Do you, yourself, decide who interacts with the guests?
M: I have 10 employees assigned to the hotel floors, but they have little experience. For example, I have in the reception section a college graduate, who has knowledge of the Kurdish and English languages. Especially, as people from all nationalities come to us, we need to be able to speak English, Iranian, and other languages. In my workers, I first need knowledge of language; also how they look, their manners; they must bear with the guest, whatever the guests do, they are in the right; this is known in tourism. The workers must have patience, long-term thinking, and able to absorb the guest's anger. Normally, the arriving guest is tired, with short temper; the receptionist must absorb all that, and offer guest water and juices.

R: Who are the other employees who interact with the guests?
M: In the restaurant, I have the headwaiter, and I am not very satisfied with him because the guests are not satisfied; what satisfy the guest also satisfies me, and I will feel happy, because when the guests depart and they are satisfied, they will mention you in their prayer, and they will recommend you to other visitors. This gives the hotel a good reputation; when the guests go back, they will be asked: where did you stay? They will say in such and such hotel. For example, returning to Kuwait, Saudi Arabia or Europe, they will give the hotel's name, and will talk well of the service, employees and the manager. Because of the guests' satisfaction, where they will forget and forgive small shortcomings experienced by them in the hotel. When the guests depart and say thank you to the management, this is a big thing for me.

R: How many of your employees are interacting with the guests?
M: In the reception I have three graduates. Some people you take to immediately, others you don't; the receptionist must be of the type that the guests take to immediately. I have three receptionist shifts: morning, afternoon and evening. The morning and afternoon receptionist are very good; the evening receptionist is less experienced and has fewer contacts with the guests. The morning and afternoon receptionists are good in terms of treatment, greeting the guests, responding to the guests' requests; their uniform, and elegance. These two I have personally chosen. The evening receptionist is a graduate of political science, but his experience in tourism is limited.

R: Tell more about each of them.
M: The morning receptionist has experience; he has previously worked in the hotel service. All of them do their tasks well, but this receptionist does not need guidance and direction; in difficult situations he normally acts without asking me for direction; and I have given him authority to act. In contrast, the afternoon receptionist contacts me in difficult situations; and the evening receptionist contacts me twice before acting.
We are a first class hotel, not everyone chooses us, and only those guests with high income come to us.

R: How do you treat the Iraqi and the non-Iraqi guests?
M: For example, if your brother and a stranger come to see you, who do you show more welcome for? Of course you show more welcome for the stranger; because your brother you know well and he knows you well, but the strangers (non-Iraqi) need to understand what the Iraqi hospitality is; we need to show them an undescribable attention and care. Because, they come, for example, from Bahrain or Kuwait we do not know what they want. As for the Iraq guest, he is one of us, I understand him and he understands me; I only have to look at his face to know what he wants.

R: How do the morning and afternoon receptionists treat guests from different nationalities?
M: Yes, they know and ask the guests what they want; and their performance is very good. But the evening receptionist contacts me quite a lot, even if it is at two or three in the morning, and I come. For instance, yesterday I came to the hotel two o'clock in the morning, did a task and went home; few minutes later, he called me.

R: Can you describe the facial expressions of the receptionists when dealing with the guests?
M: The receptionists smile as they deal with guests; if they do not smile I move them to accountancy or marketing, because the hotel's heart is the reception desk. If the guest sees no smile on entering the hotel, he will form a perception that his stay in the hotel will not be pleasant or comfortable.

R: What about the head-waiter?
M: We have an open buffet. The guests like to choose the food, and serve themselves. The head-waiter waits on them; but the one I have is not of the level that I want. I have tried to teach him but he is not very bright, not the level you aspire for in a head-waiter.

R: How do describe the performance of the Iraqi worker?
M: The Iraqi person is proud, he does not respond well to serving people; that is why I told you that tourism and hospitality education is important. Because if the Iraqi worker studies in this service field, he will be less proud, and will apply what he learns in his work. I need the Iraqi worker more than the foreign worker, because I prefer the native worker, his goodness of self and his morals; if only he learns. I sometimes get angry if, for example, a guest comes to me and asks me to change the bed sheet; this makes me angry with the workers because I look after them well, and I have provided everything in the hotel; all what I want from my workers is performance as it is the heart of the hotel.

7) Hotel 5 (VN850023)

- Receptionist (M 31, University graduate)

R: How do you treat guests from different countries?
E: For example, if I have Kuwaiti guests; I talk with them in their own accent, they like that. I use their local words. They become more comfortable, I make them feel they are among their families. Generally, the Arabs are like that; the Kuwaitis, Saudis, Omanis, Bahrainis, I talk with them in their own accent. I find they open up when I do that, barriers disappear, and they start to trust me. Once I know that a group of people from a particular country is arriving, I prepare myself and I prepare a programme for them. For example, Kuwaiti guests are arriving, they like to watch football; I know there is a football match between the Emirates and Kuwait. So, I changed the tv to the channels that show this game, and I made available nuts and juices that they like to have while watching the game. The Saudis also like to watch football but not to the same extent as the Kuwaitis. The Iranians, dealing with them is very difficult, especially if you do not communicate with them in their own language. I am a teacher of the Kurdish language and have knowledge of the Iranian language, as well as, general knowledge in a number of languages. I know that language plays a big role in communicating with people; as the Prophet says: “He who learns the language of a people, is safe of their intrigues.” When I know the language of other people, things become clear to me. We believe that the customer is always right. I attempt to satisfy the guests in my way, not their way. For example, a guest does not like the room I give him; I show him another room, where I provide fruits and juices and talk to the guest about this room and try to persuade him to take it; I do these things so that the guest does not leave the hotel.

R: Is it important to know the social status of your guests?
E: Of course, for example, we had a group who live in Dubai but originally from Kazakhstan staying with us. When I told them of the high cost of staying in our hotel, they were not surprised; I knew they wouldn’t. As for the regular guests, I will even lower the price so that they will not leave us. Sometimes, the departing guests take my mobile number and my card to book again.

R: how do you know if the guests are not satisfied?
E: I know the guests are satisfied if they are sitting in the reception hall. If they are staying in their rooms and frequently phoning the reception, I know they are not satisfied or there is shortfall in the service. Also if the guests greet you in the morning and in the evening, they are comfortable. Some of their facial expressions do not allow you even to say hello to them.

R: how do you deal with guests whose culture and behaviour you are unfamiliar with?
E: We are in a religious city, the visitor who is not here for religious purposes is still a guest, I serve him until he leaves, even if his behaviour is not acceptable in our society; I accept that because of my job. For example, some guests ask for unacceptable service, I say to them there are workers who can do it for you; because the customer is always right.

R: How happy are you dealing with people from different nationalities?
E: Ah! Very comfortable, for example we have Indian, Kuwaiti, Kazakhstani guests; I speak four languages with them, and I am very happy. I improve my language with them, and I become very sad when they leave. One time one of the guests, who has just departed, came back, I was very happy, but it turned out that he has forgotten something. I said to him I thought you wanted to extend your stay with us. I ask the guests about their work, habits, their families and about everything; and they also ask me what I have studied, and this leads to friendships, relationships, and exchange of emails.

R: what do you think will improve your work in future?
E: I wish to have a higher administrative position; I was an administrator in other fields, but the work in hospitality is different. Here the system is one of service; you have to be available 24 hours. There are no excuses, you are tired or hungry, you have to be available.

8) Hotel 5 (VN850023)

- Guest – young couple from Bahrain (graduates in their twenties)

R: From which country you are, and how many days you have been here?
Gm: We have been here for a week
Gf: tomorrow we complete the week

R: Did you interact with the employees of the hotel?
Gm: yes, most our contact is with receptionists. But I do not know their names.

R: There are morning, afternoon, and evening receptionists, can you please tell me about your perception of them?
Gm: The employees' treatment of us is excellent despite some issues that are out of their control. For example, breakfast time is suitable for us; we pray at four in the morning and the breakfast is at seven.
Gf: They are supposed to know we are praying early then we go to visit the shrines at dawn. When we come back from the shrines we find that breakfast period has finished.

R: Did you find a difference in culture?
Gm: No, our cultures are similar.

R: what do think of the employees' uniform?
Gm: Yes, they are sweet, tidy; their behaviour is good, and always smiling. The three of them are the same; their demeanour is welcoming. The first day I bothered them; the room they gave us we did not like; I kept complaining about things in the room, they were patient with me, then gave me another room and apologised.

R: So you received excellent treatment?
Gm: No, they need more training to be even better, especially as the location of hotel is very good attracting visitors from different nationalities.

R: Did you find any difference between the three employees?
Gm: Most of our contact is with morning and evening shifts, the evening shift receptionist does not always smile.
Gf: For example, we leave the key with the morning receptionist; when we come back at night, the night receptionist takes time to find the key.

R: How safe do you feel in the hotel?
Gm: By God, in general Karbala is a safe city, we have high confidence in the employees, especially in hotels of this level.
Gf: Yes, we find our belongings where we left them.

R: How helpful do you find these employees?
Gm: By God, the morning receptionist is not helpful; we ask him about a place, his answer was "I do not know".
Gf: Yes, knowing that we are strangers here, we do not know our way around.

R: In your dealings with these employees, were there occasions where you felt not well treated?
Gm: When we first came in the morning, we were tired; they kept us waiting in the reception hall for a long period. We wanted to go to our room and feel comfortable quickly. Then they transferred us to another room, this annoyed us because we want to rest.
Gf: Even when we were transferred to another room we had to wait for a while before they brought our luggage.
Gm: But to be honest the morning receptionist's manners is good; and his face full of smile but his response is slow.

R: Do you have any suggestions?
Gm: I suggest that in the afternoon period the employees take lessons in massage.

Gf: They need to respond more quickly.

10) Hotel 6 (VN850025)

- Owner/Manager (M 35, University graduate)

O/M: There are many aspects which the employee should have: his education level, cleanliness, health, how he looks, demeanour, his hotel and life experience, intelligence, and his ability to learn. His experience can help him to behave appropriately where he might be exposed to tempting and alluring situations. He should know that when he enters someone's room he entered into a space which is totally not his. In this space, his behaviour will affect the whole hotel. We teach them, when cleaning, if you find money or jewellery, do not move them, just clean around them, so the guest will know that these have not been touched.
Another example, if a thirsty tourist asks for water, the worker should not bring him tepid water from the tap; he should bring bottled mineral water. These issues we suffer from because the worker is a product of the environment he comes from. This behaviour will affect the hotel reputation. The worker, for example, is accustomed to wear the Arab robe (dishdasha); he should not wear this dress at work, nor should he smoke, this is our management policy.

R: Who are the employees who interact with the guests?
O/M: The receptionist, headwaiter, floor employees, and housekeeping workers. The housekeeping workers' contact with guests is most critical, because they enter the guests' rooms, and their behaviour will be influenced by the culture they come from and what they learn from us. We emphasise that the workers speak very little with guests; they should only answer the guest's question and no more. Because different people have different dispositions, levels of education; there is, for instance, a visitor who is conservative, he does not accept that his wife talks with the worker. This worker should know how to behave, that is why we emphasise that he should only answer the question no more. When I happen to see him chatting with, and telling stories to the guest, I hold him to account. More interaction gives rise to other problems. The worker may ask money from the guest, a kind of begging; this will create bad impression. The guest might be a millionaire but he would get bothered if the worker asks for money. As for the receptionist, he should have more interaction with guests because there are negative aspects of the hotel service which can only be discovered by the guests.
If the room is occupied by female guests, we assign a female worker for that room. It the room is occupied by male youths, we then assign a male worker. This is to avoid indecent behaviour. If a female guest calls for someone to tune the TV in her room, we send the worker accompanied by another person. If we have a good worker but we know that he is inclined to flirt with the female guest, we do not send him to that room; we send a worker who is old in age, who cares about his integrity, and married. These are attributes which the manager knows.
The receptionist I chose based on: his experience, intelligence, level of education, his background, the way he talks, ability to be endearing, and his knowledge how to behave in different circumstances. He experienced some embarrassing situations but was able to manage these situations and turned them into jokes which brought smiles to the guests' faces.
The floors' supervisor has a sense of taste of bedding; he knows room arrangement, has a nice smile, a sharp sense of smell. He has a sharp ability to recognise bad smells and odours. I am very sensitive to the smell issue; I have this complex and it might have rubbed on my employees. I tell the supervisor: "smell the room", I do not like to enter a room that smells humid, mouldy or rotten. You know that a clean house should not have a bad smell. This is an important issue, because as the guest enters the room he will smell before he sees. So the person we chose as a floor supervisor has to have a sharp sense of smell.

R: does the receptionist have ability to interact with guests from different nationalities?
O/M: Yes, of course. This is a very important point; the secret of a successful receptionist is his ability to deal with people at their level, and in their own language. For example, the Bahraini likes people to share life with him, sit with him, eat and drink with him; he is sociable. The Kuwaiti does not, he likes to dominate, he is irritated 24 hours, and nothing is to his liking. The Emirati nature is Bedouin, you can also live with him easily, but the Kuwaitis are after prestige, they are pain. I told them in their face "you are more of a pain than any other visitors", but I know how to deal with them.

Of course, the customer is always right; we recognise problems when they occur and solve them. For example, a guest wrongs a worker; what is the role of management in this situation? True, the customer is always right, but what about the dignity of the worker. I must know how to act in this situation. We had an incident, where one of the guests physically abused a worker; he pulled the worker from the collar and spat in his face. The worker tried to respond but I told him not to; I told him: I will restore your right. The guest in question was Iranian, and the issue was over the worker serving another Iranian guest first, who arrived later. ... It appeared that there was a personal problem between these two guests. I was determined that this guest should know that he was wrong, so I took the guest to a corner, not in front of the others, and told him that the service profession is not a demeaning one; nor can the guest buy us with his money; I told him that he should respect the server; I told him: "You are wrong in your behaviour towards the server; if it was because you paid us money, here is your money, please take it and leave the hotel. Your behaviour was disgraceful." I made him regret what he has done; I told him "we respect and value you because this hotel is a reputed one,... you behave in this way with the worker, and the worker did not lower himself to your level; and if you have a problem with the other guest, sort it out outside the hotel. As far as we are concerned, here is your money, please get out. The guest apologised and approached the worker and again apologised to him and gave him money. We did not accept his money, and told him we will not be insulted for money. The guest was on the verge of crying; he said I will not leave the hotel until this worker forgives me. I do not want to say much more, but incidents like this happen; we use wisdom in sorting them out.

R: Can you evaluate your employees' performance?
O/M: The best of our employees is the reception manager; he is clever and attentive, and the guests find him endearing. Ask any visitor, and they will sing his praise. And some visitors come to the hotel because of him, because he is friendly, plays with the kids, cracks jokes with old women and helps them. His manners are sweet; we say here "he embeds himself". He knows the problems the guests face, and change them into jokes, stories, and fun. He does not let the guest leave the hotel unsatisfied. In addition, he knows what the work requires; he knows that work requires continuous improvement. For example, although his work is in the reception, if the kitchen needs help he will offer himself. Similarly, he will make up the shortfall in the room service or the electricity generation, helping the maintenance men. He can cook better dishes than the cook, he is better than the electricity generation's maintenance people, and his presence with them gives them needed moral support. ... Some reception managers only sit behind their desks; our reception manager has a honed experience; he is in the habit of always asking about things; and he is malleable, unlike some people who are rigid in nature. When I tell him to do something, if he is convinced it is right, he will do 90% of it; if he is not convinced, he will discuss it with me until he convinces me of his position. He usually lightens my burdens, but ultimately I am responsible. For example, he tells me to change the chef, because he is delaying the service; I disagree with him because I think the chef is working efficiently. We have a problem in our country; there is a loud cry about high unemployment; in reality we do not have high unemployment, what we have is arrogance. Iraqis do not work; the moment the Iraqi person gains some knowledge he becomes a lion (he becomes arrogant).
We watch our workers as they do a task; we note what they do best, and allow them to carry on with the tasks they do best. If they are tidy and clean they have a place working with us; the one who is skilful in cooking we assign to the kitchen, and so on; this is the role of management. Some matters that the reception manager wants to consult me about, I tell him these matters are his responsibility, "you are more knowledgeable in them than me, because of your experience. "I assigned this responsibility to himself and to his counterpart on the other shifts. I noticed that this reception manager is more successful in making use of this assigned responsibility than his counterpart. For example, when I give the responsibility to the other receptionist, he does not know how to use it; unlike the reception manager he keeps asking "what shall I do?"
We have two hotels similar to each other, but the performance of our workers in this hotel is different than that of the other hotel. The receptionist manager in this hotel achieved high efficiency in his work because of his 24 hours involvement and continuous chasing up of things. If the food is going to be delayed 15 minutes or more, you have to inform the guest that it is

going to be delayed; and it better if you do not tell the guest who long is the delay, but try to make them busy with other things until the food arrives.

R: Do you observe the way your employees deal with guests?
O/M: Of course; as they talk to the guests, the worker must be standing straight with his hand behind him, not keeping them in his pocket. If he does not, I will hold him to account and punish him. This is the way we manage our workers. No one is allowed to smoke inside the hotel, not even the manager.

R: What are the weaknesses of your reception manager?
O/M: Generally, those who work in the reception must be intelligent. And you know, intelligence enables one to have a wide horizon, for example, a guest arrives, my reception manager scrutinise the person looking carefully, not only at what he is wearing, but also his state. For example, if the guest is accompanied by a woman, my receptionist is able to recognise if she is his wife, his sister, or is he faking the relationship. This situation happens quite a lot; a guest police officer arrives with a woman, claiming her to be his wife, but she is not; we had this situation more than once, and because of my receptionist manager's instinct, he was able to expose him.

