Do Human Resource Management Practices Affect Employees' Service-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior? Evidence from the Malaysian Hotel Industry

Choo Ling Suan and Aizzat Mohd Nasurdin

School of Management, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800, Minden, Penang, Malaysia

Abstract: This study considers the impact of some HRM practices on service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. Data was collected via self-administered questionnaires from a sample of 438 customer-contact employees from 34 upscale hotels with 4- and 5- star ratings in Malaysia. Results of the analysis using partial least squares technique indicated that service training, performance appraisal and information sharing exerted positive and significant effects on service-oriented citizenship behavior. Implications of the findings are discussed andfuture research suggestions are offered.

Key words: Service-oriented OCB · Human Resource Management Practices · Partial Least Squares · Hotels · Malaysia.

INTRODUCTION

Since 1980s,the tourism trade has grown spectacularly in many developing countries [1]. In Malaysia, income from tourist receipts has increased considerably from RM17.3 billion in 1990 to RM 60.6 billion in 2012 [2], which placed the tourism industry as one of the key contributors in charting Malaysia's economic profile [1]. The expansion of the tourism trade has given rise to the growth of related industries such as hotels, transportation, leisure, services and hospitality [3]. Of these, the hotel industry has been identified as a fundamental driver in the growth and development of the tourism sector in Malaysia.A look at the tourists' expenditure patterns for Malaysia from 2007 to 2010 consistently showed that 31% of tourists' expenditure was spent on accommodation [4]. The potentially high returns expected to be generated out of investment in the hotel business has spawned the development of hotels in Malaysia. This can be seen from the number of hotel establishments in Malaysia which has increased noticeably from 1492 unitsin 2000 to 2724 units in 2012 [5]. This marked growth of hotels has strengthened competition in capturing and retaining market share. In fact, competition is envisaged to become more intensified among upscale hotels due to two possible reasons. First,

customers now have more choices of hotels offering a wide range of facilities and services with competitive prices. Second, if customers were to checkinto upscale hotels, they would expect to receive better service quality to commensurate the amount of money they have spent [6]. According to Bowen and Ford [7], for service organizations, customer satisfaction and retention is crucial to business success, which requires the provision of high quality service. Offering high quality service is the starting point of creating satisfied customers, which in turn, lead to their loyalty and retention [8]. Since a hotel's core product is service [9] and given that services are typically intangible and often non-standardized, how a service is performed is a vital factor in the evaluation of service quality. Bienstock *et al.* [8] further reiterated that among the workforce, frontlinersare regarded as a unique asset of a service organization since they are the ones who have the most frequent face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with customers (hereafter known as customer-contact employees).

In the case of hotels, customer-contact employees are the ones who represent the hotel in delivering its service to the guests during the service encounters (or touch points) from the first moment of arrival when guests checked into the hotel until the last moment when they check-out of the hotel. Thus, how effective customer-

---

Corresponding Author: Choo Ling Suan, School of Management, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800, Minden, Penang, Malaysia.
Tel: +6012-5101865.

contact employees interact with the guests determines to1 a great extent how guests assess service quality. In fact, creating high service quality is the key to a hotel's success [9, 10]. Given the labor-intensive nature of hotels and their boundary-spanning roles [11, 12], it can be concluded that a hotel's customer-contact employees play the most critical role in the delivery of superior services to customers [13]. Recognizing their role, hotels must place greater attention on how to manage their employees' behaviors.

There are many types of behaviors that are required for service excellence. Many of these behaviors cannot be fully specified in advance in the face of unforeseen contingencies. These behaviors, termed as organizational citizenship behaviors (thereafter labelled as OCBs), reflect individual contributions in the workplace that go beyond prescribed role requirements. Organ [14] in his seminal work defined OCB as a type of individual work behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. A review of the extant literature indicates that abundant studies on OCBs have focused on the generic five-dimensional model proposed by Organ [14]. However, since service organizations have special requirements on dimensions related to dealings with customers and representing the organization to outsiders, Bettencourt *et al*. [15] suggested that a more specialized form of OCBs would be more appropriate. As a result, Bettencourt *et al*. [15] developed the service-oriented OCB(thereafter labeled as SO-OCBs) construct, which consists of three dimensions : loyalty OCB, service delivery OCB and participation OCB.Wang [16] advocated that SO-OCBs is more accurate in predicting customers' perceptions of service quality andsatisfaction.