The receptionist manager must know the culture of the arriving guests; the Iraqi guest is different from the guest from the Gulf. I believe that the Iraqi guest is the most cultured; not because I am biased, but the Iraqi guest has nice characteristics, not found in many other foreign visitors. For example, the Iraq person who normally wears the Arab robe (dishdasha) here, when he visits Europe he changes his dress, because he is able to adapt. The Iraqi guest who comes to us, upon seeing that the place is classy, in general behaves in a sophisticated way. In contrast, the Gulf visitor does not adapt, he requires people to understand him. I have to understand my guests so that I can deal with them; I must know what they like, what they dislike, guess their behaviour and action. For example, some guests like to eat quite a lot, and as they arrive hungry I prepare more food for them. If they arrive tired, I do what is suitable for them. For example, they would like a rich supper, I prepare rich supper; for lunch they would like mutton, I make mutton without asking them. I also talk to them using respectable titles, for example; Welcome Haj Mohammed. This make a difference, the guest enjoys this, he feels he is important and being cared for. However, the Kuwaitis do not like to be called by their names; they prefer that you use: 'welcome Haj' or welcome sir only without adding their name to it. In contrast, the Bahraini would very much like to be called welcome Abu Hassan, welcome Abu Mohammed; he enjoys this and feels happy. Our reception manager knows these differences and he acts accordingly. When these guests leave, they remain in contact with him, they send him presents, and will remember him in special occasions. This is an important characteristic of the receptionist in his interaction with, and treatment of guests. Also the speed with which he deals with problems, for example; A guest phones the receptionist informing him that his television does not work; 95% of these cases turn that the guest does not know how to use the remote control; the same is with the air condition. We are sure of the reliability of our room devices, and we have workers who know how to solve these problems.
We have to understand that visitors who come to this hotel are well-to-do people, and we have to offer them a better service than they are used to. For example, we might have a shortcoming in the furniture and decorations; we make up for this by our treatment and reception of the guests. I faced a problem once; I had a group of guests from the Gulf; I employed a professional chef who I know to cook for them. He made a buffet of12 types of main dishes, 10 types of starters, 6 to 7 types of pudding and 6-7 types of fruit; enough to impress anyone. The guests were impressed by the variety on offer but not by the taste of the food. I was surprised and disappointed because I spent a lot of effort and money providing large quantities of excellent food. One of them told me: "look, all this effort and the money you spent on this buffet we appreciate, but did you notice that we did not eat more than two types. I asked him, why? He said: the food seems to be excellent and of high standard but it is not our food. He said take away all this food and replace it by only salads, pickles, and humus, and for the main meal give us a stuffed whole sheep; if you do this we will be appreciative many times over. The food in the buffet is strange to us, we are not accustomed to it and we cannot eat it.

There are some behaviours and characteristics of the Gulf people, which we do not like, for example; the Gulf people when they sit they support one of their legs by the other resulting in the sole of their shoes in your face; this is unacceptable here. We tell them that this is impolite. The Saudis are getting used to understanding this through their interaction with us. They have learnt some of our greeting phrases; they got accustomed to some of our culture. Some of their behaviour we do not accept and we teach them our habits; and we learn from them as well. For example, the guest from the Gulf does not accept that you talk to his wife or his sister, while the European you can talk to his wife, sister or daughter. These things our workers should know to avoid problems and misunderstandings.

The Iraqi worker is arrogant; he does not want to be told, because of the tribal background. More than once I ask the worker to clean the lobby, he refuses, saying: I am a tribal man, I do not do cleaning. This is a fact, I cannot force him; I feel sorry for him and empathise with him. The Iraqi is not suitable to be a worker; he would like, for example, to be the restaurant manager and above. Unlike, for example, the Indian worker who is prepared to do anything; it is how he is made; he also speaks English, and programmed to work. Employ an Indian worker and he will work 24 hours and you do not have to watch him; the Iraqi worker only like to chat. It is through employing Indians that the service sector in the Gulf has progressed and developed. Iraq has work opportunities, but the Iraqi is not prepared to work. This is the current problem. A worker, whose knowledge and service skills are low, applies for work with us, but his not useful to me, unless he is sponsored by a training institution which will develops him educationally and trains him. Tourism service is not an easy one; it shows your heritage and culture to other people from different nationalities. I have to teach this worker how to dress. He comes to work with gelled hair, untidily dressed, his look is unacceptable, his education and his behaviour is unsuitable for representing the hotel. There should training and educational institutions to teach him how to work and deal with customers and the manager. The Iraqi worker is not motivated to work; he does not know how to work, he has no motivation; he works just to get money. When he works he gets a shock; some worker says: I am a cook, I do not serve customers. In contrast, although I am the owner of the hotel, I serve; for example, I bring water to my customers.
The Iraqi wants to work as restaurant manger and higher, not a service worker, God created people in classes. The Iraqi has a psychological barrier, I have to break it to make him do the work; I do moping, he then takes the mop from my hand and starts cleaning; he wants to work without feeling humiliated; we have a shortage of experience in tourism. You go to Lebanon and Syria and you find a high level of service; the Iraqi does not have the service culture; he does know how to appropriately explain things. For example, if the food service is delayed, he will say to the guest: “The food is cold and we are heating it”, instead of saying that we want to prepare for the best meal. Or the guests ask for more starter foods, he will say: “Yes, we have plenty of starter food; it is better to serve it than to throw it in the bin.” This is his logic and how he communicates with the guest. We need our workers to be trained in service culture, in language, and even in the way they serve.

10) Hotel 6 (VN850025)
Guest (M, Bahraini)

G. The first visit to this hotel was in 2008, and since then I always come to this hotel. There are two important factors in choosing a hotel: Price and treatment. As for this hotel, the price is not very much different from other similar hotels, but they differ from the others in their good treatment, particularly, the receptionist. Not to praise him, however, he is flexible in his work management. That is why I prefer to bring my wife and my father and mother to this hotel; and if there is no room vacancy in this hotel, I put off my travel to another time; I get good service and flexibility in this hotel. I and a Kuwaiti friend of mine prefer to meet here. When we come here we feel comfortable, because the receptionist meets all our needs and more. They offer good treatment and flexibility, for example, I remember once I had a companion from Bahrain with his wife who were both very big; we reserved rooms in the hotel, but we were given the rooms, my companion said this room is small for a big man like me. I asked the receptionist, who

immediately and without hesitation changed the room to a bigger one, and did not ask for additional charge.

R: There are two receptionists, can you describe their performance?
G: As for the first receptionist; he is always moving and practical, he meets all our needs. If there is no cook, he would go to the kitchen himself; if something does not work, he comes himself to look for the reason; if there are no workers, he will do the work himself, he even works as a porter. These characteristics are not present in the second receptionist, maybe because of his age, personality, or his setup; that does not mean that his performance is wanting; he is a good manager, knows how to behave as a receptionist but not like the first receptionist; he does not have the ability to do everything in the hotel, unlike the first receptionist.
Both receptionists are good in doing their tasks in time. However, because of the wide responsibilities assumed by the first receptionist, the second one is quicker in answering our needs. For example, I want service from the first receptionist, I observe that he is very busy with around thirty calls, and one hour elapses and he is still talking on the phone. Also he has more responsibilities; for this reason, the second receptionist is more available. Both of them have a calm nature, wide horizon, and patience; they know how to deal with Iranians, Gulf people, Kuwaitis, Bahrainis. For them, every problem has a solution, this is the differentiating characteristics of the hotel. There are hotel that are better and of higher level, but because of these two receptionists we come to this hotel. We were just saying among ourselves, that we will not come to this hotel if it was not for these two people. Some things which they do not have to do, like our request for a ritual event, they prepare the place themselves for such an event. They do all they can, and more. True, they have different characteristics; the first receptionist is always busy as he is everywhere; he is open minded, educated because he travels a lot, a man for all tasks; I say this, not because I like him, but because of his performance. In comparing between hotels, I look for treatment rather than luxurious hotel environment. Some hotels privileges offering tangible things over treatment; this hotel does the opposite, and this is the nice thing about this hotel.

11) Hotel 7 (VN850026)

- Receptionist (M 58, University graduate, psychology)

Our problem in Iraq is generally ignorance in everything. Most who I work with speak the colloquial language only. If the foreign visitor speaks English or Iranian, we have one or two employees who he can communicate with. As for the other staff, there is hardly any opportunity of communicating with the visitor. There is only one person who can speak Iranian; so if we have an Iranian group of visitors and our staff is composed of Iraqi workers, it is difficult; and if we have an English group of visitors, it is only me who can communicate with them. It is in the nature of those foreign visitors not to speak much, unlike us Iraqis, we are talkative and when we talk we go into a number of irrelevant avenues. These foreign visitors are organised, dignified, even if there is a shortcoming in the service they do not complain. But if they need to speak, I will have to be there. The reason is because we have been confined and isolated from the world. Saddam Hussain did not allow us to travel abroad. We did not work in our fields; as for me, I worked here and learned through working. I learnt from the foreign guests' cultures through working here. There is a saying for Imam Ali: "he who is obstinate in his view perishes", and another saying: "he who conferred with other men, gained from sharing their knowledge". The foreign visitors' culture is different than ours. We here are isolated in our country; Saddam's regime made us confined within our country, People from other countries have progressed during the 35 years of our isolation; the changes that they went through we did not go through. When they visit us, even if I can learn 1% from them through my interaction with them, this will increase my understanding.
A month ago I went to the French embassy to obtain a visa .... I was asked why I was travelling to France. I said, in truth, I am not going for business, I am only going to discover and find the differences between the people who live there and between us, so that we can understand why things are clean over there, the way they communicate; we lack knowledge of the world; we are deprived people, our language is hostile; we live in a pre-medieval time: swords and spears. The Bahraini and Saudi visitors compared with other Gulf people are relatively poor. Among the Gulf people there is tension; for example, we have a group of Saudi visitors and a group of

Kuwaiti visitors; any service we offer the Kuwaitis annoys the Saudis. The Saudis reproach us by saying: why do give them better service, is it because they have money? There is tension between them. The Kuwaiti feels that his money can get him everything. I understand a person from the first moment I meet him, I can read his face. I am a psychologist, I can read the face, and I can quickly understand the person. Even if an Israeli visitor comes to me, I can accommodate him in my hotel in two seconds; I can jest with him, befriend him, bring him to my point of view. If a visitor's face is unreadable, he is not endearing from the start, and his face is grumpy; I can always get along with him, and usually in the second or third day of his stay, he opens up as his inner crisis lessens through my dialogue with him. It is an illness; any arrogant person who feels he is better than anybody, he has an illness, because there is no one who is better than anyone else, "God blesses a person who knows his standing".
As for my workers, I give them suitable uniforms, show them how to operate the switches, connect the wires, set the televisions, etc. The worker has a God given brain, and all what he needs is someone to teach him; and this is done gradually; but as soon as he learns he wants an increase in his wages. If I do not increase his wage, he leaves work. Most of our working youth do not stay long in one job, they move from place to place, like wasps. Usually, when a guest arrives, we meet him with a smile, not with a grumpy face; for example, I might have been tense and angry because of a worker's doing, or someone might have irritated me, I do not let the guest feel my irritation. Those people you just saw coming, immediately I have talked to them in their own language, although they know Arabic, but they like it when someone talks to them in Persian; 70% of the time I gain their trust. I speak Persian and English and Arabic; and I mean good Arabic not colloquial Arabic. I do not speak good Arabic with everyone; I talk with every person at his level so that he can understand me. The simple person, I have to come down to his level so he can understand me; and sometime we have a minister and things are different.

I have an irritated guest who just arrived, I get around the table and move to his side so that there is no separation between me and the guest, and go to him and ask him respectfully to sit down and I bring him a glass of water, and tell him to ask for whatever he wants.
The visitors who come to Karbala know that this city is governed by religious customs and traditions; any visitor who comes to the city knows this. We do not have other types of tourism; we are not in Antalya or France or England or other cities in the world; the difference between them and us depends on the purpose of visiting this city; we do not have pleasure tourism. One time, we had a Jewish female and a young male visitors who were representing humanitarian organisations ... They were prepared for the City's environment. For example, when we had the British Oxfam group which included Scandinavian, Danish, English, Welsh, and two Iraqi people with Iraqi translators; the Danish woman wore the traditional City hijab. They stayed for 3 months and learnt the language. The woman, who was called Susan, wore the hijab and very little makeup. We taught them our customs; they were prepared to learn and know our culture. Work requires a nice word and a smile, and the word must be accompanied by flexibility. For example, the guest may say: shall I pay the account now, I say: no, afterwards; he will be comfortable and safe because you have put trust in him. The factor of understanding is very important. ... I have been in this work 12 years, experience matters, our work requires specialisation and experience. Any question they may be asked, we must have an answer to it; and the answer must be convincing. For instance, one day an Iranian visitors asked the receptionist, why there is no lift in the hotel? The receptionist answered: it is like that. I answered the Iranian; I said: permit me to answer. He said, yes. I said: the hotel's design is horizontal, not vertical; traditional. The guest responded by saying: by God you are clever.

R: What do you want to do to enhance your performance?
M/R: The Turkish language, I do not know; and a lot of Turkish people come here. The Turkish person is very peaceful and calm; but the Iranians are hostile. Sometimes, we have an Iranian guest who would open the fridge and shouts: the fridge is kharab (empty); another guest would say: there is no bath in the room; not seeing the bathroom door, so I went and showed him the bathroom door. The Iranian visitor does what his wife wants. Sometimes, they both happen to be in the hotel lobby; he bargains about the price, then goes to ask his wife, and she sends him again to me for more bargaining. This thing I dislike; because the man is supposed to be strong in stature; he leaves in the morning for work, he toils; and the woman's role is motherly and

caring, even in the present, where she might have become a lawyer or a doctor; she does not forget her role; she remains the caring person in the house. The man's place is not in the house. The Iraqi woman is not like the Iranian woman; In Iran unlike in Iraq, if the outside bell rings, the woman answers it and chats with caller like a man does.
The Iraqi worker's nature is difficult; it is difficult for him to change his behaviour; my dealing with my staff is more difficult than with guests; the Iraqi worker is arrogant in his dealing with others; also gaining experience requires years, and one becomes more experienced gradually as each day you gain a new knowledge.

12) Hotel 8 (VN850027)

- Restaurant Head Waiter (M 23, school certificate)

R: Do you speak foreign languages?
E: No [I do not speak foreign languages], not very much.

R: How do you communicate with the foreign guests?
E: Guests' requests in the restaurant are understandable, and I can meet them. The guest from the Gulf is different from the Iranian guest; every visitor has a special behaviour.

R: How you satisfy the guest?
E: You have to deal with him in a nice way, you should not offend him; anything he asks for, you should do.

R: Do you have a work uniform?
E: Yes, a white uniform in meal time; we only wear it during serving the food. I do not like to wear it all the time.

10) Hotel 8 (VN850027)

- Manager (M 54, Secondary school certificate)

R: What is the rating of the hotel?
M: Second rating. The hotel consists of 4 floors with a capacity of 120 rooms.

R: Who are the employees that are in contact with the visitors?
M: The receptionist is of most contact; currently he is on holiday, and I occupy his role. Then I have the restaurant headwaiter; and the maintenance man, and the service workers.
The receptionist's way of dealing with guests is calm and ordered; he does things calmly. The headwaiter is opposite; he works hard, he does everything well, but he is irritable, gets nervous easily; if I employ him in the reception, I am sure he will create problems with the guests. I tested him and assigned him to his headwaiter role. The receptionist is tidily dressed, his looks is acceptable. For me, the order of importance in the receptionist is first the look, then the dress, and thirdly, the way he deals and communicates with people. Here we have visitors of all types; we have the ministers, the foreign visitors and the ordinary people; every individual requires a different way of dealing and of being received. The receptionist is able to deal with visitors from various nationalities. He likes his work; when he goes on holiday, he comes back exactly in the agreed time. In contrast, other employees are not so exact; when they are supposed to be back, they call with an excuse. We have visitors from 17 countries; from Canada, America, Australia, Sweden, Norway, the Gulf state, Russia, Denmark, and Holland.

R: What languages do you need to talk with these visitors?
M: The most important language is Persian. I am fluent in Persian, but not very strong in English. I can deal with English speaking visitors as much as the work needs. As for the Gulf, we have no problem with the language, but we also talk with them in their colloquial language. Because if you speak with them in their colloquial language, they feel pleased. Also the Lebanese and Syrians.

R: Can your receptionist deal with your guests in the same way you do?
M: The receptionist knowledge of foreign language is not as strong as mine. Now a group of Iranian visitors have arrived, I was out. As I arrived at the hotel, I found they were leaving. In my way I have persuaded them to stay and have lunch for free. I told them, after you have your lunch you may decide whether you want to stay or leave. After lunch, they found that the hotel was good and they stayed.
Every visitor must be received differently; you offer them water, juice, cakes, dates; the visitor feels comfortable, because generally they arrive tired, or had difficulties on the road. Such a reception will make him comfortable and will have a good perception of the hotel. The Iranian group I talked about, if as they arrived they went straight to the rooms, it would have been a problem; but when I served lunch, juices and cakes, they went to rooms and they were comfortable. They arrived and have to leave their transport far from the city; but because of the way I received them, they were relieved and felt rested. For example, if a guest arrives and I just say “welcome”, he will not feel comfortable, but if I personally approach the guest and ask him to sit down and rest, offer him water and juice, he will feel at ease. But if I am tense, he will leave the hotel, and my communication with him will be very limited.

R: Do you rely on the receptionist ability to treat the guests as you do?
M: I depend on him 50%-60%; his experience is not enough, and his language does not help. If you have a strong knowledge of language, you can convince the other party, but if the language is weak, you cannot. I have travelled to many countries; Iraq is completely different than these countries; it is not organised, there are no rules. In the neighbouring Asian countries and the Gulf, if things are not organised they will not take place.

R: What do you think of the performance of the headwaiter?
M: The headwaiter is good, except for one thing: his education is weak and it affects everything he does. He is my relative, his experience in managing the restaurant is strong; he knows how to deal with the Iranian visitors. In these matters he renders service to me. He is honest; because sometimes, the visitors forget his mobile on the table as he leaves the restaurant. If there is no honest worker, how can we guarantee lost things for the visitors. The headwaiter got to where he is now gradually. He started as a cleaning worker and moved up. There are times when he becomes irritated; for example, if an Iranian guest sees an apple which looks to them dirty, they say “kaseef”, and the headwaiter takes the apple and throws it away in front of the visitor. The visitor will get nervous; so I say to the headwaiter, in such cases, apologise to the guest and wash the apple even if you think it is clean. Because, the customer is right even if he was wrong. We teach our employees not to argue with the guest, and always say “yes”. Sometimes, I see him cross; I call him and ask if there is anything wrong. He says: no. I say: visitors are coming and going, show a smile; he answers: he is tired. Sometimes, he comes wearing a slipper; I ask him, why are you not wearing shoes; he says, I will now. Most of my guidance goes to the headwaiter; as for the receptionist, he is organised, I do not have much to say to him, but I also guide him. I wish the headwaiter leaves his mobile while working; he does not focus on his work. At occasion I take all the mobiles from my employees. I have instructed them, you do not use the mobile while you are at work. Sometimes, I get information about what they do while I am in my office. I also have installed cameras, so my employees are aware. I also threaten to punish them or deduct money from their wages. I have deducted 2 to 3 days’ pay from most of them; I am serious about work, and all of them like and respect me because of my style of management; serious but forgiving. I give them gratuities, financial help, but I do not accept shortcomings in work. We have a saying: “Do not be dry least you break, and don’t be soft least you get squeezed,” I go a long with the situation.
We also have the maintenance man; his task is equivalent to that of the receptionist and the headwaiter; because he decreases the pressure on the visitors. If a malfunction happens, and as a result, the guest complains, the maintenance person receives him in a nice way. His specialisation is in electrical appliances, air-conditioning and generators; but he is weak in knowledge of other language. His task does not need 100% knowledge of language; but a situation arose the other day and he was there. One Iranian visitor announced that the cable has burnt. The maintenance person did not react; I asked him why are you not doing anything; the guest has told you that the cable is burnt. He said: I did not understand what he said. This was despite the fact that the guest has repeated the complaint twice. I used to have a better

maintenance person but he had other shortcomings, for example, he was not diligent in my absence; he also had his eyes on women, and this causes problems even if he was good at his work. The worker who has this shortcoming is not wanted. I had an employee, who was able to run the business even if I stayed away for a whole month, but he had the “eye on women” problem; I sacked him because the hotel’s reputation is important.
Back to the maintenance person, he has a wide smile and his dealing is good with guest, but he refuses to wear the work uniform.

- Maintenance employee

R: Do you speak foreign language?
E: I know as much as I need for my work. I understand; I know work words.

R: did you face problems with foreign guests?
E: Yes, The simplest of things, for example, these guests do not understand that the air-condition needs 3 minutes to switch on the compressor. They do not understand; sometimes I am patient, sometimes I get irritated. I attempt to remain patient and leave the room; after a short while, I come back and try to make the guest understand. He then apologises for irritating me; and I in turn also apologise for my irritation.

R: Are you able to tell the differences between guests from different countries?
E: Yes, yes; the visitors from Isfahan (Iran) are difficult; we try to meet their needs. More than any other visitors, the Iranians annoy me because they insist. A simple example, the air-condition in his room is malfunctioning; he does not report the malfunction only once; ten times he comes down to the management, while I am in his room repairing the air-condition; especially those from Esfahan. Sometimes I exercise patience, and make sure I attend to the problem promptly. This is because the Manger is good with us.

R: Do you like to learn another language?
E: Language does not mean anything to me; only within my work; and most of the visitors can speak Arabic. Even, the Iranian group we have here, ten of them can speak Arabic. I think our service is satisfactory; and only few visitors who show dissatisfaction. We have groups from different nationalities; from Canada, Germany, Ghana, and they speak Arabic; they made it easy for us. We attempt to learn their habits. For example, we have the headwaiter, he has been two years here, he knows their habits. I have been here for one year; some visitors returned this year; they said: we were comfortable here, because you were good.

- Head waiter

R: How do you work with different nationalities?
E: Every person behaves differently; when I worked here, I got to know them. But most, it is important for me to know their language. From practice, I have learnt at most, some words of compliment.

R: If you were dealing with a guest and your mobile rang, what do you do?
E: I finish my dealing with the customer and then I attend to the mobile; and if I was on the mobile, and was approached by the customer, I finish my talk on the mobile, then answer the customer; even during work. The Iraqi person is stubborn. Guests ask for some strange dishes; we give them what is available, especially for the Gulf people; if they find it not to their taste, we change the dish. A while ago, we had groups from all over the world: from America, Australia, and from all the European countries, and they speak Arabic. One of the female visitors said: why do you try to keep a distance from the visitors. She said: we want to practice our Arabic language with you; I started talking with them because they asked to. Whatever, they are better than the Iranians. The Iranians, we do not give them the same attention as we do for the Europeans or the Gulf countries; because, whatever happens, they will come to Karbala. At most, I make friendship with the Lebanese. There are visitors who insist a lot and irritate you, like the Iranians; I do not bother to give them attention because they take advantage. The other visitors; the Europeans, the Indians, they are not a problem, because they are not annoying. The Iranians, I do not like anything about them; but I try to hide my feelings, but they know from my face expression. The Iranians are basically spiteful when it comes to us; we know that from

their behaviour. Recently, an Iranian visitor on departing said to us: whether you live or die you never become human. I said to him: we are not honoured by your visit; I love people from all nationalities as long as they are not Iranian. The Iraqis, we look after very well; but the behaviour of the Kuwaitis and the Iranians is not acceptable; they are irritating and their service demands are annoying. They are not truthful; and ready to level accusation against you.

3.2 Coding for themes and relating to the literature

1) Perception of Owner/Manager 1 (M, 46, local, also currently studying for a Masters degree in Lebanon) - 4 star hotel (Hotel 1 VN850009)

			Literature	
Interview data	*Data reduction: labelling*	*Theme*	*Concept (Dimension)*	*Subsuming category (Construct)*
Bahraini people, for example, come and stay with us	Guests from a 'different culture'	Cross cultural service environment	Cross cultural service environment	
Usually, these people prefer to bring their servants with them	preferring own servant	Foreign guests prefer 'familiar service'	3T Performance	
and we rent to them the restaurant and the kitchen and we provide for them all what they need.	Renting facilities	inability to meet guests' service needs	Behaviour	Cultural intelligence
They do this, because they want someone who knows how to serve them	preferring own servant	Foreign guests prefer 'familiar service'	Underdeveloped service culture	
Gulf people generally like that; they like to bring their servants with them	preferring own servant	Foreign guests prefer 'familiar service'	Underdeveloped service culture	
The Lebanese guests, mostly, find that our food is unsuitable for their pallet	Unsuitable food	Lack of knowledge of others' food	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
So, we rent to them the hotel's restaurant and the kitchen, to do whatever they want.	Renting facilities	inability to meet guests' service needs	Behaviour	Cultural intelligence
Yes, we change bed sheets, clean the bathrooms, clean the rooms,	Cleaning	Doing tasks	Task performance	3T Performance
bring their grocery too,	Shopping	Doing tasks	Task performance	3T Performance
and the rest of the employees go around	Keeping eye on things	Assuring guests	Assurance	Service quality

keeping eye on things.				
When the Bahrainis arrive with their servants, I know I don't have to do more than the cleaning,	Cleaning	Doing tasks	Task performance	3T Performance
and of course I have to have a maintenance person, and a receptionist, and another employee to look after whatever needed	maintenance reception general service	Performing task	Task performance	3T Performance
This is what I generally do when I have people from the Gulf.	Catering for Gulf guests	Knowing of others' culture	Meta-cognition	Cultural intelligence
As for the Iranians, we cater for all their required services,	Catering for Iranians	Knowing of other culture	Meta-cognition	Cultural intelligence
but they nag and complain quite a lot,	Nagging, complaining	Unsatisfied foreign guests	Reliability, assurance, responsiveness, empathy	Service quality
although, we cook Iranian food for them.	Cooking Iranian food	Knowing of foreign food	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
You asked me the nationalities of our guests. We receive Pakistanis, and generally people from all the Gulf states, Iranians, and Lebanese.	Guests from different cultures	Cross cultural service environment	Cross cultural service environment	
The problems that occur are usually outside and before they reach the hotel; for example transport problems	Outside problems Transport	Underdeveloped tourism industry	Underdeveloped service culture	
The Gulf or the Lebanese visitors, in the high season, cannot enter the City in their cars or coaches,	Entering City problems	Transport problems	Underdeveloped service culture	
as you know, for security reasons.	Security reasons	Unsettled security situation		
They have to leave their cars	Leaving cars outside City	Transport problem	Underdeveloped service	

at the City's borders, about 15km-30 km away			culture	
and, rent a cart pushed by a person.	Transport by push cart	Transport problem	Underdeveloped service culture	
They pay $300-$400 for the cart.	Unreasonably expensive	Transport problem	Underdeveloped service culture	
So, the guests arrive at the hotel unhappy, and they direct all their anger at the hotel staff, as it is the last place in their journey.	Staff bearing brunt	Extraordinary efforts required	Meta-cognition Cognition Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence
We, in this case provide all the available services	Providing all available services	Extraordinary efforts required	Meta-cognition Cognition Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence
I will not allow the generator to stop in order that the guests feel comfortable	Providing uninterrupted power	Extraordinary efforts required	Meta-cognition Cognition Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence
even though there is 6 or 7 hours power cut.	Power cuts	Power problem	Underdeveloped service culture	
We are providing 4 generators; to ensure that the hotel will not be without power for more than 2 minutes.	Providing uninterrupted power	Extraordinary efforts required	Meta-cognition Cognition Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence
...the Iraqi guests we do not have a problem with, because they know the situation.	No problem with Iraqi guests	No problem with guests from own culture		

We have to satisfy them and go along[12] with what they wish.	Seeking satisfaction	Doing more than tasks	Meta-cognition Cognition Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence
For example, we know that the Lebanese would want date.	Date fruit for Lebanese	Knowing of others' food desire	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
I have arrangements with some peasants I know	Special arrangement	Treating guests	Treatment performance	3T Performance
to provide them with different types of good quality date.	Good quality date fruit	Good quality of tangible	Tangible	Service quality
They also like sweet; I make these available.	Sweets for Lebanese	Treating guests	Treatment performance	3T Performance
Generally, the Lebanese people are educated and cultured, so dealing with them is nice.	Dealing with educated guests is nice	Cultured guests are motivating	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
The difficult dealing is with the Iranians	Dealing with Iranian is difficult	Treatment problem	Treatment performance	Cultural intelligence
language for example, although we have a few employees who know Iranian language, but the rest don't.	Language problem	Insufficient knowledge of others' languages	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
As for the Buhra people, they talk English, and we attempt to deal with them in this language as much as we are able to.	Language problem	Insufficient knowledge of others' languages	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
These are good people, a cultured class, with high manners,	Cultured people	Cultured guests are motivating	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
and we attempt to satisfy them any way we can.	Offering maximum service	Extra performance	Task Treatment	3T Performance

[12] 'Go along' is task performance (Hogan & Holland)

			Tangible	
For example, we offer them free cups of tea as part of our Arab hospitality.	Giving free tea	Offering treatment through tangible	Treatment Tangible	3T Performance
I attempt to contact friends, owners of other hotels, and book accommodation for them; I do not want them to get annoyed.	Booking alternative accommodation	Showing kindness; treating	Empathy Treatment	Service quality 3T Performance

2) Perception of Managing Director (M, 52, local, vocational diploma holder) of same 3/4 star hotel (Hotel 1 VN850009)

Interview data	*Data reduction*	*Theme*	*Category*	*Comments/observations*
We are accustomed to the Iranians; they usually say that the hotel, all of it, is not good; we are accustomed to that.	Familiarity with Iranians	Experience of behaviour of others' culture	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
We get hold of them as they leave and ask them to tell us point for point what is not good.	Knowing of problems	Knowing of performance level	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
They say, either the television, or the fridge, or hot water, or the heater	Problems with facilities	Problems with tangible	Tangible	Service quality
But this is the nature of the Iranians; the smallest of things that go wrong, and they shout this place is 'Kharab'[13] - a bad word. Or they say it is 'kaseef' for a small spot.	Iranians always complain	Knowing of others' characters	Meta-cognition	Cultural intelligence

[13] *Kharab' (ruins) – an insulting word in our culture; 'kaseef' (filthy), another very insulting word in our culture. These words are not so insulting for the Iranians*

In the beginning we used to get annoyed, but we got used to them.	Familiarity with Iranians	Experience of others' character	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
We started to respond by agreeing with them: "you are right", "whatever you say", with a smile.	Agreeing with complaints with smile	Offering treatment	Treatment	3T Performance
And of course we tell our workers: "you are not allowed to argue with the guest;	No argument with guests	Offering treatment	Treatment	3T Performance
if you can solve the problem, solve it. If you cannot, direct the problem to me".	Solving problems	Solving problems	Cognition Motivation	Cultural intelligence
Before the visitors arrive, we prepare everything; we prepare the room fully, and the bathroom. So, there is no problem, we are in control of the situation.	Preparing the room	Doing service tasks	Task performance	3T Performance
But sometimes, arriving families, their children soil the bed sheets; in these cases our response is immediate; we change the sheets.	Changing soiled sheets	Doing tasks	Task performance	3T Performance
Most of our visitors are Iranians and they are here all year round; they are nicknamed in the market as the "gold Lira" or "dollar", it keeps its value.	Most visitors are Iranians	Most guests are foreign	Cross cultural service environment	
Yes, always, our customers come to us; because the customers when they like the place, they don't just like	Loyal guests Clean place	Offering treatment and tasks	Task Treatment	3T Performance

how clean it is. They also like being received by the hotel manager.	Received by manager			
For example, some hotels are not very clean but the customers like to come to the place again because they like the manager. For example, you go to a shop whose keeper's face is grim and unwelcoming, even if you like the goods you will not buy them from that shop. You go to another shop, whose keeper is friendly, with a smiling face and chats to you; even if the goods are more expensive you will buy them.	Guests like manager	Good treatment from manager	Treatment	3T Performance
We inform the employees that a visitor or a group of visitors from a specific place with such and such characteristics will be arriving.	Preparing employees for serving other cultures	Knowing of others' characteristics	Meta-cognition	Cultural intelligence
...of course we do not have to tell them if the visitors are Iraqis.	No problem with Iraqi visitors	satisfied guests from own culture		
Our meetings with our employees are frequent and on a daily basis; we train them during their work about how to deal with various guests. For example, today we have a group of Iranian visitors who will be travelling	Learning how to deal with foreign guests	Knowing how to deal with foreign guests	Cognition	Cultural intelligence

to Najaf (45 miles) and back. During this period, I will have a meeting with my employees on how to deal with these visitors.				
I have instructed them to placate the customer, “bring them water”, “calm them”, and say “good words”.	Placating guests	Doing task Offering treatment	Task Treatment	3Ts Performance
For example, unexpected things happen, like thieving. From our side, we do not bring workers from the street; we take their address, we ask the locality official about them, we ask for guarantors. Working in a hotel is like marriage, because, there must be high degree of confidence in the worker.	Workers are vetted	Employing trustworthy employees	Assurance	Service quality
Of course, a skilled worker is immediately snatched.	Skilled workers snatched	Skilled local worker is scarce		
At the same time we ask him, “where did you work before”, “what is the reason for leaving your work”; and we afterwards also make contacts to check the truth of what he said.	Vetting workers	Employing trustworthy employees	Assurance	Service quality
Even if he has the skills and expertise but turned out to be a thieve I reject him.	Rejecting untrustworthy skilled workers	Employing trustworthy employees	Assurance	Service quality
Most of our guests are women; the most important thing is not to be too close or	Keeping away from women	Different service treatment for female guests	Treatment	3T Performance

too near to them, or to have conversations with them.				
And I as manager go around, there and back and watch my employees.	Watching employees	Ensuring female treatment instructions are followed	Treatment	3T Performance
There is no such thing, we do not allow it because it creates problems; we enforce this issue with our workers, and the worker himself is trained, he has to be clever, he must avoid women visitors but at the same time make them feel that he is serving them. He must safeguard his reputation and that of the hotel.	Avoiding women but serving them	Ensuring female treatment instructions are followed	Treatment within values of own culture	3T Performance
And the worker is watched in all the hotel corners, and he knows this. In addition we installed cameras.	Watching workers	Enforcing compliance with norms of local culture	Underdeveloped service culture	
...among them there are some women who like to be complemented and to be courteous to; we emphasise on the worker that there is a red line not to be crossed.	Red line with women	Insufficient service interaction with female guests	Treatment	3T Performance
For example, if in the hotel lobby one of the female guests smiled or shared a laugh with one of the workers; this is normal; but if she called him to the room to attend to some repairs, the worker must leave the	Interacting with women in lobby	Insufficient service interaction with female guests	Treatment	3T Performance

guest room door wide open, finish his task and leave. And sometimes we bring a third person to stand at the door. We have quite a lot of experience in these things.				
The problem with the Iraqi worker is that he is arrogant, he feels that he is above doing some of the services; cleaning the bathroom is not something he would do.	Arrogant Iraqi workers	Local worker is not motivated to do hotel service	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
This is a big problem, if he made a mistake or did something wrong, and you try to advise him; he will say: “settle my account, I want to leave”.	Not accepting advice Quits job	Local worker is unwilling to change behaviour	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
The Iraqi worker requires a lot of time off work; one day his father dies, one day his mother dies, another, his brother dies; or so and so relative is ill; one day some relative broke his hand, another, his leg. The whole month, nearly fifty percent of it is lost in time off work. In his first week of work, he asks for a loan; 3 to 4 months later he buys a new mobile. This is the Iraqi worker’s problem with us,	Absent himself	Local worker lacks motivation to work	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
...and as such his contact with the guest will be little.	Little contact with guests	Local worker has insufficient interaction with foreign guests	Treatment	3T Performance

And we are obliged to train the worker because there are no courses in training in tourism. We teach him how to deal with the guests.	Training during work No tourism courses	Absence of formal tourism education	Underdeveloped service culture	
And the frame of mind of the worker also plays a role; if he is married; one day, his son is ill; one day, his wife is not well.	wrong frame of mind	Local worker lacks motivation to work	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
Yes, of course, so that we motivate the others. We had a case; one started as a worker, then we promoted him to the status of permanent employee; he desired to study, we helped materially; he finished his secondary school, then his degree in a college; all his expenses we paid, because he was a good employee. We even provided him with a room in the hotel where he lived.	Rewarding employees Promote employees Material help	Local worker lacks motivation to work	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
And we did all this because he was distinguished in his work. He has left us and now is working for the local authority and until now he contacts us and we have relationship with him.	Reward distinction Good employee left	Local worker lacks motivation to work	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
He has good characteristics; for example, he smiles to the customer, he looks after the customer; “what he needs,	Has good characteristics	Importance of personality; displaying appropriate behaviour; interacting appropriately with	Meta-cognition Cognition Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence

what he doesn't need"; and he deals with different customers; this person you feel comfortable with.		different cultures		
But I told you, he works 4 or 5 months and he buys a new mobile and leaves us. And if he remains in his work, he keeps busying himself between the mobile and 'Bluetooth'. This is the problem with the Iraqi labour.	Leaves work after short period Not attentive	Local worker lacks motivation to work Inappropriate behaviour	Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence Cultural intelligence
For example, if he saved $1000 and borrowed few fils (coins) from here and there, he bought a car and left work. Or, they go and find work in the police or the army.	Leaves to other work	Local worker lacks motivation to work	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
That's why the hotels are seeking to import foreign labour, because he does not ask for days off, staying with you all the year; once a week he is permitted to contact his family for free; and the foreign worker never rests. The foreign workers are now everywhere, even in retail business; and in garage workshops, and you see him very clean despite the nature of his work.	Importing foreign workers Foreign worker is diligent	Foreign worker is motivated	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
He responds quickly to the customer.	Responding quickly	Foreign worker responds quickly	Treatment	3T Performance

But also the customer likes to see the manager going round; so that he does not say that the manager is sitting behind the desk, doing nothing. And sometimes, the customer himself is patient if the service is not provided quickly.	Manager keeping eyes on things	Assuring guests	Assurance	Service quality
This may be due to a religious reason, although, some visitors don't come for religious reasons but to accompany the others.				
We always give our mobile numbers so that they can contact us anywhere; one way of satisfying the customer.	Giving guests manager's mobile	Extra treatment	Treatment	3T Performance
The worker must always be watched, because the moment you leave him, he messes up; and as long as he feels that the manager is watching him he will do his duty.	Watching workers	Assuring guests	Assurance	Service quality
Some of the service we offer; we allow the guest to make international call for free, sometimes it takes more than 30 minutes. The guests like this service very much. Sometimes, when they gather in the lobby, we serve them with tea or juice	Free phone calls for guests Free tea and juice	Providing extra service	Task Treatment Tangible	3T Performance

for free. Of course, this is the natural characteristics of the people of Karbala; serving the visitor is mostly free; our fathers instilled this in us, and the place gave birth to this idea. [14]				