Given the benefits associated with SO-OCBs, numerous studies have begun to identify its predictors. However, several observations emerged from an evaluation of these studies. First, most of the studies were conducted in developed countries such as the United States [15, 17, 18], Spain [19] and Taiwan [16, 20-25]. A great deal of these studies have investigated a wide variety of antecedents such as those relating to organizational variables, such as perceived organizational support [16, 20, 21, 26], leadership [19, 24] and human resource management (subsequently labelled as HRM) practices [22, 25] ; and personal variables, such as attitudes [15-19, 22, 23], dispositions [15, 17] and personal abilities [17]. As far as developing countries are concerned, such studies were relatively limited [27-29].

In the case of Malaysia, research published on SO-OCBsrelates to the work of Nasurdin, Ling and Fun [30]. The samples in these studiescomprised of employees from the logisticsindustry [30], agricultural business [29] and the public sector [28]. Only Sun *et al*.'s [27] studywasconducted among hotel employees.Several scholars [31, 32] are of the opinion that national cultures have significant effects on the exhibition of OCB. Thus, given the differences in culture between China and Malaysia, Sun *et al*.'s [27] findings in Chinamay not be generalizable to Malaysia. In addition, investigations on the determinants of SO-OCBs within the hotel industry is still insufficient [25]. Given that tourism has a significant impact on Malaysia's economic growth, the existence of tight competition among upscale hotels in the country and the vital role played by customer-contact hotel employees in delivering services to their customers, it is important for researchers to give more attention to SO-OCBs, which should lead to the service excellence.

Although scholar opined that contextual factors are more salient than psychological factor in determining one's OCB [33], studies that focused on the role of contextual factorsin predicting SO-OCBs within the context of developing countries, like Malaysia,are rare [except: 27, 30].In fact, Nasurdin *et al*. [30] in their study commented that many organizational practices that may potentially stimulate SO-OCBs remains unexplored. Therefore, an investigation on the role of contextual factors such as HRM practices, in enhancing SO-OCBs is desirable.Hoque [34] argued thatHRM practices are particularly important within the hotel industry than elsewhere. Similarly,Salanova, Agut and Peiro [35] maintained that HRM practices are one form of organizational-based resources that can assist employees in achieving their work goals, reducing their job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs andstimulating their personal growth, learning and development. A review of pastliterature indicates that HRM practicesis central in enhancing positive extra-role employee behaviorwithin the services sector [25, 36, 37]. These studies, however, were carried out in Japan, the United States,and Taiwan respectively. In the Malaysian context, studies on HRM practices were more concentrated on organizational-level outcomes (e.g. performance) [see 38, 39] with far less attention given to individual-level outcomes. In their bid to unravel the HRM practices-firm performance, Wright, Gardner and Moynihan [40] argued that HRM practices affect organizational performance through its effect on individual employee attitudes and behaviors. Based on

these gaps, our focus is to examine the effects of specific HRM practices on SO-OCBs of customer-contact hotel employees in Malaysia.

Literature Review:
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Service-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior (SO-OCBs): The concept of OCB had its roots in the work of Katz and Kahn [41] who identified three types of behaviors for the optimal functioning of an organization. These include the decision to join and remain in the organization, the performance of prescribed roles in a dependable fashion and the performance of behaviors that extend beyond the employee's formal job descriptions. This last form of behaviors which are extra-role in nature, are termed as OCBs. Organ [14] in his seminal work defined OCB as a type of discretionary behavior, which are not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and in the aggregate, promotes organizational efficiency and effectiveness. Organ [14] identified five dimensions of OCB which include altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. Although, over the years,various taxonomies of OCB-like behaviors have been offered and operationalized [see 42], most empirical research in a variety of settings has relied on Organ's [14] five-dimensional model.