3) Perception of Manager (M, 40, graduate) – Receptionist (w)
Hotel 2 (VN850011)

Interview data	*Data reduction*	*Theme*	*Category*	*Comments/observations*
It must be the same service, there are no preferences. This is because most of our guests visit here for religious purposes; therefore, we treat all of them the same way.	Same service to all	Same service performance	Task	3T Performance
Yes, but less than those who come for religious purposes. "You come from a certain country, another woman comes from another country; treatment is the same".	Same treatment	Same service treatment	Treatment	3T Performance
Certainly not; we must deal positively with all; this means the Iranian, who	Dealing positively	Positive service treatment	Treatment	3T Performance

[14] R's observation:

At that moment a man entered asking for work; the manager's immediate response was: "no, no, we do not need any workers". I asked the manager, why did you not call him and talked to him to discover his abilities. His answer was "currently, we do not need workers; and like this person we see many every day. And I told you, he will stay with us for 2 days, and then leave work".

arrives here for religious or commercial purposes, what is important that he leaves us satisfied.				
Although, the British investor who visits us must be accorded special treatment. Importantly, all should leave satisfied.	Special treatment to Europeans;	Special service treatment	Treatment	3T Performance
The hotel services in general; cleanliness and services whether inside or outside the hotel.	Cleanliness All service inside and outside	Doing service tasks	Task	3T Performance
Yes, for example, buying things for them, or guiding them.	Buying for and guiding guests	Extra service performance	Task Treatment Tangible	3T Performance
"Frankly, the labour that exists in Iraq, although I cannot generalise, is of low quality, that's why, lately we started to bring foreign labour".	Low quality Iraqi labour	Low quality Iraqi labour	Reliability Responsiveness Assurance	Service quality
Here, we have central management; things that happen in the hotel, the manager must know about; any service I must know about, I do not depend on the workers, I direct them	Centralised management	Local workers are not trusted	Reliability Responsiveness Assurance	Service quality
We deal with everyone according to what they like, but the visitor should not cross his limit.	Treating within limits	Treating within local cultural norms	Underdeveloped service culture	
Also true; we take this in consideration. It is possible, that the Iranian visitor, for	Iranian normal words are disdainful	language coding problem	Cognition	Cultural intelligence

example, uses words he thinks they are normal, while we consider them as disdainful, or undermines our dignity. But this behaviour, in time we got used to. Few of them; that is why I have centralised things.	Used to behaviour			
Yes, here two of us speak English; the second person is better than me in English, and I am better than him in Iranian. And the Arab visitor speaks our language, “so it is solved”, there is no problem with language.	No problem with language	Knowledge of others’ language	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
We are forced to employ the foreign workers	Employing foreign workers	Skilled local worker is scarce	Underdeveloped service culture	
Yes, of course better; in service performance, he stays for years	He performs better Stays in work	Foreign worker performs better	Task Treatment	3T Performance
While the Iraqi worker, comes to us for work and explains his difficult living condition; we give him work, a short period and he leaves.	Local worker leaves	Local worker is not motivated to do hotel service	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
After you have spent months teaching etiquette, the way to offer service; just like that he leaves work.	Teaching etiquette Leaves works	Local worker is not motivated to do hotel service	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
In my view, the main reason why tourism is not developed in Iraq	Tourism underdevelopment	Tourism underdevelopment	Underdeveloped service culture	
Yes, but they are Iraqis,	Local workers not content	Local workers not content	Motivation	Cultural intelligence

they are not content				
The workers work harder for the tips, because if they offer the visitor more service, he will give them. But we emphasise on them not to ask for tips. If the visitor likes he will give if he wishes.	Tips from Iraqi guests	No problem with guests from own culture		
Generally, most visitors who tip the workers are the Iraqi visitors because they leave us comfortable and satisfied more than the foreign visitors.	Iraqi guests are satisfied more than foreign guests	No problem with guests from own culture		
Direct service to the customer; for example, the visitor wants cake, we go out and buy it for him; or other things the visitor wants, which are not part of our service, we do it for him. For example, we call the doctor for him.	Buying cake and things Calling doctor Extra service	Extraordinary service	Task Treatment Tangible	3T Performance
Yes, possible, for example, the women on the 2nd floor wanted a religious recitation, we permitted it; this is normal according to our values. They liked the place and said, next year we must come to this hotel. In contrast to other hotels which refuse to offer this	Allowing religious recitation within local values Guests like service and will come back	Offering treatment within local values	Treatment	3T Performance

service				
Yes, look at this place (pointing to a corner), it is especially for these things; rings for males and females, beads, stones, etc. This thing I also am responsible for, because originally I worked as a goldsmith, ha ha ha (he laughs).	Providing artefacts Rings, beads, stones Manager was a goldsmith	Offering tangibles with expert knowledge	Cognition Tangible	Cultural intelligence Service quality
Yes, problems occur and get solved. For example, the Iranian says this place is filthy (kaseef), and he does not feel that this is an insult, while we consider it as a big insult.	Problem solved Filthy place Insulting word	Language coding problem	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
Before, the person from the Gulf used to bring his servant or maid. Presently, no, it doesn't happen. Yes, it happens in some hotels, but our visitors know our service.	Own servant not allowed to serve	Offering better service performance	Task Treatment Tangible	3T Performance
Yes, we have a female tourist, she is out now; she always comes to us and likes this hotel. You can talk to her, and she has Iraqi origin, you can have a talk with her	Loyal guest originally Iraqi	No problem with guests originally from own culture		
Yes, there is a topic which we have not touched. The subject of tourism is very important, the majority of the countries in the world	Undeveloped tourism Affecting guests	Tourism service culture is underdeveloped	Underdeveloped service culture	

pay attention to it, and develop it to the better, except in Iraq, progress in tourism does not exist. For example, when the visitor comes, he forms a general impression, not just about the hotel; he considers everything else he sees in the street.				
There are a series of satisfactions; he must be satisfied with everything so that he will leave us fully satisfied. But if he finds the tourism policeman uneducated or uncultured, for example, he will not be satisfied.	Series of satisfaction Policeman uneducated Unsatisfied guests	Big pressure on hotel service provider to satisfy foreign guests	Meta-cognition Cognition Motivation Behaviour	Cultural intelligence
There was a case, where an Iraqi émigré who has a second nationality, accompanied by his foreign wife arrived at the airport; he was prevented from entry by the tourism police because his marriage certificate was in English. He was told that his marriage certificate was not recognised; they wanted an Arabic marriage certificate from him.	Émigré prevented entry Marriage not recognised Tourism police does not speak English	Problem with language	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
Karbala tourism authority must arrange things for the visitors; it is unbelievable	Cars cannot enter city	Transport problem	Underdeveloped service culture	.

that the visitor cannot enter Karbala in his car.[15]				

4) Perception of Manager (M, 31, university graduate) **Hotel 3 VN850013**

Interview data	*Data reduction*	*Theme*	*Category*	*Comments/observations*
For various purposes, and most of our visitors are VIPs, and most of these are from the Gulf, and some from India and the European Union and America and Belgium.	VIP guests from different countries	Cross cultural service environment	Cross cultural service environment	
I have 11 Bengali workers, and I have one Iraqi employee for maintenance work; so we can communicate with him; although our foreign workers speak Arabic and English.	Majority of workers are foreign	Unavailable skilled local workers		
most of the Bengali workers were working in Saudia and Dubai; they know what service the visitor wants from them	Bengalese know service	Local worker has insufficient service knowledge	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
No, the issue is not of wages; the Iraqi worker we give the highest wage and we welcome him and have no problems with him,	High wages for Iraqi worker Welcoming Iraqi workers	Skilled local worker is scarce		
but in the hotels in general, the Iraqi worker, with all due	Iraqi worker leaves work	Local worker lacks motivation to work	Motivation	Cultural intelligence

[15] Guest is brought in by a man-pushed wooden cart; in what age are we living! As a result, the visitor arrives at our place angry because of city border control and transport. So, we bear the brunt, and the burden on us is heavy in terms of satisfying him

respect, has become like a disease, he has no intention of continuation in work				
...we do not refuse any service for the customer except anything to do with sex or alcohol	Offering services except alcohol and sex	Offering service within local culture		
The Lebanese wants breakfast only; for the rest of the visitors we have an open buffet. “Satisfying people is an unachievable goal.”	Satisfying guests unachievable	Performance problem	Task Treatment Tangible	3T Performance
A guest arrives; he normally lives in a big villa, especially the Gulf Arabs, and he is very comfortable there. Here the situation is different, the nearer you come to the Centre of the City, the hotel rooms become smaller.	Well to do guests offered small rooms	Problem with tangible	Tangible	Service quality
For example, the female visitor uses the room and the bathroom, and then she complains: she is not comfortable. We meet her demand, bear the cost of washing of the linen and towels she used, and offer her a new room. Satisfying the customer 100% does not exist...	Guest required and given a different room Satisfying guests is difficult	Offering service through tangibles Problem with service quality	Tangible	Service quality
Always, the employee who is the first to meet the customer must be smiling [16]	Smiling employee	Offering treatment	Treatment	3T Performance

[16] Researcher observation: (Although, when I entered his office, his face was grim; I could have been a new guest)

...an incident I experienced; a woman from Oman wanted golden tea cups and saucers. She kept insisting more than once; I sent someone to buy them for her. When I gave the cups and saucers to the women, she exclaimed: “Yaa” (wow), I didn’t want them, why did you do it, I was joking with you.	Buying tea cups requested by a guest Guest was joking	Offering treatment through tangible Problem with language code	Treatment Tangible Cognition	3T Performance Cultural intelligence
In addition, the visitor from the Gulf brings his servant with him, but we do not allow the servant to offer him services inside the hotel. It is possible that the servant may bring things to the visitors from outside the hotel.	Own servant not allowed to serve			
The visitors that we feel most comfortable with are the Iraqis.	Comfortable with Iraqi guests	No problem with guests from own culture		
As for the different nationalities; the Tanzanians who live in Europe, America and Britain, are by their very nature content; for everything he says, thank you.	Tanzanians guests are content	Cultured guests are motivating	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
And the most irritating are the Kuwaiti guests, because they feel that they are higher than us and we are less than them. They consider that people are less than them, and they show this even in the way	Kuwaitis are irritating Looking down at people	Difficult guests are not motivating	Motivation	Cultural intelligence

they deal with people.				
I like the Emiratis, Omanis, but I hate the Kuwaitis. For example, two guests arrive and I only have one room, one is Omani and one is Kuwaiti; I choose the Omani because he is easy to satisfy. The Kuwaiti, whatever you offer him he is not satisfied; you offer him "your eyes" and he is not satisfied or contented.	Emiratis and Omanis are liked, Kuwaitis hated Kuwaitis are never satisfied	Difficult guests are not motivating	Motivation	Cultural intelligence
Sometimes, I refuse to offer him a room, because most Kuwaiti tourists make problems that we prefer to avoid. I mean the simplest of things; if the worker is late in delivering the service no more 3 minutes, we get a hail of loud complaints and bad temper.	Refuse Kuwaitis They make problems Complain loudly Bad temper	Difficult guests are not motivating	Motivation	Cultural intelligence

5) Perception of guest from the Emirates, Dubai
Guest 1 (F, 55) – Hotel 3

Interview data	*Data reduction*	*Theme*	*Category*	*Comments/observations*
Yes, my sister and my relatives here.[17] It is the best hotel compared with others I have been in	Frequent guest, loyalty Best hotel	Offering good performance	Task Treatment Tangible	3T Performance

[17] Have you been in this hotel before?

Cleanliness; I lived in another hotel, it was cleaner than here, but the people over there made me tired; their treatment, they did not respond quickly. [18]	Cleanliness not enough Made me tired Response not quick	Offering tangible not enough Low response	Tangible Responsiveness Treatment	Service quality 3T Performance
I swore I will not go again to that hotel.[19] I mean I stayed with them 12 days, they hurt me; I quarrel with them every day, I fight with them; I told them I will expose you, your service. I used to stand in front of the reception, and shout: you have hurt me, may God hurt you	Guest is hurt She quarrels Threatened to expose hotel	Lack of empathy with guests; lack of responsiveness; lack of assurance	Empathy Responsiveness Assurance	Service quality
They remain silent.	Met with silence	Lack of responsiveness	Responsiveness	Service quality
...until now nothing I asked for came late.	Nothing came late	doing tasks promptly	Task	3T Performance
But I wanted a bigger room than the one I have; they said all the rooms were taken by the Kuwaitis	Not providing bigger room	Not responsive	Responsiveness	Service quality
... by God, everything is good here, especially the Bangladeshi servants	Good service, especially Bangladeshi workers	Good service provided by foreign workers		
... the Bangladeshis in our country, I know their language and I talk to them in their own language.	Guest speaks Bangladeshi	Language affects service performance and quality		

[18] This is the service of previous hotel (4)

[19] This is the service of previous hotel (4)

6) Perception of guest: Kuwaiti
Guest 2 VN850014(M, 30s)- Hotel 3

Interview data	*Data reduction*	*Theme*	*Category*	*Comments/observations*
This is the nearest hotel, and has good youthful service providers, their treatment is nice and sophisticated, and seamless service	Near Good sophisticated service Nice treatment	Offering very good treatment and Quality of service	Treatment	3T Performance
...I have been here before; this is the fourth time, I have now relationships and friendships.	Frequent guests Lasting friendship	Good interactive treatment	Treatment	3T Performance
They always meet my needs quickly,	Meeting needs	Offering treatment and doing tasks promptly	Task Treatment	3T Performance
but in times of heavy demand, I notice they delay a bit; but we know this happens everywhere	Delays in heavy demand	Problem with responsiveness	Responsiveness	Service quality

7) Perception of manager (M 41, university graduate) – Receptionist (w)
Hotel 4 (VN850015)

Interview data	*Data reduction*	*Theme*	*Category*	*Comments/observations*
Most are from the Gulf: Emirates, Bahrain, Oman, Kuwait; Germans; Turks; Tanzanian delegations; Iranian VIPs. Some in groups, others, individuals. The Turks and Germans they come as individuals.	Foreign guests	Foreign guests from all over	Cross cultural service environment	

Some come for religious tourism, some for trade and investment.				
English, Iranian, Urdu, and the people from the Gulf are of course, Arabic. [20]	Guests speak English, Iranian, Urdu	Knowing languages needed	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
And we have Mohammed who is originally Iranian and speaks the language.	Local worker, Iranian origin	Local worker knowing Iranian culture and language	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
Sabah and Raed speak English well.	Speak English	Knowing language	Cognition	Cultural intelligence
We have a big number of workers, and you can find them on every floor with their floor manager. We have 4 floors, every floor has an Iraqi manager and the workers are from Bangladesh.	Iraqi supervisors Bangladeshi workers	Front line workers are local; other service providing workers are foreign		
We of course have power cuts, to transfer power takes 3 to 5 minutes. Our instructions to our workers, whatever the customers say in these periods do not argue with them.	Power cuts Workers not to argue with guests	Tangible problems Good treatment	Underdeveloped service culture Treatment	 3T Performance
We have trained them, and they have years of work experience now. And our instructions are continuously enforced. We use the incentive and punishment system	Enforcing instructions	Assuring guests	Assurance	Service quality

[20] The languages of foreign guests

The Iraqis we have are managers and administrators, not workers. The Bengali worker works harder, the Iraqi is not fit for offering service; the Iraqi wants to give orders.	Managers are Iraqis Bengalese are hard service workers			
We know the different characteristics of these customers. And the workers, as a result of our constant instruction acquired this knowledge and learnt.	Knowledge of characteristics of foreign guests Workers learnt	Knowing and learning of guest characteristic	Meta-cognition	Cultural intelligence
Also our meeting with our staff is on a daily basis. For example, we now have a person from the Gulf; he wants his room to be cleaned three times a day. This is an ordinary thing for us and it is his right as a customer. Also, I instruct them: if the customer wants cleaning the room five times a day, then do that. Some Iranians do not accept anyone to enter their room three days on row, we respond to their wishes.	Cleaning room frequently Guest is right Meeting guests' demands	Responding to different guests needs	Behaviour Responsiveness	Cultural intelligence Service quality
Yes [the customer complains], but at the same time I have workers who complain of customers	Guests complain Workers complain of guests	Problem in interacting with guests	Treatment	3T Performance
We must understand the problem from both sides. But we fault the worker of	Guest is always right	Responding to guests' complaints	Responsiveness	Service quality

course, because the customer is always right				
...any service we are able to offer we will do, inside or outside during the guest residence with us. For example, purchase of medicine, calling a doctor, buying local cake, helping people with wheel chairs going round.	Meeting guests needs Medicine, doctor, local cake, wheel chairs	Willingness to provide extra service. Doing tasks Offering treatment Offering tangibles	Motivation Task Treatment Tangible	Cultural intelligence 3T Performance
And this created lasting relationship and ongoing communication with the customers.	Lasting relationship Ongoing communication	Displaying appropriate behaviour and treatment	Behaviour Treatment	Cultural intelligence 3T Performance
The night shift workers were a bit slow and we have replaced them.[21]	Slow workers were replaced	Acknowledging improper treatment of guest, and responded	Treatment Responsiveness	3T Performance Service quality
We offer open buffet; nine types of food, including: meat, chicken, fish to the extent that the visitors say: enough, we will be like monsters from the quantity of meat we eat; we need vegetables.	Open buffet Plenty of meaty food Guest had enough meat They ask for vegetables	Forcing local food cultures	Underdeveloped service culture	

[21] Referring to guest 1 of hotel 3

Appendix 4 Ethics Committee Approval

Date: 26 July 2011

Ethics Committee Approval
Ms Elham Alshaibani's PhD Research

The Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Design, Media & Management, whose members are listed below, has met on 21 July 2011 to consider the fitness and ethical appropriateness of the research methodological design of a number of PhD projects. In this meeting, the Committee has considered the PhD research proposal of Ms Elham Alshaibani, whose study focuses on investigating foreign guests' perception of hotel service quality in her home City of Karbala – Iraq. Elham is attempting to develop a conceptual framework based on Empirical study which will link the concept of 'cultural intelligence' of hotel front-line service employees to the notion of 'service quality' through 'total quality management' constructs; her aim is to improve the quality of hotel service in the City.
She is intending to use qualitative and quantitative methods. She has designed three different questionnaires to collect quantitative data from front line hotel employees, their guests and their managers. She has also produced interview guides for the collection of qualitative data from these three groups of respondents, with the aim of gaining a deeper understanding of the sources of the service quality problem.

In this meeting, members of the Committee have asked, and discussed at length with, Elham issues relating to the fitness and appropriateness of the data collection instruments, and have suggested a number of changes to these instruments; they have also required assurances relating to confidentiality and anonymity of respondents.

Subsequent to the meeting, Elham has given a detailed response, where she has undertaken the required changes and addressed the issues raised by the Committee.

Accordingly, members of the Committee have decided to approve her research proposal and data collection instruments; they look forward to further reporting about her research and to read the findings.

Professor Barbara Humberstone
Chair of DMM Ethics Committee

Committee Members:
Prof Barbara Humberstone
Dr Ben Clayton
Dr Jonathan Lewis
Dr Anne Evans
Mr Russel Stone
Ms Anne Murray (Secretary to Committee)

Appendix 5 Direct relationships (CI-EP)

5.1 CI – Tas

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TAS	3.4156	.79734	201
AGE	34.1045	9.34527	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPER	1.6368	.63438	201
MET	3.4940	.81304	201
COG	3.6750	.70292	201
MOT	3.4746	.70866	201
BEH	3.3791	.71257	201

Correlations

		TAS	AGE	GENDER	EXPER	MET	COG	MOT	BEH
Pearson Correlation	TAS	1.000	-.069	.022	-.023	.676	.196	.384	.070
	AGE	-.069	1.000	.069	.024	.010	.006	.130	-.088
	GENDER	.022	.069	1.000	.058	.032	-.001	.060	.102
	EXPER	-.023	.024	.058	1.000	-.058	.068	.029	.138
	MET	.676	.010	.032	-.058	1.000	.232	.442	.135
	COG	.196	.006	-.001	.068	.232	1.000	.158	.134
	MOT	.384	.130	.060	.029	.442	.158	1.000	.188
	BEH	.070	-.088	.102	.138	.135	.134	.188	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TAS	.	.165	.378	.375	.000	.003	.000	.161
	AGE	.165	.	.166	.367	.446	.467	.033	.108
	GENDER	.378	.166	.	.209	.328	.493	.197	.075
	EXPER	.375	.367	.209	.	.209	.167	.339	.025
	MET	.000	.446	.328	.209	.	.000	.000	.028
	COG	.003	.467	.493	.167	.000	.	.012	.029
	MOT	.000	.033	.197	.339	.000	.012	.	.004
	BEH	.161	.108	.075	.025	.028	.029	.004	.
N	TAS	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	MET	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	COG	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	MOT	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	BEH	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPER, AGE, GENDER[b]		. Enter
2	MET, BEH, COG, MOT[b]		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TAS

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.077[a]	.006	-.009	.80098	.006	.396	3	197	.756
2	.691[b]	.478	.459	.58646	.472	43.620	4	193	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER, MET, BEH, COG, MOT

c. Dependent Variable: TAS

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.762	3	.254	.396	.756[b]
	Residual	126.388	197	.642		
	Total	127.150	200			
2	Regression	60.772	7	8.682	25.242	.000[c]
	Residual	66.379	193	.344		
	Total	127.150	200			

a. Dependent Variable: TAS

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER, MET, BEH, COG, MOT

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	3.438	.611		5.624	.000			
	AGE	-.006	.006	-.070	-.988	.324	-.069	-.070	-.070
	GENDER	.226	.571	.028	.396	.693	.022	.028	.028
	EXPER	-.028	.089	-.023	-.318	.751	-.023	-.023	-.023
2	(Constant)	1.040	.528		1.968	.050			
	AGE	-.008	.005	-.097	-1.831	.069	-.069	-.131	-.095
	GENDER	.050	.421	.006	.118	.906	.022	.008	.006
	EXPER	.020	.067	.016	.304	.761	-.023	.022	.016
	MET	**.608**	**.058**	**.620**	10.444	**.000**	.676	.601	.543
	COG	.045	.061	.039	.727	.468	.196	.052	.038
	MOT	**.142**	**.067**	**.126**	2.116	**.036**	.384	.151	.110
	BEH	-.061	.061	-.054	-.997	.320	.070	-.072	-.052

a. Dependent Variable: TAS

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	MET	.678[b]	12.914	.000	.678	.995
	COG	.199[b]	2.846	.005	.199	.995
	MOT	.401[b]	6.068	.000	.398	.980
	BEH	.067[b]	.920	.358	.066	.963

a. Dependent Variable: TAS

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			EXPER	AGE	GENDER	MET	BEH	COG	MOT
1	Correlations	EXPER	1.000	-.020	-.056				
		AGE	-.020	1.000	-.068				

		GENDER	-.056	-.068	1.000				
	Covariances	EXPER	.008	-1.102E-5	-.003				
		AGE	-1.102E-5	3.692E-5	.000				
		GENDER	-.003	.000	.327				
2	Correlations	EXPER	1.000	-.029	-.044	.097	-.131	-.069	-.031
		AGE	-.029	1.000	-.072	.045	.122	-.005	-.152
		GENDER	-.044	-.072	1.000	-.012	-.095	.025	-.026
		MET	.097	.045	-.012	1.000	-.046	-.183	-.415
		BEH	-.131	.122	-.095	-.046	1.000	-.090	-.145
		COG	-.069	-.005	.025	-.183	-.090	1.000	-.046
		MOT	-.031	-.152	-.026	-.415	-.145	-.046	1.000
	Covariances	EXPER	.004	-8.735E-6	-.001	.000	-.001	.000	.000
		AGE	-8.735E-6	2.047E-5	.000	1.188E-5	3.347E-5	-1.509E-6	-4.585E-5
		GENDER	-.001	.000	.177	.000	-.002	.001	-.001
		MET	.000	1.188E-5	.000	.003	.000	-.001	-.002
		BEH	-.001	3.347E-5	-.002	.000	.004	.000	-.001
		COG	.000	-1.509E-6	.001	-.001	.000	.004	.000
		MOT	.000	-4.585E-5	-.001	-.002	-.001	.000	.004

a. Dependent Variable: TAS

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.9478	4.5191	3.4156	.55123	201
Std. Predicted Value	-2.663	2.002	.000	1.000	201
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.058	.423	.110	.039	201
Adjusted Predicted Value	1.9051	4.5177	3.4175	.55458	201
Residual	-2.01051	1.60752	.00000	.57610	201
Std. Residual	-3.428	2.741	.000	.982	201
Stud. Residual	-3.576	2.786	-.002	1.003	201
Deleted Residual	-2.18696	1.66110	-.00184	.60082	201
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3.691	2.837	-.003	1.014	201
Mahal. Distance	.994	102.990	6.965	10.117	201
Cook's Distance	.000	.168	.005	.017	201
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.515	.035	.051	201

a. Dependent Variable: TAS

5.2 CI – Tre

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201

Correlations

		tre	AGE	GENDER	EXPERIENCE	met	cog	mot	beh
Pearson Correlation	tre	1.000	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218
	AGE	.041	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075
	GENDER	.074	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100
	EXPERIENCE	-.004	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133
	met	.143	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130
	cog	.520	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190
	mot	-.030	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130
	beh	.218	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	tre	.	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001
	AGE	.280	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145
	GENDER	.147	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078
	EXPERIENCE	.476	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030
	met	.021	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003
	mot	.334	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033
	beh	.001	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.
N	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: tre

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.083[a]	.007	-.008	.84750	.007	.459	3	197	.711
2	.558[b]	.311	.286	.71330	.304	21.274	4	193	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.989	3	.330	.459	.711[b]
	Residual	141.496	197	.718		
	Total	142.485	200			
2	Regression	44.286	7	6.327	12.434	.000[c]
	Residual	98.198	193	.509		
	Total	142.485	200			

a. Dependent Variable: tre

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.704	.647		4.179	.000		
	AGE	.003	.006	.037	.514	.608	.995	1.005
	GENDER	.614	.605	.072	1.016	.311	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	-.012	.094	-.009	-.128	.898	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	1.239	.645		1.922	.056		
	AGE	-.002	.005	-.025	-.404	.686	.963	1.039
	GENDER	.265	.512	.031	.518	.605	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.056	.081	-.042	-.698	.486	.968	1.033
	met	-.119	.072	-.114	-1.650	.101	.748	1.336
	cog	.681	.084	.562	8.139	.000	.748	1.337
	mot	-.118	.075	-.098	-1.580	.116	.928	1.078
	beh	.165	.074	.140	2.240	.026	.919	1.088

a. Dependent Variable: tre

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.140[b]	1.989	.048	.141	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.522[b]	8.477	.000	.518	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	-.029[b]	-.412	.681	-.029	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.222[b]	3.149	.002	.219	.967	1.034	.967

a. Dependent Variable: tre

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions							
				(Constant)	AGE	GENDER	EXPERIENCE	met	cog	mot	beh
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01				
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87				
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12				
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01				
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01

a. Dependent Variable: tre

5.3 CI – Tan

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TAN	3.2999	1.13910	201
AGE	34.1045	9.34527	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPER	1.6368	.63438	201
MET	3.4940	.81304	201
COG	3.6750	.70292	201
MOT	3.4746	.70866	201
BEH	3.3791	.71257	201

Correlations

		TAN	AGE	GENDER	EXPER	MET	COG	MOT	BEH
Pearson Correlation	TAN	1.000	-.002	-.064	.213	-.025	.573	-.036	.072
	AGE	-.002	1.000	.069	.024	.010	.006	.130	-.088
	GENDER	-.064	.069	1.000	.058	.032	-.001	.060	.102
	EXPER	.213	.024	.058	1.000	-.058	.068	.029	.138
	MET	-.025	.010	.032	-.058	1.000	.232	.442	.135
	COG	.573	.006	-.001	.068	.232	1.000	.158	.134
	MOT	-.036	.130	.060	.029	.442	.158	1.000	.188
	BEH	.072	-.088	.102	.138	.135	.134	.188	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TAN	.	.488	.182	.001	.361	.000	.304	.154
	AGE	.488	.	.166	.367	.446	.467	.033	.108
	GENDER	.182	.166	.	.209	.328	.493	.197	.075
	EXPER	.001	.367	.209	.	.209	.167	.339	.025
	MET	.361	.446	.328	.209	.	.000	.000	.028
	COG	.000	.467	.493	.167	.000	.	.012	.029
	MOT	.304	.033	.197	.339	.000	.012	.	.004
	BEH	.154	.108	.075	.025	.028	.029	.004	.
N	TAN	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	MET	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	COG	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	MOT	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	BEH	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPER, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	MET, BEH, COG, MOT[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TAN

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.226[a]	.051	.037	1.11800	.051	3.540	3	197	.016
2	.626[b]	.391	.369	.90464	.340	26.970	4	193	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER, MET, BEH, COG, MOT

c. Dependent Variable: TAN

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	13.275	3	4.425	3.540	.016[b]
	Residual	246.235	197	1.250		
	Total	259.510	200			
2	Regression	101.563	7	14.509	17.729	.000[c]
	Residual	157.947	193	.818		
	Total	259.510	200			

a. Dependent Variable: TAN

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER, MET, BEH, COG, MOT

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	3.556	.853		4.167	.000			
	AGE	.000	.008	-.002	-.032	.975	-.002	-.002	-.002
	GENDER	-.877	.798	-.077	-1.100	.273	-.064	-.078	-.076
	EXPER	.390	.125	.217	3.124	.002	.213	.217	.217
2	(Constant)	.951	.815		1.167	.245			
	AGE	.001	.007	.007	.126	.900	-.002	.009	.007
	GENDER	-.754	.649	-.066	-1.161	.247	-.064	-.083	-.065
	EXPER	.305	.103	.170	2.975	.003	.213	.209	.167
	MET	-.164	.090	-.117	-1.825	.070	-.025	-.130	-.102
	COG	.974	.094	.601	10.310	.000	.573	.596	.579
	MOT	-.134	.103	-.083	-1.295	.197	-.036	-.093	-.073
	BEH	.012	.094	.007	.125	.900	.072	.009	.007

a. Dependent Variable: TAN

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	MET	-.010[b]	-.149	.882	-.011	.995
	COG	.561[b]	9.828	.000	.575	.995
	MOT	-.039[b]	-.550	.583	-.039	.980
	BEH	.052[b]	.733	.464	.052	.963

a. Dependent Variable: TAN

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPER, AGE, GENDER

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			EXPER	AGE	GENDER	MET	BEH	COG	MOT
1	Correlations	EXPER	1.000	-.020	-.056				
		AGE	-.020	1.000	-.068				
		GENDER	-.056	-.068	1.000				
	Covariances	EXPER	.016	-2.146E-5	-.006				
		AGE	-2.146E-5	7.193E-5	.000				
		GENDER	-.006	.000	.636				
2	Correlations	EXPER	1.000	-.029	-.044	.097	-.131	-.069	-.031
		AGE	-.029	1.000	-.072	.045	.122	-.005	-.152
		GENDER	-.044	-.072	1.000	-.012	-.095	.025	-.026
		MET	.097	.045	-.012	1.000	-.046	-.183	-.415
		BEH	-.131	.122	-.095	-.046	1.000	-.090	-.145
		COG	-.069	-.005	.025	-.183	-.090	1.000	-.046
		MOT	-.031	-.152	-.026	-.415	-.145	-.046	1.000
	Covariances	EXPER	.011	-2.078E-5	-.003	.001	-.001	-.001	.000
		AGE	-2.078E-5	4.871E-5	.000	2.827E-5	7.964E-5	-3.591E-6	.000
		GENDER	-.003	.000	.422	-.001	-.006	.002	-.002
		MET	.001	2.827E-5	-.001	.008	.000	-.002	-.004
		BEH	-.001	7.964E-5	-.006	.000	.009	-.001	-.001
		COG	-.001	-3.591E-6	.002	-.002	-.001	.009	.000
		MOT	.000	.000	-.002	-.004	-.001	.000	.011

a. Dependent Variable: TAN

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.4218	4.9475	3.2999	.71261	201
Std. Predicted Value	-2.636	2.312	.000	1.000	201
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.090	.652	.170	.060	201
Adjusted Predicted Value	1.3907	5.0006	3.2984	.71497	201
Residual	-2.19372	2.33008	.00000	.88867	201
Std. Residual	-2.425	2.576	.000	.982	201
Stud. Residual	-2.476	2.656	.001	1.000	201
Deleted Residual	-2.28676	2.47849	.00153	.92168	201
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.510	2.699	.000	1.006	201
Mahal. Distance	.994	102.990	6.965	10.117	201
Cook's Distance	.000	.056	.005	.008	201
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.515	.035	.051	201

a. Dependent Variable: TAN

Appendix 6 Direct relationships (EP-SQ)

6.1 Employee performance-Reliability (EP-Rel)

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
REL	3.4165	.80683	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
tan	3.2983	1.13789	201

Correlations

		REL	tas	tre	tan
Pearson Correlation	REL	1.000	.072	.939	-.135
	tas	.072	1.000	-.007	.086
	tre	.939	-.007	1.000	-.167
	tan	-.135	.086	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	REL	.	.156	.000	.028
	tas	.156	.	.461	.113
	tre	.000	.461	.	.009
	tan	.028	.113	.009	.
N	REL	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201
	tan	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	tan, tas, tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.942[a]	.888	.886	.27192	.888	521.293	3	197	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	115.630	3	38.543	521.293	.000[b]
	Residual	14.566	197	.074		
	Total	130.196	200			

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.078	.125		.624	.534		
	tas	.066	.021	.077	3.213	.002	.993	1.007
	tre	.901	.023	.942	38.978	.000	.972	1.029
	tan	.011	.017	.015	.618	.537	.965	1.036

a. Dependent Variable: REL

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			tan	tas	tre
1	Correlations	tan	1.000	-.086	.167
		tas	-.086	1.000	-.008
		tre	.167	-.008	1.000
	Covariances	tan	.000	-3.042E-5	6.626E-5
		tas	-3.042E-5	.000	-3.592E-6
		tre	6.626E-5	-3.592E-6	.001

a. Dependent Variable: REL

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	tas	tre	tan
1	1	3.822	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01
	2	.099	6.207	.00	.02	.16	.70
	3	.062	7.848	.00	.73	.27	.06
	4	.017	14.890	.99	.24	.58	.23

a. Dependent Variable: REL

6.2 Employee performance - Responsiveness (EP- Res)

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RES	3.2850	1.05656	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
tan	3.2983	1.13789	201

Correlations

		RES	tas	tre	tan
Pearson Correlation	RES	1.000	.069	-.089	.959
	tas	.069	1.000	-.007	.086
	tre	-.089	-.007	1.000	-.167
	tan	.959	.086	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	RES	.	.166	.105	.000
	tas	.166	.	.461	.113
	tre	.105	.461	.	.009
	tan	.000	.113	.009	.
N	RES	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201
	tan	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	tan, tas, tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.962[a]	.925	.924	.29136	.925	810.997	3	197	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	206.542	3	68.847	810.997	.000[b]
	Residual	16.724	197	.085		
	Total	223.266	200			

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.049	.133		.364	.716		
	tas	-.016	.022	-.014	-.723	.471	.993	1.007
	tre	**.092**	**.025**	**.073**	3.700	**.000**	.972	1.029
	tan	.903	.018	.972	48.990	.000	.965	1.036

a. Dependent Variable: RES

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			tan	tas	tre
1	Correlations	tan	1.000	-.086	.167
		tas	-.086	1.000	-.008
		tre	.167	-.008	1.000
	Covariances	tan	.000	-3.493E-5	7.608E-5
		tas	-3.493E-5	.000	-4.124E-6
		tre	7.608E-5	-4.124E-6	.001

a. Dependent Variable: RES

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	tas	tre	tan
1	1	3.822	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01
	2	.099	6.207	.00	.02	.16	.70
	3	.062	7.848	.00	.73	.27	.06
	4	.017	14.890	.99	.24	.58	.23

a. Dependent Variable: RES

6.3 Employee performance - Assurance (EP- Ass)

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ASS	3.5395	.62094	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
tan	3.2983	1.13789	201

Correlations

		ASS	tas	tre	tan
Pearson Correlation	ASS	1.000	.268	.497	.046
	tas	.268	1.000	-.007	.086
	tre	.497	-.007	1.000	-.167
	tan	.046	.086	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	ASS	.	.000	.000	.259
	tas	.000	.	.461	.113
	tre	.000	.461	.	.009
	tan	.259	.113	.009	.
N	ASS	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201
	tan	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	tan, tas, tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.577[a]	.333	.322	.51115	.333	32.714	3	197	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	25.642	3	8.547	32.714	.000[b]
	Residual	51.472	197	.261		
	Total	77.114	200			

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.446	.234		6.177	.000		
	tas	**.174**	**.039**	**.263**	4.495	**.000**	.993	1.007
	tre	**.380**	**.043**	**.517**	8.759	**.000**	.972	1.029
	tan	.060	.032	.109	1.847	.066	.965	1.036

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			tan	tas	tre
1	Correlations	tan	1.000	-.086	.167
		tas	-.086	1.000	-.008
		tre	.167	-.008	1.000
	Covariances	tan	.001	.000	.000
		tas	.000	.001	-1.269E-5
		tre	.000	-1.269E-5	.002