Within the service setting, Bettencourt *et al.* [15] suggested that a more focused typology of OCBs, labeled as SO-OCBs, are more appropriate for customer-contact employees of service firms due to three fundamental roles that they serve. First, customer-contact employees act as representatives of the service organization to outsiders such as customers. As such, they have the opportunity to enhance or weaken the image of the firm. Hence, it is important for these employees to display loyalty OCB, which enable them to continually promote the firm's products, services and image. Second, since the behaviors ofcustomer-contact employees have been known to affect customers' perception of service quality [43], these employees need to be conscientious when performing their role. Services that are perceived as reliable, responsive and courteous are bound to satisfy customers. Thus, there is a need to exhibit service delivery OCB. Third, as boundary-spanners, customer-contact employees would have a better understanding about their customers' needs and demands than anyone else in the organization. They also function as a strategic link between the external environment and the internal operations of the service firm. Hence, it becomes imperative for customer-contact employees to perform participation OCBs aimed at future service improvements. By engaging in such behaviors, the firm would be able to meet the changing needs of its customers. Bettencourt *et al.*'s [15] proposed that SO-OCBs encompass three dimensions: (1) loyalty OCB, (2) service delivery OCB and (3) participation OCB.

Human Resources Management Practices (Hrm Practices): Over the years, researchers agree that HRM practices have the potential to improve and sustain organizational performance. According toByars and Rue [44], HRM encompasses those activities designed to provide for and coordinate the human resources of an organization. Essentially, HRM practices are designed to facilitate and support the recruitment, hiring, development and management of employees [45] with the goals of enhancing employee performance.

Consistent with Rousseau and Greller's [46] argument, several researchers [47, 48] agreed that the way an organization manages its human resource activities establishes the tone and conditions of the employee-employer relationship, which has a great influence on their work behaviors such as OCBs and service behaviors, which eventually impact theperformance of the organization. Morrison [47] suggests that to the extent that a firm's HRM practices establishes social exchange, employees are likely to engage in more OCBs. Likewise, according to some scholars [49, 50], consistent with the social exchange theory [51] and norm of reciprocity [52], when employees interpret their firm's actions such as its HRM practices, as reflecting theirorganization's commitment to them, they are likely to reciprocate through behavioral responses that benefits the organization. One such behavior is OCB, which in the aggregate helps enhance organizational performance. The HRM literature has consistently argued that HRM practices have a positive impact on a number of strategic outcomes such as organizational performance [53-55], productivity [55, 56] and organizational effectiveness [57-61]. In fact, given the intangible nature of services and that customers are active participants in their production [62],scholars [63, 64] expect that the effects of HRM practices on strategic outcomes would be strongest in service organizations.

A review of the literature reveals that there are two primary perspectives on HRM practices. The "universalistic" approach states that there is an identifiable set of "best" practices, which when implemented could result in organizational improvements [65]. The contingency approach, on the other hand,

attempts to contextualize the various HRM practices to different organizational settings and strategies [66]. Nevertheless, the "universalistic" approach has received more empirical support than the "contingency" approach [59]. Researchers that adopted the former approach argued that some HR practices are always better than others [58]. Despite some differences, evidence indicates that some HRM practices are common across the two perspectives. These practices include: (1) service training [19, 20, 22, 25, 27, 63, 64, 67-72] ; (2) service rewards [19, 20, 22, 25, 27, 63, 64, 67-72] ; (3) performance appraisal [20, 25, 27, 63, 64, 68] ; and, (4) information sharing [22, 63, 70-72]. Therefore, these four practices were regarded as important to be examined in our study.

Human Resources Management Practices and Service-Oriented OCB: HRM practices isregarded as one form of resources derived from the organization that can assist organizational members to achieve their work goals, reduce their job demands and their associated physiological and psychological costs andstimulate their personal growth, learning and development [35]. Resources, on the other hand, are those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued in their own right, or that are valued because they serve as intermediaries to the attainment or protection of valued resources [73]. According to the Conservation of Resource theory developed by Hobfoll [73] resources are considered important because individuals need these resources to enable them to attain their work goals and help deal with threatening situations, thereby reducing job demands and prevent them from negative outcomes, particularly strain. When work goals are accomplished and job demands are reduced, employees have a surplus of resources (such as energy and time). These excess resources will likely be investedby the employees intoother areas of their work (such as engaging in SO-OCBs). By so doing, employees get to accumulate more resources (in the form of recognitions, rewards, promotions and better work status).

In an empirical study involving respondents from multi-levels (which consisted 257employees, 44 managers and 1,993 customers) working in 25franchised restaurants in the United States, Liao (2004) concluded that HRM practices tend to enhance a firm's service climate, which in turn, motivatesservice employees to display discretionary behaviors such as meeting customers demands, delivering higher service quality and increasing employees' willingness to go beyond their call of duty. Similarly, Zerbe *et al.*'s [64] study among 452 airline

employees that providing direct customerservice to passengers, found that HRM practices has an impact on service culture which in turn influenced the employees service behaviors.