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	tas	tre	tan
1	1	3.822	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01
	2	.099	6.207	.00	.02	.16	.70
	3	.062	7.848	.00	.73	.27	.06
	4	.017	14.890	.99	.24	.58	.23

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

6.4 Employee performance - Empathy (EP- Emp)

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
EMP	3.7308	.58089	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
tan	3.2983	1.13789	201

Correlations

		EMP	tas	tre	tan
Pearson Correlation	EMP	1.000	.295	.069	.473
	tas	.295	1.000	-.007	.086
	tre	.069	-.007	1.000	-.167
	tan	.473	.086	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	EMP	.	.000	.167	.000
	tas	.000	.	.461	.113
	tre	.167	.461	.	.009
	tan	.000	.113	.009	.
N	EMP	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201
	tan	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	tan, tas, tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.558[a]	.311	.301	.48582	.311	29.645	3	197	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.991	3	6.997	29.645	.000[b]
	Residual	46.496	197	.236		
	Total	67.486	200			

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.035	.223		9.143	.000		
	tas	**.158**	**.037**	**.255**	4.294	**.000**	.993	1.007
	tre	**.103**	**.041**	**.150**	2.497	**.013**	.972	1.029
	tan	.243	.031	**.477**	7.916	**.000**	.965	1.036

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			tan	tas	tre
1	Correlations	tan	1.000	-.086	.167
		tas	-.086	1.000	-.008
		tre	.167	-.008	1.000
	Covariances	tan	.001	-9.711E-5	.000
		tas	-9.711E-5	.001	-1.147E-5
		tre	.000	-1.147E-5	.002

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	tas	tre	tan
1	1	3.822	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01
	2	.099	6.207	.00	.02	.16	.70
	3	.062	7.848	.00	.73	.27	.06
	4	.017	14.890	.99	.24	.58	.23

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

6.5 Employee performance - Tangibles (EP- Tang)

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TANG	3.4052	.89794	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
tan	3.2983	1.13789	201

Correlations

		TANG	tas	tre	tan
Pearson Correlation	TANG	1.000	.917	-.006	.116
	tas	.917	1.000	-.007	.086
	tre	-.006	-.007	1.000	-.167
	tan	.116	.086	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TANG	.	.000	.465	.050
	tas	.000	.	.461	.113
	tre	.465	.461	.	.009
	tan	.050	.113	.009	.
N	TANG	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201
	tan	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	tan, tas, tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.918[a]	.842	.840	.35945	.842	350.365	3	197	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	135.806	3	45.269	350.365	.000[b]
	Residual	25.453	197	.129		
	Total	161.259	200			

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

b. Predictors: (Constant), tan, tas, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.281	.165		1.708	.089		
	tas	.876	.027	.914	32.156	.000	.993	1.007
	tre	.007	.031	.007	.228	.820	.972	1.029
	tan	.031	.023	.039	1.349	.179	.965	1.036

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	tas	tre	tan
1	1	3.822	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01
	2	.099	6.207	.00	.02	.16	.70
	3	.062	7.848	.00	.73	.27	.06
	4	.017	14.890	.99	.24	.58	.23

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

Appendix 7 Mediated relationships (CI-EP-SQ)

7.1 CI –Tas – Rel

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
REL	3.4165	.80683	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201

Correlations

		REL	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
Pearson Correlation	REL	1.000	.044	.026	-.021	.213	.499	-.012	.201	.072
	AGE	.044	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	-.057
	GENDER	.026	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.013
	EXPERIENCE	-.021	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.021
	met	.213	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.549
	cog	.499	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.264
	mot	-.012	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	.238
	beh	.201	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.084
	tas	.072	-.057	.013	-.021	.549	.264	.238	.084	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	REL	.	.266	.357	.384	.001	.000	.430	.002	.156
	AGE	.266	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.209
	GENDER	.357	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.430
	EXPERIENCE	.384	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.384
	met	.001	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.000
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.430	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.000
	beh	.002	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.118
	tas	.156	.209	.430	.384	.000	.000	.000	.118	.
N	REL	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tas[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.055[a]	.003	-.012	.81172	.003	.200	3	197	.897
2	.522[b]	.273	.246	.70037	.270	17.905	4	193	.000
3	.525[c]	.276	.245	.70091	.003	.700	1	192	.404

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.394	3	.131	.200	.897[b]
	Residual	129.802	197	.659		
	Total	130.196	200			
2	Regression	35.526	7	5.075	10.347	.000[c]
	Residual	94.670	193	.491		
	Total	130.196	200			
3	Regression	35.870	8	4.484	9.127	.000[d]
	Residual	94.326	192	.491		
	Total	130.196	200			

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.138	.620		5.064	.000		
	AGE	.004	.006	.043	.605	.546	.995	1.005
	GENDER	.198	.579	.024	.341	.733	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	-.029	.090	-.023	-.322	.748	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	1.624	.633		2.566	.011		
	AGE	-.001	.005	-.012	-.187	.852	.963	1.039
	GENDER	-.126	.503	-.016	-.250	.803	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.060	.079	-.048	-.762	.447	.968	1.033
	met	**-.013**	**.071**	**-.013**	-.186	.853	.748	1.336
	cog	**.577**	**.082**	**.498**	7.024	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	-.107	.073	-.093	-1.466	.144	.928	1.078
	beh	.144	.072	**.127**	1.988	**.048**	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	1.674	.636		2.631	.009		
	AGE	-.001	.005	-.016	-.254	.800	.957	1.045
	GENDER	-.125	.503	-.015	-.248	.804	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.060	.079	-.048	-.762	.447	.968	1.033
	met	.019	.080	.019	.233	.816	.580	1.723
	cog	**.579**	**.082**	**.500**	7.036	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	-.099	.074	-.086	-1.339	.182	.911	1.097
	beh	.143	.072	**.127**	1.980	**.049**	.919	1.088
	tas	-.054	.064	-.062	-.837	.404	.682	1.467

a. Dependent Variable: REL

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.211[b]	3.025	.003	.211	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.504[b]	8.059	.000	.499	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	-.011[b]	-.153	.879	-.011	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.212[b]	2.990	.003	.209	.967	1.034	.967
	tas	.074[b]	1.033	.303	.074	.996	1.004	.992
2	tas	-.062[c]	-.837	.404	-.060	.682	1.467	.580

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.632	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.128	8.214	.00	.00	.00	.81	.02	.00	.00	.00	.03
	3	.080	10.358	.00	.55	.00	.05	.02	.00	.00	.00	.13
	4	.051	13.037	.00	.19	.01	.11	.03	.00	.02	.35	.21
	5	.034	15.933	.00	.00	.00	.01	.11	.31	.36	.02	.10
	6	.030	17.026	.00	.09	.00	.00	.05	.11	.33	.37	.33
	7	.021	20.252	.04	.15	.15	.01	.23	.08	.14	.24	.04
	8	.019	21.093	.02	.01	.07	.00	.53	.50	.09	.02	.16
	9	.004	45.527	.94	.02	.77	.00	.00	.01	.06	.01	.00

a. Dependent Variable: REL

7.2 CI -Tas- Res

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RES	3.2850	1.05656	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201

Correlations

		RES	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
Pearson Correlation	RES	1.000	-.008	-.067	.196	-.029	-.022	.510	.060	.069
	AGE	-.008	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	-.057
	GENDER	-.067	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.013
	EXPERIENCE	.196	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.021
	met	-.029	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.549
	cog	-.022	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.264
	mot	.510	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	.238
	beh	.060	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.084
	tas	.069	-.057	.013	-.021	.549	.264	.238	.084	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	RES	.	.453	.173	.003	.343	.379	.000	.200	.166
	AGE	.453	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.209
	GENDER	.173	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.430
	EXPERIENCE	.003	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.384
	met	.343	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.000
	cog	.379	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.000	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.000
	beh	.200	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.118
	tas	.166	.209	.430	.384	.000	.000	.000	.118	.
N	RES	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tas[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.211[a]	.045	.030	1.04055	.045	3.068	3	197	.029
2	.558[b]	.312	.287	.89227	.267	18.729	4	193	.000
3	.559[c]	.313	.284	.89399	.001	.255	1	192	.614

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.967	3	3.322	3.068	.029[b]
	Residual	213.299	197	1.083		
	Total	223.266	200			
2	Regression	69.611	7	9.944	12.491	.000[c]
	Residual	153.655	193	.796		
	Total	223.266	200			
3	Regression	69.815	8	8.727	10.919	.000[d]
	Residual	153.451	192	.799		
	Total	223.266	200			

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.601	.794		4.533	.000		
	AGE	-.001	.008	-.006	-.089	.929	.995	1.005
	GENDER	-.828	.742	-.078	-1.116	.266	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	.334	.116	.201	2.878	.004	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	1.378	.806		1.708	.089		
	AGE	.000	.007	-.003	-.053	.958	.963	1.039
	GENDER	-.670	.641	-.063	-1.045	.297	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	.260	.101	.156	2.578	.011	.968	1.033
	met	**-.163**	**.090**	-.125	-1.814	.071	.748	1.336
	cog	-.062	.105	-.041	-.590	.556	.748	1.337
	mot	.804	.093	**.534**	8.611	**.000**	.928	1.078
	beh	.000	.092	.000	-.004	.997	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	1.339	.812		1.650	.100		
	AGE	-8.639E-5	.007	-.001	-.013	.990	.957	1.045
	GENDER	-.670	.642	-.063	-1.044	.298	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	.260	.101	.157	2.573	.011	.968	1.033
	met	-.188	.102	-.144	-1.834	.068	.580	1.723
	cog	-.063	.105	-.042	-.600	.549	.748	1.337
	mot	.798	.094	**.530**	8.449	**.000**	.911	1.097
	beh	-1.173E-5	.092	.000	.000	1.000	.919	1.088
	tas	.041	.082	.037	.505	.614	.682	1.467

a. Dependent Variable: RES

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	-.015[b]	-.221	.825	-.016	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	-.023[b]	-.331	.741	-.024	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	.498[b]	8.256	.000	.508	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.042[b]	.590	.556	.042	.967	1.034	.967
	tas	.074[b]	1.059	.291	.075	.996	1.004	.992
2	tas	.037[c]	.505	.614	.036	.682	1.467	.580

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.632	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.128	8.214	.00	.00	.00	.81	.02	.00	.00	.00	.03
	3	.080	10.358	.00	.55	.00	.05	.02	.00	.00	.00	.13
	4	.051	13.037	.00	.19	.01	.11	.03	.00	.02	.35	.21
	5	.034	15.933	.00	.00	.00	.01	.11	.31	.36	.02	.10
	6	.030	17.026	.00	.09	.00	.00	.05	.11	.33	.37	.33
	7	.021	20.252	.04	.15	.15	.01	.23	.08	.14	.24	.04
	8	.019	21.093	.02	.01	.07	.00	.53	.50	.09	.02	.16
	9	.004	45.527	.94	.02	.77	.00	.00	.01	.06	.01	.00

a. Dependent Variable: RES

7.3 CI – Tas- Ass

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ASS	3.5395	.62094	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201

Correlations

		ASS	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
Pearson Correlation	ASS	1.000	.119	.034	.073	.421	.921	.172	.222	.268
	AGE	.119	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	-.057
	GENDER	.034	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.013
	EXPERIENCE	.073	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.021
	met	.421	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.549
	cog	.921	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.264
	mot	.172	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	.238
	beh	.222	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.084
	tas	.268	-.057	.013	-.021	.549	.264	.238	.084	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	ASS	.	.047	.316	.152	.000	.000	.007	.001	.000
	AGE	.047	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.209
	GENDER	.316	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.430
	EXPERIENCE	.152	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.384
	met	.000	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.000
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.007	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.000
	beh	.001	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.118
	tas	.000	.209	.430	.384	.000	.000	.000	.118	.
N	ASS	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tas[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.140[a]	.020	.005	.61948	.020	1.316	3	197	.270
2	.924[b]	.854	.848	.24179	.834	275.027	4	193	.000
3	.924[c]	.854	.848	.24182	.001	.958	1	192	.329

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.515	3	.505	1.316	.270[b]
	Residual	75.599	197	.384		
	Total	77.114	200			
2	Regression	65.831	7	9.404	160.860	.000[c]
	Residual	11.283	193	.058		
	Total	77.114	200			
3	Regression	65.887	8	8.236	140.842	.000[d]
	Residual	11.227	192	.058		
	Total	77.114	200			

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.026	.473		6.400	.000		
	AGE	.008	.005	.116	1.643	.102	.995	1.005
	GENDER	.138	.442	.022	.312	.755	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	.068	.069	.070	.988	.324	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	.626	.219		2.866	.005		
	AGE	.000	.002	-.002	-.064	.949	.963	1.039
	GENDER	-.184	.174	-.029	-1.057	.292	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	.034	.027	.035	1.247	.214	.968	1.033
	met	-.008	.024	-.011	-.341	.734	.748	1.336
	cog	.814	.028	**.913**	28.691	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	.032	.025	.037	1.278	.203	.928	1.078
	beh	.038	.025	.043	1.504	.134	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	.606	.220		2.762	.006		
	AGE	2.785E-5	.002	.000	.015	.988	.957	1.045
	GENDER	-.184	.174	-.029	-1.059	.291	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	.034	.027	.035	1.247	.214	.968	1.033
	met	-.021	.028	-.028	-.764	.446	.580	1.723
	cog	.813	.028	**.913**	28.659	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	.029	.026	.033	1.135	.258	.911	1.097
	beh	.038	.025	.043	1.512	.132	.919	1.088
	tas	.022	.022	.033	.979	.329	.682	1.467

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.425[b]	6.632	.000	.428	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.922[b]	32.995	.000	.921	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	.167[b]	2.395	.018	.169	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.227[b]	3.235	.001	.225	.967	1.034	.967
	tas	.277[b]	4.077	.000	.280	.996	1.004	.992
2	tas	.033[c]	.979	.329	.070	.682	1.467	.580

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.632	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.128	8.214	.00	.00	.00	.81	.02	.00	.00	.00	.03
	3	.080	10.358	.00	.55	.00	.05	.02	.00	.00	.00	.13
	4	.051	13.037	.00	.19	.01	.11	.03	.00	.02	.35	.21
	5	.034	15.933	.00	.00	.00	.01	.11	.31	.36	.02	.10
	6	.030	17.026	.00	.09	.00	.00	.05	.11	.33	.37	.33
	7	.021	20.252	.04	.15	.15	.01	.23	.08	.14	.24	.04
	8	.019	21.093	.02	.01	.07	.00	.53	.50	.09	.02	.16
	9	.004	45.527	.94	.02	.77	.00	.00	.01	.06	.01	.00

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

7.4 CI – Tas – Emp

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
EMP	3.7308	.58089	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201

Correlations

		EMP	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
Pearson Correlation	EMP	1.000	.017	-.007	.051	.290	.258	.922	.155	.295
	AGE	.017	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	-.057
	GENDER	-.007	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.013
	EXPERIENCE	.051	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.021
	met	.290	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.549
	cog	.258	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.264
	mot	.922	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	.238
	beh	.155	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.084
	tas	.295	-.057	.013	-.021	.549	.264	.238	.084	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	EMP	.	.406	.458	.235	.000	.000	.000	.014	.000
	AGE	.406	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.209
	GENDER	.458	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.430
	EXPERIENCE	.235	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.384
	met	.000	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.000
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.000	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.000
	beh	.014	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.118
	tas	.000	.209	.430	.384	.000	.000	.000	.118	.
N	EMP	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tas[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.055[a]	.003	-.012	.58441	.003	.199	3	197	.897
2	.931[b]	.867	.862	.21595	.864	312.434	4	193	.000
3	.932[c]	.869	.863	.21499	.002	2.729	1	192	.100

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.204	3	.068	.199	.897[b]
	Residual	67.282	197	.342		
	Total	67.486	200			
2	Regression	58.486	7	8.355	179.160	.000[c]
	Residual	9.001	193	.047		
	Total	67.486	200			
3	Regression	58.612	8	7.327	.199	.000[d]
	Residual	8.874	192	.046		
	Total	67.486	200			

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.687	.446		8.264	.000		
	AGE	.001	.004	.017	.236	.813	.995	1.005
	GENDER	-.068	.417	-.012	-.163	.871	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	.047	.065	.052	.726	.469	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	.620	.195		3.177	.002		
	AGE	.000	.002	-.004	-.159	.874	.963	1.039
	GENDER	-.034	.155	-.006	-.217	.829	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.016	.024	-.017	-.645	.520	.968	1.033
	met	.015	.022	.021	.690	.491	.748	1.336
	cog	.100	.025	**.120**	3.932	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	**.745**	**.023**	**.899**	32.938	**.000**	.928	1.078
	beh	.012	.022	.015	.545	.586	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	.590	.195		3.023	.003		
	AGE	-4.407E-5	.002	-.001	-.027	.979	.957	1.045
	GENDER	-.034	.154	-.006	-.221	.825	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.016	.024	-.017	-.647	.518	.968	1.033
	met	-.004	.025	-.006	-.173	.863	.580	1.723
	cog	.099	.025	**.118**	3.912	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	**.740**	**.023**	**.893**	32.566	**.000**	.911	1.097
	beh	.012	.022	.015	.561	.575	.919	1.088
	tas	.032	.020	.052	1.652	.100	.682	1.467

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.295[b]	4.313	.000	.294	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.261[b]	3.740	.000	.258	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	.923[b]	33.203	.000	.921	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.155[b]	2.167	.031	.153	.967	1.034	.967
	tas	.298[b]	4.370	.000	.298	.996	1.004	.992
2	tas	.052[c]	1.652	.100	.118	.682	1.467	.580

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.632	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.128	8.214	.00	.00	.00	.81	.02	.00	.00	.00	.03
	3	.080	10.358	.00	.55	.00	.05	.02	.00	.00	.00	.13
	4	.051	13.037	.00	.19	.01	.11	.03	.00	.02	.35	.21
	5	.034	15.933	.00	.00	.00	.01	.11	.31	.36	.02	.10
	6	.030	17.026	.00	.09	.00	.00	.05	.11	.33	.37	.33
	7	.021	20.252	.04	.15	.15	.01	.23	.08	.14	.24	.04
	8	.019	21.093	.02	.01	.07	.00	.53	.50	.09	.02	.16
	9	.004	45.527	.94	.02	.77	.00	.00	.01	.06	.01	.00

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

7.5 CI – Tre – Rel

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
REL	3.4165	.80683	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201

Correlations

		REL	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
Pearson Correlation	REL	1.000	.044	.026	-.021	.213	.499	-.012	.201	.939
	AGE	.044	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	.041
	GENDER	.026	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.074
	EXPERIENCE	-.021	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.004
	met	.213	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.143
	cog	.499	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.520
	mot	-.012	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	-.030
	beh	.201	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.218
	tre	.939	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	REL	.	.266	.357	.384	.001	.000	.430	.002	.000
	AGE	.266	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.280
	GENDER	.357	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.147
	EXPERIENCE	.384	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.476
	met	.001	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.021
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.430	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.334
	beh	.002	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.001
	tre	.000	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001	.
N	REL	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.055[a]	.003	-.012	.81172	.003	.200	3	197	.897
2	.522[b]	.273	.246	.70037	.270	17.905	4	193	.000
3	.944[c]	.891	.887	.27181	.618	1089.380	1	192	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.394	3	.131	.200	.897[b]
	Residual	129.802	197	.659		
	Total	130.196	200			
2	Regression	35.526	7	5.075	10.347	.000[c]
	Residual	94.670	193	.491		
	Total	130.196	200			
3	Regression	116.011	8	14.501	196.279	.000[d]
	Residual	14.185	192	.074		
	Total	130.196	200			

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.138	.620		5.064	.000		
	AGE	.004	.006	.043	.605	.546	.995	1.005
	GENDER	.198	.579	.024	.341	.733	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	-.029	.090	-.023	-.322	.748	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	1.624	.633		2.566	.011		
	AGE	-.001	.005	-.012	-.187	.852	.963	1.039
	GENDER	-.126	.503	-.016	-.250	.803	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.060	.079	-.048	-.762	.447	.968	1.033
	met	-.013	.071	-.013	-.186	.853	.748	1.336
	cog	.577	.082	**.498**	7.024	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	-.107	.073	-.093	-1.466	.144	.928	1.078
	beh	**.144**	.072	**.127**	1.988	**.048**	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	.502	.248		2.025	.044		
	AGE	.001	.002	.012	.478	.633	.962	1.040
	GENDER	-.366	.195	-.045	-1.875	.062	.979	1.022
	EXPERIENCE	-.009	.031	-.007	-.305	.761	.965	1.036
	met	.094	.028	**.095**	3.417	**.001**	.738	1.355
	cog	-.039	.037	-.034	-1.067	.287	.557	1.796
	mot	-.001	.029	-.001	-.024	.981	.916	1.092
	beh	**-.006**	.028	-.005	-.196	.845	.896	1.116
	tre	.905	.027	**.947**	33.006	**.000**	.689	1.451

a. Dependent Variable: REL

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.211[b]	3.025	.003	.211	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.504[b]	8.059	.000	.499	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	-.011[b]	-.153	.879	-.011	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.212[b]	2.990	.003	.209	.967	1.034	.967
	tre	.942[b]	38.585	.000	.940	.993	1.007	.987
2	tre	.947[c]	33.006	.000	.922	.689	1.451	.557

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.641	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.124	8.335	.00	.01	.00	.87	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
	3	.071	11.026	.00	.75	.00	.00	.02	.01	.00	.04	.04
	4	.053	12.768	.00	.02	.00	.01	.11	.01	.14	.00	.40
	5	.042	14.415	.00	.00	.01	.09	.32	.06	.02	.38	.00
	6	.029	17.236	.00	.05	.00	.00	.17	.00	.46	.43	.09
	7	.020	20.576	.05	.10	.21	.01	.01	.07	.28	.15	.00
	8	.016	23.498	.00	.05	.02	.01	.34	.84	.02	.00	.45
	9	.004	45.624	.94	.02	.76	.00	.01	.00	.07	.01	.01

a. Dependent Variable: REL

7.6 CI – Tre – Res

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RES	3.2850	1.05656	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201

Correlations

		RES	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
Pearson Correlation	RES	1.000	-.008	-.067	.196	-.029	-.022	.510	.060	-.089
	AGE	-.008	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	.041
	GENDER	-.067	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.074
	EXPERIENCE	.196	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.004
	met	-.029	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.143
	cog	-.022	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.520
	mot	.510	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	-.030
	beh	.060	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.218
	tre	-.089	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	RES	.	.453	.173	.003	.343	.379	.000	.200	.105
	AGE	.453	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.280
	GENDER	.173	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.147
	EXPERIENCE	.003	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.476
	met	.343	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.021
	cog	.379	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.000	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.334
	beh	.200	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.001
	tre	.105	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001	.
N	RES	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.211[a]	.045	.030	1.04055	.045	3.068	3	197	.029
2	.558[b]	.312	.287	.89227	.267	18.729	4	193	.000
3	.559[c]	.313	.284	.89385	.001	.317	1	192	.574

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.967	3	3.322	3.068	.029[b]
	Residual	213.299	197	1.083		
	Total	223.266	200			
2	Regression	69.611	7	9.944	12.491	.000[c]
	Residual	153.655	193	.796		
	Total	223.266	200			
3	Regression	69.865	8	8.733	10.931	.000[d]
	Residual	153.401	192	.799		
	Total	223.266	200			

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.601	.794		4.533	.000		
	AGE	-.001	.008	-.006	-.089	.929	.995	1.005
	GENDER	-.828	.742	-.078	-1.116	.266	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	.334	.116	.201	2.878	.004	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	1.378	.806		1.708	.089		
	AGE	.000	.007	-.003	-.053	.958	.963	1.039
	GENDER	-.670	.641	-.063	-1.045	.297	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	.260	.101	.156	2.578	.011	.968	1.033
	met	-.163	.090	-.125	-1.814	.071	.748	1.336
	cog	-.062	.105	-.041	-.590	.556	.748	1.337
	mot	.804	.093	**.534**	8.611	**.000**	.928	1.078
	beh	**.000**	.092	**.000**	-.004	.997	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	1.440	.816		1.766	.079		
	AGE	.000	.007	-.004	-.070	.945	.962	1.040
	GENDER	-.656	.642	-.062	-1.022	.308	.979	1.022
	EXPERIENCE	.257	.101	**.155**	2.542	**.012**	.965	1.036
	met	-.169	.091	-.130	-1.865	.064	.738	1.355
	cog	-.027	.122	-.018	-.224	.823	.557	1.796
	mot	.798	.094	**.530**	8.477	**.000**	.916	1.092
	beh	**.008**	.093	.005	.085	.932	.896	1.116
	tre	-.051	.090	-.041	-.563	.574	.689	1.451

a. Dependent Variable: RES

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	-.015[b]	-.221	.825	-.016	.996	1.004	.991

	cog	-.023[b]	-.331	.741	-.024	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	.498[b]	8.256	.000	.508	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.042[b]	.590	.556	.042	.967	1.034	.967
	tre	-.082[b]	-1.182	.239	-.084	.993	1.007	.987
2	tre	-.041[c]	-.563	.574	-.041	.689	1.451	.557

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					

	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.641	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.124	8.335	.00	.01	.00	.87	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
	3	.071	11.026	.00	.75	.00	.00	.02	.01	.00	.04	.04
	4	.053	12.768	.00	.02	.00	.01	.11	.01	.14	.00	.40
	5	.042	14.415	.00	.00	.01	.09	.32	.06	.02	.38	.00
	6	.029	17.236	.00	.05	.00	.00	.17	.00	.46	.43	.09
	7	.020	20.576	.05	.10	.21	.01	.01	.07	.28	.15	.00
	8	.016	23.498	.00	.05	.02	.01	.34	.84	.02	.00	.45
	9	.004	45.624	.94	.02	.76	.00	.01	.00	.07	.01	.01

a. Dependent Variable: RES

7.7 CI – Tre – Ass

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ASS	3.5395	.62094	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201

Correlations

		ASS	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
Pearson Correlation	ASS	1.000	.119	.034	.073	.421	.921	.172	.222	.497
	AGE	.119	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	.041
	GENDER	.034	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.074
	EXPERIENCE	.073	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.004
	met	.421	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.143
	cog	.921	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.520
	mot	.172	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	-.030
	beh	.222	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.218
	tre	.497	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	ASS	.	.047	.316	.152	.000	.000	.007	.001	.000
	AGE	.047	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.280
	GENDER	.316	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.147
	EXPERIENCE	.152	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.476
	met	.000	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.021
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.007	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.334
	beh	.001	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.001
	tre	.000	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001	.
N	ASS	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.140[a]	.020	.005	.61948	.020	1.316	3	197	.270
2	.924[b]	.854	.848	.24179	.834	275.027	4	193	.000
3	.924[c]	.854	.848	.24203	.000	.626	1	192	.430

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.515	3	.505	1.316	.270[b]
	Residual	75.599	197	.384		
	Total	77.114	200			
2	Regression	65.831	7	9.404	160.860	.000[c]
	Residual	11.283	193	.058		
	Total	77.114	200			
3	Regression	65.867	8	8.233	140.558	.000[d]
	Residual	11.247	192	.059		
	Total	77.114	200			

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.026	.473		6.400	.000		
	AGE	.008	.005	.116	1.643	.102	.995	1.005
	GENDER	.138	.442	.022	.312	.755	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	.068	.069	.070	.988	.324	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	.626	.219		2.866	.005		
	AGE	.000	.002	-.002	-.064	.949	.963	1.039
	GENDER	-.184	.174	-.029	-1.057	.292	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	.034	.027	.035	1.247	.214	.968	1.033
	met	-.008	.024	-.011	-.341	.734	.748	1.336
	cog	**.814**	.028	**.913**	28.691	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	.032	.025	**.037**	1.278	.203	.928	1.078
	beh	.038	.025	.043	1.504	.134	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	.602	.221		2.728	.007		
	AGE	-7.579E-5	.002	-.001	-.041	.968	.962	1.040
	GENDER	-.189	.174	-.030	-1.085	.279	.979	1.022
	EXPERIENCE	.035	.027	.036	1.284	.201	.965	1.036
	met	-.006	.025	-.008	-.245	.807	.738	1.355
	cog	**.801**	.033	**.899**	24.332	**.000**	.557	1.796
	mot	.035	.025	.039	1.358	.176	.916	1.092
	beh	.034	.025	.040	1.358	.176	.896	1.116
	tre	.019	.024	.026	.791	.430	.689	1.451

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.425[b]	6.632	.000	.428	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.922[b]	32.995	.000	.921	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	.167[b]	2.395	.018	.169	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.227[b]	3.235	.001	.225	.967	1.034	.967
	tre	.494[b]	8.029	.000	.498	.993	1.007	.987
2	tre	.026[c]	.791	.430	.057	.689	1.451	.557

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.641	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.124	8.335	.00	.01	.00	.87	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
	3	.071	11.026	.00	.75	.00	.00	.02	.01	.00	.04	.04
	4	.053	12.768	.00	.02	.00	.01	.11	.01	.14	.00	.40
	5	.042	14.415	.00	.00	.01	.09	.32	.06	.02	.38	.00
	6	.029	17.236	.00	.05	.00	.00	.17	.00	.46	.43	.09
	7	.020	20.576	.05	.10	.21	.01	.01	.07	.28	.15	.00
	8	.016	23.498	.00	.05	.02	.01	.34	.84	.02	.00	.45
	9	.004	45.624	.94	.02	.76	.00	.01	.00	.07	.01	.01

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

7.8 CI – Tre – Emp

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
EMP	3.7308	.58089	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201

Correlations

		EMP	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
Pearson Correlation	EMP	1.000	.017	-.007	.051	.290	.258	.922	.155	.069
	AGE	.017	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	.041
	GENDER	-.007	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.074
	EXPERIENCE	.051	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.004
	met	.290	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.143
	cog	.258	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.520
	mot	.922	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	-.030
	beh	.155	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.218
	tre	.069	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	EMP	.	.406	.458	.235	.000	.000	.000	.014	.167
	AGE	.406	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.280
	GENDER	.458	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.147
	EXPERIENCE	.235	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.476
	met	.000	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.021
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.000	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.334
	beh	.014	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.001
	tre	.167	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001	.
N	EMP	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.055[a]	.003	-.012	.58441	.003	.199	3	197	.897
2	.931[b]	.867	.862	.21595	.864	312.434	4	193	.000
3	.932[c]	.868	.862	.21558	.001	1.664	1	192	.199

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.204	3	.068	.199	.897[b]
	Residual	67.282	197	.342		
	Total	67.486	200			
2	Regression	58.486	7	8.355	179.160	.000[c]
	Residual	9.001	193	.047		
	Total	67.486	200			
3	Regression	58.563	8	7.320	157.512	.000[d]
	Residual	8.923	192	.046		
	Total	67.486	200			

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.687	.446		8.264	.000		
	AGE	.001	.004	.017	.236	.813	.995	1.005
	GENDER	-.068	.417	-.012	-.163	.871	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	.047	.065	.052	.726	.469	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	.620	.195		3.177	.002		
	AGE	.000	.002	-.004	-.159	.874	.963	1.039
	GENDER	-.034	.155	-.006	-.217	.829	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.016	.024	-.017	-.645	.520	.968	1.033
	met	.015	.022	.021	.690	.491	.748	1.336
	cog	.100	.025	**.120**	3.932	**.000**	.748	1.337
	mot	.745	.023	**.899**	32.938	**.000**	.928	1.078
	beh	**.012**	.022	**.015**	.545	.586	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	.585	.197		2.975	.003		
	AGE	.000	.002	-.003	-.122	.903	.962	1.040
	GENDER	-.041	.155	-.007	-.265	.791	.979	1.022
	EXPERIENCE	-.014	.024	-.016	-.581	.562	.965	1.036
	met	.018	.022	.026	.838	.403	.738	1.355
	cog	.081	.029	**.097**	2.747	**.007**	.557	1.796
	mot	.748	.023	**.903**	32.929	**.000**	.916	1.092
	beh	**.008**	.023	.009	.334	.739	.896	1.116
	tre	.028	.022	.041	1.290	.199	.689	1.451

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.295[b]	4.313	.000	.294	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.261[b]	3.740	.000	.258	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	.923[b]	33.203	.000	.921	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.155[b]	2.167	.031	.153	.967	1.034	.967
	tre	.069[b]	.973	.332	.069	.993	1.007	.987
2	tre	.041[c]	1.290	.199	.093	.689	1.451	.557

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.641	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.124	8.335	.00	.01	.00	.87	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
	3	.071	11.026	.00	.75	.00	.00	.02	.01	.00	.04	.04
	4	.053	12.768	.00	.02	.00	.01	.11	.01	.14	.00	.40
	5	.042	14.415	.00	.00	.01	.09	.32	.06	.02	.38	.00
	6	.029	17.236	.00	.05	.00	.00	.17	.00	.46	.43	.09
	7	.020	20.576	.05	.10	.21	.01	.01	.07	.28	.15	.00
	8	.016	23.498	.00	.05	.02	.01	.34	.84	.02	.00	.45
	9	.004	45.624	.94	.02	.76	.00	.01	.00	.07	.01	.01

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

7.9 CI – Tas – Tang

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TANG	3.4052	.89794	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201

Correlations

		TANG	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
Pearson Correlation	TANG	1.000	-.067	.011	-.044	.526	.254	.282	.073	.917
	AGE	-.067	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	-.057
	GENDER	.011	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.013
	EXPERIENCE	-.044	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.021
	met	.526	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.549
	cog	.254	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.264
	mot	.282	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	.238
	beh	.073	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.084
	tas	.917	-.057	.013	-.021	.549	.264	.238	.084	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TANG	.	.171	.441	.269	.000	.000	.000	.153	.000
	AGE	.171	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.209
	GENDER	.441	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.430
	EXPERIENCE	.269	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.384
	met	.000	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.000
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.000	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.000
	beh	.153	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.118
	tas	.000	.209	.430	.384	.000	.000	.000	.118	.
N	TANG	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tas[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.082[a]	.007	-.008	.90173	.007	.441	3	197	.724
2	.557[b]	.311	.286	.75901	.304	21.263	4	193	.000
3	.920[c]	.847	.840	.35885	.536	671.413	1	192	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.076	3	.359	.441	.724[b]
	Residual	160.183	197	.813		
	Total	161.259	200			
2	Regression	50.074	7	7.153	12.417	.000[c]
	Residual	111.186	193	.576		
	Total	161.259	200			
3	Regression	136.535	8	17.067	132.533	.000[d]
	Residual	24.725	192	.129		
	Total	161.259	200			

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tas

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.566	.688		5.180	.000		
	AGE	-.006	.007	-.068	-.953	.342	.995	1.005
	GENDER	.160	.643	.018	.249	.803	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	-.062	.101	-.044	-.615	.539	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	.995	.686		1.450	.149		
	AGE	-.008	.006	-.079	-1.299	.196	.963	1.039
	GENDER	.045	.545	.005	.083	.934	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.039	.086	-.028	-.459	.647	.968	1.033
	met	.527	.077	.475	6.880	.000	.748	1.336
	cog	.034	.089	.026	.380	.705	.748	1.337
	mot	.220	.079	.172	2.769	.006	.928	1.078
	beh	-.024	.078	-.019	-.309	.758	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	.208	.326		.639	.524		
	AGE	-.002	.003	-.019	-.658	.511	.957	1.045
	GENDER	.030	.258	.003	.117	.907	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.039	.041	-.028	-.958	.339	.968	1.033
	met	.022	.041	.020	.536	.593	.580	1.723
	cog	.010	.042	.007	.229	.819	.748	1.337
	mot	.088	.038	.069	2.334	.021	.911	1.097
	beh	-.016	.037	-.013	-.440	.660	.919	1.088
	tas	.850	.033	.887	25.912	.000	.682	1.467

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.526[b]	8.679	.000	.527	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.270[b]	3.896	.000	.268	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	.288[b]	4.210	.000	.288	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.074[b]	1.023	.307	.073	.967	1.034	.967
	tas	.916[b]	32.132	.000	.917	.996	1.004	.992
2	tas	.887[c]	25.912	.000	.882	.682	1.467	.580

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.632	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.128	8.214	.00	.00	.00	.81	.02	.00	.00	.00	.03
	3	.080	10.358	.00	.55	.00	.05	.02	.00	.00	.00	.13
	4	.051	13.037	.00	.19	.01	.11	.03	.00	.02	.35	.21
	5	.034	15.933	.00	.00	.00	.01	.11	.31	.36	.02	.10
	6	.030	17.026	.00	.09	.00	.00	.05	.11	.33	.37	.33
	7	.021	20.252	.04	.15	.15	.01	.23	.08	.14	.24	.04
	8	.019	21.093	.02	.01	.07	.00	.53	.50	.09	.02	.16
	9	.004	45.527	.94	.02	.77	.00	.00	.01	.06	.01	.00

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

7.10 CI- Tre – Tang

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TANG	3.4052	.89794	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201

Correlations

		TANG	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
Pearson Correlation	TANG	1.000	-.067	.011	-.044	.526	.254	.282	.073	-.006
	AGE	-.067	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	.041
	GENDER	.011	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.074
	EXPERIENCE	-.044	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.004
	met	.526	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.143
	cog	.254	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.520
	mot	.282	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	-.030
	beh	.073	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.218
	tre	-.006	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TANG	.	.171	.441	.269	.000	.000	.000	.153	.465
	AGE	.171	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.280
	GENDER	.441	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.147
	EXPERIENCE	.269	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.476
	met	.000	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.021
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000
	mot	.000	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.334
	beh	.153	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.001
	tre	.465	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001	.
N	TANG	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GENDER	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXPERIENCE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tre[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.082[a]	.007	-.008	.90173	.007	.441	3	197	.724
2	.557[b]	.311	.286	.75901	.304	21.263	4	193	.000
3	.565[c]	.319	.290	.75638	.008	2.341	1	192	.128