As mentioned earlier, our review of literature highlighted the importance of four common HRM practices as having an effect on employees' behaviors. These practices are service training, service rewards, performance appraisal and information sharing. The following section will be devoted to a discussion of the impact of each of these practices on our study's dependent variable (i.e. SO-OCBs).

According toKaratepe, Yavas and Babakus [74], service training are programs sponsored by the service organization to improve employees' task-related and behavioral skills as well as enhance their capability to deal with varying customer needs, personalities and circumstances effectively.Thus, it can be speculated that when customer-contact employees are able to handle their job demands in an effective manner, they are bound to have extra resources to engage in other discretionary, positive and beneficial behaviors like SO-OCBs. In an empirical study conducted by Sun *et al.* [27] among employees from 86 hotels in Chin, service training was found to be positively related to SO-OCBs. Following the same logic, we hypothesized that:

H1: Service training has a positive and significant effect on loyalty OCB

H2: Service training has a positive and significant effect on service delivery OCB

H3: Service training has a positive and significant effect on participation OCB

Besides service training, service reward is also an important resource in motivating customer-contact employees since their job positions are generally perceived to be associated with low rewards [75]. Owing to the fact that customer-contact employees have to work long hours and at an unsocial time [74], these employees tend to expect their management to value and appreciate their contribution [76]. In an empirical study among 149 hotels in Spain, González and Garazo [19] discovered that customer-contact employees are motivated to go beyond their formal work roles if they are satisfied with the hotel's service rewards. Likewise, Lytle [77] asserts that a lack of rewards would create an unpleasant work environment and diminish employees'

work efforts, which ultimately may cause them to withdraw from the job. As such, it can be inferred that when customer-contact employees perceived that they are being rewarded appropriately, they are more likely to be motivated in exhibiting SO-OCBs. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H4: Service rewards has a positive and significant effect on loyalty OCB

H5: Service rewards has a positive and significant effect on service delivery OCB

H6: Service rewards has a positive and significant effect on participation OCB

In addition to service rewards, performance appraisal is implemented in the organization for the purpose of administrative decisions (such as pay raise, promotion), feedback, development and personnel research [78]. According to Haynes and Fryer [54], performance appraisal signals to employees what are the behaviors that are appreciated by the service organization. By implication, performance appraisal serves as a guide that help mouldemployees' work behaviors. Similarly, performance appraisal would also play a significant role in enhancing SO- OCBs. For instance,Becton, Giles and Schraeder [79] advocated that for some employees are willing to display OCBin order to achieve better performance evaluation rating from their superiors. Since performance appraisal serves as a tool for employees to obtain greater rewards, performance appraisal is expected to motivate customer-contact employees to engage in functional, discretionary behaviors that extends beyond one's call of duty such as SO-OCBs. Therefore, our next hypotheses are as follows:

H7: Performance appraisal has a positive and significant effect on loyalty OCB

H8: Performance appraisal has a positive and significant effect on service delivery OCB

H9: Performance appraisal has a positive and significant effect on participation OCB

Lastly, information sharing allows employees to understand the organization's mission, their roleexpectations and what is happening in the organization. According to Browning, Edgar, Gray and

Garrett [80], information sharing conveys the message that the organization trustsits employees, makes them feel important to the organization and encourages them to contribute towards the achievement of its goals. More importantly, information sharing enables employees to share work-related information such as tips in serving customers effectively. This information would definitely facilitate customer-contact employees to be effective in their service delivery and enables them to cope with their job demands. Scholars [54, 81] also suggested that information sharing foster a service culture that emphasizes on high service quality. Such service culture has been known to have a positive impact on employees'workbehaviors [64].As such, we draw the following hypotheses:

H10: Information sharing has a positive and significant effect on loyalty OCB

H11: Information sharing has a positive and significant effect on service delivery OCB

H12: Information sharing has a positive and significant effect on participation OCB

Research Model: Based on the above-mentioned discussion, we develop our research model (as shown in Figure 1). Using the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory as our underlying premise, we expect four HRM practices (comprising of service training, service rewards, performance appraisal and information sharing) which are reflective of organizational resources to have positive effects on SO-OCBs of customer-contact employees. This relationship is assumed to be true within the context of the Malaysian hotel industry.
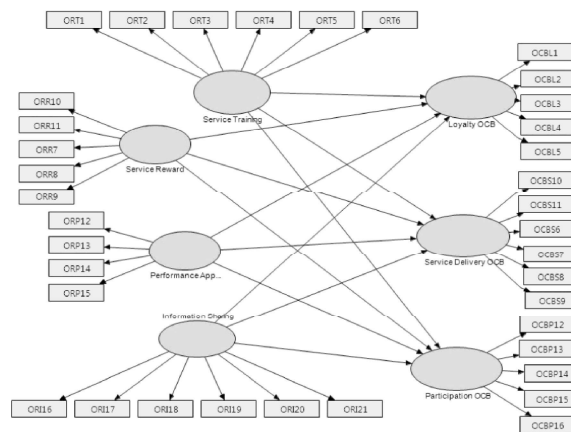

Fig. 1: Research Model

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample and Procedure: The population in this study comprised of customer-contact employees of all upscale hotels in Malaysia. As mentioned by previous researchers [i.e. 27, 82, 83-85], upscale hotels refer to large hotels with 4- and 5- star ratings.Based on the official published record, there are 198 upscale hotels across Malaysia [86]. Consentto conduct the survey from the human resource managers of these hotels was initially sought. However, only 34 hotels agreed to participate. Due to the policy requirements imposed by the hotels, the researchers could not have direct access to the customer-contact employees. Hence, the help of the human resource managers of the respective hotels were sought to distribute the questionnaires to customer-contact employees and to compile the completed ones. Respondents were given twoweeks to complete the questionnaire.

A total of 925 sets of questionnaire were distributed. Of this number, after the specified time period, only 438 questionnaires were found to be useable, which yieldeda useable rate of 50.7%.Following the suggestion by Armstrong and Overton [87], a test of non-response bias was undertaken using independent *t*-test. The result indicates that there are no significant differencesin terms of the study variables between early (407) and late (31 cases) responses. Therefore, all responses were collated for further analysis.

In terms of the sample's demographic profile, 46.1% were maleswhile 53.9% were females. Respondents age ranged from 18 to 53 years with an average of 28.4 years (SD = 7.1). A majority (61.6%) of the respondents were Malays (61.6%) followed by Indians (13.0%), Chinese (11.9%) and "others" (13.5%) which include other ethnic minorities such as Iban, Kadazan and Dusun. More than half of the sampled respondents were unmarried (54.1%). In terms of education, about 67.6% were secondary school leavers (who hold either SPM / SPMV/STPM). This is expected since the academic entry requirement for non-supervisory hotel employeesare normally low as noted byprevious researchers [34, 88]. In terms of work department, 60.3% of the sample came from the Front Office with the remaining 39.7% from the Food and Beverage Department. In addition, the average organizational tenure and job tenure for the sample is 4.2 years (SD = 5.3) and 3.7 years (SD = 4.8) respectively.

Measures and Control Variables: HRM practices comprised of 21 items that included service training (6 items), service rewards (5 items), performance appraisal (4 items) and information sharing (6 items). These measures adapted from various sources [36, 74, 89]. On the other hand, SO-OCBs were measured using 16 items procured from Bettencourt *et al*. [15] that included loyalty OCB (5 items), service delivery OCB (5 items) and participation OCB (6 items). Respondents responded to the items using a 7-point Likert-type scale with "1" = "*strongly disagree*" to "7" = "*strongly agree*". We initially carried out a pilot study on 30 customer-contact employees in two hotels to gain feedback on the clarity of the instruments. From their comments, some minor adjustments on the original items were made to fit the context of the study. For instance, the word "organization" has been changed to "hotel"; the word "employee" has been changed to "customer-contact employee".Since previous studies have shown that demographic variables (such as age, gender, ethnicity, academic qualification, marital status, job tenure, organization tenure) were correlated with SO-OCBs [15, 21, 30, 90-92], these seven variables were statistically estimated to avoid overestimate the effect of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables.

Analytical Strategy: Hypotheses in this study were tested with Partial Least Squares (PLS) softwaredeveloped by Ringle, Wende and Will [93]. According toHenseler *et al*. [94], PLS model can be evaluated and interpreted in two stages using: (1) the measurement model and (2) the structural model. The measurement model examines the relations between the manifest variables (observed items) and latent variables. The measurement model is tested on its reliability (item reliability and internal consistency) and validity (convergent validity and discriminant validity). The structural model specifies the relationship between latent variablesusing the bootstrapping method. The structural model is evaluated on the significance of the path coefficients and R^2 measures.