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.076	3	.359	.441	.724[b]
	Residual	160.183	197	.813		
	Total	161.259	200			
2	Regression	50.074	7	7.153	12.417	.000[c]
	Residual	111.186	193	.576		
	Total	161.259	200			
3	Regression	51.413	8	6.427	11.233	.000[d]
	Residual	109.846	192	.572		
	Total	161.259	200			

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.566	.688		5.180	.000		
	AGE	-.006	.007	-.068	-.953	.342	.995	1.005
	GENDER	.160	.643	.018	.249	.803	.992	1.008
	EXPERIENCE	-.062	.101	-.044	-.615	.539	.996	1.004
2	(Constant)	.995	.686		1.450	.149		
	AGE	-.008	.006	-.079	-1.299	.196	.963	1.039
	GENDER	.045	.545	.005	.083	.934	.980	1.020
	EXPERIENCE	-.039	.086	-.028	-.459	.647	.968	1.033
	met	.527	.077	.475	6.880	.000	.748	1.336
	cog	.034	.089	.026	.380	.705	.748	1.337
	mot	.220	.079	.172	2.769	.006	.928	1.078
	beh	-.024	.078	-.019	-.309	.758	.919	1.088
3	(Constant)	1.139	.690		1.651	.100		
	AGE	-.008	.006	-.082	-1.347	.180	.962	1.040
	GENDER	.076	.543	.008	.140	.889	.979	1.022
	EXPERIENCE	-.046	.086	-.033	-.537	.592	.965	1.036
	met	.513	.077	**.463**	6.675	**.000**	.738	1.355
	cog	.113	.103	.088	1.102	.272	.557	1.796
	mot	.206	.080	**.161**	2.588	**.010**	.916	1.092
	beh	-.005	.079	-.004	-.062	.950	.896	1.116
	tre	-.117	.076	-.110	-1.530	.128	.689	1.451

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	met	.526[b]	8.679	.000	.527	.996	1.004	.991
	cog	.270[b]	3.896	.000	.268	.977	1.023	.977
	mot	.288[b]	4.210	.000	.288	.995	1.005	.991
	beh	.074[b]	1.023	.307	.073	.967	1.034	.967
	tre	-.005[b]	-.070	.945	-.005	.993	1.007	.987
2	tre	-.110[c]	-1.530	.128	-.110	.689	1.451	.557

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions								
				(Constant)	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tre
1	1	3.843	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01					
	2	.108	5.952	.00	.14	.00	.87					
	3	.044	9.311	.03	.84	.05	.12					
	4	.005	28.574	.96	.02	.94	.01					
2	1	7.689	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.121	7.969	.00	.02	.00	.89	.02	.01	.00	.00	
	3	.069	10.538	.00	.75	.00	.00	.06	.01	.01	.05	
	4	.042	13.595	.00	.00	.01	.09	.34	.07	.01	.39	
	5	.033	15.312	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.11	.63	.24	
	6	.022	18.699	.01	.13	.03	.01	.51	.57	.00	.19	
	7	.020	19.430	.05	.06	.19	.00	.06	.22	.28	.11	
	8	.004	42.898	.94	.02	.77	.00	.01	.01	.06	.01	
3	1	8.641	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.124	8.335	.00	.01	.00	.87	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
	3	.071	11.026	.00	.75	.00	.00	.02	.01	.00	.04	.04
	4	.053	12.768	.00	.02	.00	.01	.11	.01	.14	.00	.40
	5	.042	14.415	.00	.00	.01	.09	.32	.06	.02	.38	.00
	6	.029	17.236	.00	.05	.00	.00	.17	.00	.46	.43	.09
	7	.020	20.576	.05	.10	.21	.01	.01	.07	.28	.15	.00
	8	.016	23.498	.00	.05	.02	.01	.34	.84	.02	.00	.45
	9	.004	45.624	.94	.02	.76	.00	.01	.00	.07	.01	.01

a. Dependent Variable: TANG

Appendix 8 Mediated relationships CI-EP (3Ts)-SQ

8.1 CI –3Ts – Rel

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
REL	3.4165	.80683	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
tan	3.2983	1.13789	201

Correlations

		REL	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas	tre	tan
Pearson Correlation	REL	1.000	.044	.026	-.021	.213	.499	-.012	.201	.072	.939	-.135
	AGE	.044	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	-.057	.041	-.001
	GEN	.026	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.013	.074	-.064
	EXP	-.021	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.021	-.004	.207
	met	.213	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.549	.143	-.021
	cog	.499	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.264	.520	-.050
	mot	-.012	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	.238	-.030	.560
	beh	.201	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.084	.218	.080
	tas	.072	-.057	.013	-.021	.549	.264	.238	.084	1.000	-.007	.086
	tre	.939	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218	-.007	1.000	-.167
	tan	-.135	-.001	-.064	.207	-.021	-.050	.560	.080	.086	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	REL	.	.266	.357	.384	.001	.000	.430	.002	.156	.000	.028
	AGE	.266	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.209	.280	.497
	GEN	.357	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.430	.147	.183
	EXP	.384	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.384	.476	.002
	met	.001	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.000	.021	.385
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000	.000	.242
	mot	.430	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.000	.334	.000
	beh	.002	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.118	.001	.130
	tas	.156	.209	.430	.384	.000	.000	.000	.118	.	.461	.113
	tre	.000	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001	.461	.	.009
	tan	.028	.497	.183	.002	.385	.242	.000	.130	.113	.009	.
N	REL	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GEN	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXP	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tan	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tre, tas, tan[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.055[a]	.003	-.012	.81172	.003	.200	3	197	.897
2	.522[b]	.273	.246	.70037	.270	17.905	4	193	.000
3	.945[c]	.894	.888	.26981	.621	370.151	3	190	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre, tas, tan

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.394	3	.131	.200	.897[b]
	Residual	129.802	197	.659		
	Total	130.196	200			
2	Regression	35.526	7	5.075	10.347	.000[c]
	Residual	94.670	193	.491		
	Total	130.196	200			
3	Regression	116.365	10	11.636	159.847	.000[d]
	Residual	13.832	190	.073		
	Total	130.196	200			

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre, tas, tan

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	3.138	.620		5.064	.000			
	AGE	.004	.006	.043	.605	.546	.044	.043	.043
	GENDER	.198	.579	.024	.341	.733	.026	.024	.024
	EXP	-.029	.090	-.023	-.322	.748	-.021	-.023	-.023
2	(Constant)	1.624	.633		2.566	.011			
	AGE	-.001	.005	-.012	-.187	.852	.044	-.013	-.011
	GENDER	-.126	.503	-.016	-.250	.803	.026	-.018	-.015
	EXP	-.060	.079	-.048	-.762	.447	-.021	-.055	-.047
	met	-.013	.071	-.013	-.186	.853	.213	-.013	-.011
	cog	.577	.082	.498	7.024	.000	.499	.451	.431
	mot	-.107	.073	-.093	-1.466	.144	-.012	-.105	-.090
	beh	.144	.072	.127	1.988	.048	.201	.142	.122
3	(Constant)	.425	.249		1.707	.089			
	AGE	.001	.002	.015	.624	.534	.044	.045	.015
	GENDER	-.353	.194	-.044	-1.816	.071	.026	-.131	-.043
	EXP	-.016	.031	-.012	-.507	.613	-.021	-.037	-.012
	met	.072	.031	.072	2.301	.022	.213	.165	.054
	cog	-.044	.037	-.038	-1.202	.231	.499	-.087	-.028
	mot	-.029	.035	-.025	-.844	.400	-.012	-.061	-.020
	beh	-.008	.028	-.007	-.270	.788	.201	-.020	-.006
	tas	.046	.025	.054	1.856	.065	.072	.133	.044
	tre	.916	.028	.958	33.108	.000	.939	.923	.783
	tan	.024	.021	.034	1.122	.263	-.135	.081	.027

a. Dependent Variable: REL

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	met	.211[b]	3.025	.003	.211	.996
	cog	.504[b]	8.059	.000	.499	.977
	mot	-.011[b]	-.153	.879	-.011	.995
	beh	.212[b]	2.990	.003	.209	.967
	tas	.074[b]	1.033	.303	.074	.996
	tre	.942[b]	38.585	.000	.940	.993
	tan	-.136[b]	-1.873	.063	-.133	.951
2	tas	-.062[c]	-.837	.404	-.060	.682
	tre	.947[c]	33.006	.000	.922	.689
	tan	-.096[c]	-1.235	.218	-.089	.627

a. Dependent Variable: REL

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

8.2 CI –3Ts – Res

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RES	3.2850	1.05656	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
tan	3.2983	1.13789	201

Correlations

		RES	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas	tre	tan
Pearson Correlation	RES	1.000	-.008	-.067	.196	-.029	-.022	.510	.060	.069	-.089	.959
	AGE	-.008	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	-.057	.041	-.001
	GEN	-.067	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.013	.074	-.064
	EXP	.196	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.021	-.004	.207
	met	-.029	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.549	.143	-.021
	cog	-.022	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.264	.520	-.050
	mot	.510	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	.238	-.030	.560
	beh	.060	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.084	.218	.080
	tas	.069	-.057	.013	-.021	.549	.264	.238	.084	1.000	-.007	.086
	tre	-.089	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218	-.007	1.000	-.167
	tan	.959	-.001	-.064	.207	-.021	-.050	.560	.080	.086	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	RES	.	.453	.173	.003	.343	.379	.000	.200	.166	.105	.000
	AGE	.453	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.209	.280	.497
	GEN	.173	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.430	.147	.183
	EXP	.003	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.384	.476	.002
	met	.343	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.000	.021	.385
	cog	.379	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000	.000	.242
	mot	.000	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.000	.334	.000
	beh	.200	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.118	.001	.130
	tas	.166	.209	.430	.384	.000	.000	.000	.118	.	.461	.113
	tre	.105	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001	.461	.	.009
	tan	.000	.497	.183	.002	.385	.242	.000	.130	.113	.009	.
N	RES	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GEN	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXP	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tan	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tre, tas, tan[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.211[a]	.045	.030	1.04055	.045	3.068	3	197	.029
2	.558[b]	.312	.287	.89227	.267	18.729	4	193	.000
3	.963[c]	.928	.924	.29163	.616	538.895	3	190	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre, tas, tan

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.967	3	3.322	3.068	.029[b]
	Residual	213.299	197	1.083		
	Total	223.266	200			
2	Regression	69.611	7	9.944	12.491	.000[c]
	Residual	153.655	193	.796		
	Total	223.266	200			
3	Regression	207.107	10	20.711	243.518	.000[d]
	Residual	16.159	190	.085		
	Total	223.266	200			

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre, tas, tan

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	3.601	.794		4.533	.000	2.034	5.167
	AGE	-.001	.008	-.006	-.089	.929	-.016	.015
	GENDER	-.828	.742	-.078	-1.116	.266	-2.292	.636
	EXP	.334	.116	.201	2.878	.004	.105	.563
2	(Constant)	1.378	.806		1.708	.089	-.213	2.968
	AGE	.000	.007	-.003	-.053	.958	-.014	.013
	GENDER	-.670	.641	-.063	-1.045	.297	-1.933	.594
	EXP	.260	.101	.156	2.578	.011	.061	.459
	met	-.163	.090	-.125	-1.814	.071	-.341	.014
	cog	-.062	.105	-.041	-.590	.556	-.268	.145
	mot	.804	.093	.534	8.611	.000	.620	.988
	beh	.000	.092	.000	-.004	.997	-.182	.181
3	(Constant)	.392	.269		1.458	.146	-.138	.923
	AGE	-.002	.002	-.013	-.667	.506	-.006	.003
	GENDER	-.052	.210	-.005	-.246	.806	-.466	.363
	EXP	-.005	.034	-.003	-.161	.872	-.072	.061
	met	-.007	.034	-.006	-.217	.829	-.074	.059
	cog	.002	.040	.001	.041	.967	-.077	.080
	mot	-.062	.038	-.041	-1.643	.102	-.136	.012
	beh	-.048	.031	-.033	-1.577	.116	-.108	.012
	tas	-.002	.027	-.002	-.077	.939	-.055	.051
	tre	.106	.030	.085	3.548	.000	.047	.165
	tan	.928	.023	.999	40.148	.000	.882	.973

a. Dependent Variable: RES

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	met	-.015[b]	-.221	.825	-.016	.996
	cog	-.023[b]	-.331	.741	-.024	.977
	mot	.498[b]	8.256	.000	.508	.995
	beh	.042[b]	.590	.556	.042	.967
	tas	.074[b]	1.059	.291	.075	.996
	tre	-.082[b]	-1.182	.239	-.084	.993
	tan	.959[b]	46.246	.000	.957	.951
2	tas	.037[c]	.505	.614	.036	.682
	tre	-.041[c]	-.563	.574	-.041	.689
	tan	.987[c]	38.964	.000	.942	.627

a. Dependent Variable: RES

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

8.3 CI –3Ts – Ass

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ASS	3.5395	.62094	201
AGE	34.1443	9.38318	201
GENDER	1.0100	.09950	201
EXPERIENCE	1.6318	.63544	201
met	3.4983	.81031	201
cog	3.4765	.69671	201
mot	3.6791	.70126	201
beh	3.3871	.71500	201
tas	3.4245	.93677	201
tre	3.4169	.84405	201
tan	3.2983	1.13789	201

Correlations

		ASS	AGE	GEN	EXP	met	cog	mot	beh	tas	tre	tan
Pearson Correlation	ASS	1.000	.119	.034	.073	.421	.921	.172	.222	.268	.497	.046
	AGE	.119	1.000	.068	.016	.012	.137	.007	-.075	-.057	.041	-.001
	GEN	.034	.068	1.000	.058	.031	.064	-.011	.100	.013	.074	-.064
	EXP	.073	.016	.058	1.000	-.054	.034	.071	.133	-.021	-.004	.207
	met	.421	.012	.031	-.054	1.000	.461	.236	.130	.549	.143	-.021
	cog	.921	.137	.064	.034	.461	1.000	.142	.190	.264	.520	-.050
	mot	.172	.007	-.011	.071	.236	.142	1.000	.130	.238	-.030	.560
	beh	.222	-.075	.100	.133	.130	.190	.130	1.000	.084	.218	.080
	tas	.268	-.057	.013	-.021	.549	.264	.238	.084	1.000	-.007	.086
	tre	.497	.041	.074	-.004	.143	.520	-.030	.218	-.007	1.000	-.167
	tan	.046	-.001	-.064	.207	-.021	-.050	.560	.080	.086	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	ASS	.	.047	.316	.152	.000	.000	.007	.001	.000	.000	.259
	AGE	.047	.	.168	.413	.434	.026	.461	.145	.209	.280	.497
	GEN	.316	.168	.	.206	.330	.185	.437	.078	.430	.147	.183
	EXP	.152	.413	.206	.	.225	.317	.157	.030	.384	.476	.002
	met	.000	.434	.330	.225	.	.000	.000	.033	.000	.021	.385
	cog	.000	.026	.185	.317	.000	.	.022	.003	.000	.000	.242
	mot	.007	.461	.437	.157	.000	.022	.	.033	.000	.334	.000
	beh	.001	.145	.078	.030	.033	.003	.033	.	.118	.001	.130
	tas	.000	.209	.430	.384	.000	.000	.000	.118	.	.461	.113
	tre	.000	.280	.147	.476	.021	.000	.334	.001	.461	.	.009
	tan	.259	.497	.183	.002	.385	.242	.000	.130	.113	.009	.
N	ASS	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	AGE	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	GEN	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	EXP	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	met	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	cog	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	mot	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	beh	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tas	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tre	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
	tan	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER[b]	.	Enter
2	met, beh, mot, cog[b]	.	Enter
3	tre, tas, tan[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.140[a]	.020	.005	.61948	.020	1.316	3	197	.270
2	.924[b]	.854	.848	.24179	.834	275.027	4	193	.000
3	.928[c]	.861	.853	.23772	.007	3.225	3	190	.024

a. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre, tas, tan

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.515	3	.505	1.316	.270[b]
	Residual	75.599	197	.384		
	Total	77.114	200			
2	Regression	65.831	7	9.404	160.860	.000[c]
	Residual	11.283	193	.058		
	Total	77.114	200			
3	Regression	66.377	10	6.638	117.464	.000[d]
	Residual	10.737	190	.057		
	Total	77.114	200			

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog

d. Predictors: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog, tre, tas, tan

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	3.026	.473		6.400	.000	2.094	3.959
	AGE	.008	.005	.116	1.643	.102	-.002	.017
	GENDER	.138	.442	.022	.312	.755	-.734	1.010
	EXPERIENCE	.068	.069	.070	.988	.324	-.068	.204
2	(Constant)	.626	.219		2.866	.005	.195	1.057
	AGE	.000	.002	-.002	-.064	.949	-.004	.004
	GENDER	-.184	.174	-.029	-1.057	.292	-.526	.159
	EXP	.034	.027	.035	1.247	.214	-.020	.088
	met	-.008	.024	-.011	-.341	.734	-.056	.040
	cog	.814	.028	.913	28.691	.000	.758	.870
	mot	.032	.025	.037	1.278	.203	-.018	.082
	beh	.038	.025	.043	1.504	.134	-.012	.087
3	(Constant)	.519	.219		2.367	.019	.086	.951
	AGE	2.222E-5	.002	.000	.012	.990	-.004	.004
	GENDER	-.156	.171	-.025	-.909	.365	-.493	.182
	EXP	.020	.027	.021	.745	.457	-.034	.075
	met	-.010	.028	-.013	-.348	.728	-.064	.045
	cog	.800	.032	.897	24.654	.000	.736	.864
	mot	-.017	.031	-.019	-.563	.574	-.078	.043
	beh	.031	.025	.036	1.241	.216	-.018	.080
	tas	.022	.022	.033	1.003	.317	-.021	.065
	tre	.031	.024	.042	1.280	.202	-.017	.079
	tan	.053	.019	.096	2.795	.006	.015	.090

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	met	.425[b]	6.632	.000	.428	.996
	cog	.922[b]	32.995	.000	.921	.977
	mot	.167[b]	2.395	.018	.169	.995
	beh	.227[b]	3.235	.001	.225	.967
	tas	.277[b]	4.077	.000	.280	.996
	tre	.494[b]	8.029	.000	.498	.993
	tan	.034[b]	.476	.635	.034	.951
2	tas	.033[c]	.979	.329	.070	.682
	tre	.026[c]	.791	.430	.057	.689
	tan	.092[c]	2.699	.008	.191	.627

a. Dependent Variable: ASS

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EXPERIENCE, AGE, GENDER, met, beh, mot, cog