RESULTS

Measurement Model Results: To test the reliability and validity of the measurement model, the loadings for each item and the composite reliabilitieswere examined. Item reliability specifies the correlations of the items with their respective construct which is indicated by the item's

Table 1: Items Loadings, Composite Reliability and the Average Variance Extract for the Measurement Model

Constructs	Items	Loadings	CRa	AVEb	R2
Service Training	ORT1	0.764	0.931	0.691	
	ORT2	0.824			
	ORT3	0.837			
	ORT4	0.874			
	ORT5	0.867			
	ORT6	0.818			
Service Reward	ORR7	0.869	0.943	0.767	
	ORR8	0.911			
	ORR9	0.918			
	ORR10	0.855			
	ORR11	0.822			
Performance Appraisal	ORP12	0.842	0.922	0.748	
	ORP13	0.894			
	ORP14	0.900			
	ORP15	0.820			
Information Sharing	ORI16	0.697	0.878	0.545	
	ORI17	0.724			
	ORI18	0.720			
	ORI19	0.766			
	ORI20	0.774			
	ORI21	0.744			
Loyalty OCB	OCBL1	0.842	0.933	0.736	0.311
	OCBL2	0.885			
	OCBL3	0.862			
	OCBL4	0.838			
	OCBL5	0.861			
Service Delivery OCB	OCBS10	0.813	0.922	0.664	0.346
	OCBS11	0.783			
	OCBS6	0.842			
	OCBS7	0.877			
	OCBS8	0.835			
	OCBS9	0.731			
Participation OCB	OCBP12	0.752	0.910	0.671	0.338
	OCBP13	0.875			
	OCBP14	0.856			
	OCBP15	0.844			
	OCBP16	0.760			

Note: a Composite reliability (CR) = (square of the summation of the factor loadings) /{(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (square of the summation of the error variances)}

b Average variance extracted (AVE) = (summation of the square of the factor loadings) /{(summation of the square of the factor loadings) + (summation of the error variances)}

loading [95]. Chin [95] suggestsa minimum loading of 0.7. As presented in Table 1, all items loadings were above Chin's (1998) threshold value of 0.70 except for ORI16 with a loading of 0.697. Since the loading for this particular item is very close to 0.70, we decided to retain it. Composite reliability specifies the internal consistency of the latent variable [94]. Fornell and Larcker [96] suggest 0.70 as the minimum value for internal consistency. As displayed in Table 1, the composite reliability values in this study ranged from 0.878 to 0.943, which exceeded the minimum 0.70 value recommended by Fornell and Larcker [96]. Therefore, it can be inferred that the measurement model are reliable.

Next, the validity of the measurement model is tested on its convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity examines if a particular items measures a latent variable which it is supposed to measure [97]. Fornell and Larcker [96] proposed that the average variance extracted (AVE) is used as the criterion to measure convergent validity of a measurement model. According to Fornell and Larcker [96], an AVE value greater than 0.50 indicates that, on average, a latent variable is able to explain more than half of the variance of its indicators. As shown in Table 1, the AVE value (ranging from 0.545 to 0.691) surpassed the 0.50 cut-off proposed by Fornell and Larcker's [96].As such, it can be

Table 2: Discriminant Validity of Constructs

Constructs	Information Sharing	Loyalty OCB	Participation OCB	Performance Appraisal	Service Delivery OCB	Service Reward	Service Training
Information Sharing	0.738						
Loyalty OCB	0.443	0.858					
Participation OCB	0.507	0.636	0.819				
Performance Appraisal	0.614	0.506	0.521	0.865			
Service Delivery OCB	0.464	0.718	0.697	0.527	0.815		
Service Reward	0.604	0.379	0.425	0.592	0.351	0.876	
Service Training	0.482	0.446	0.406	0.570	0.483	0.427	0.831

Note: Diagonals represent the square root of the average variance extracted while the other entries represent the correlations

Table 3: Assessment of the Control Variables

Control Variable	Loyalty OCB			Service Delivery OCB			Participation OCB		
	Beta	t-value	R Square Change	Beta	t-value	R Square Change	Beta	t-value	R Square Change
Academic Qualification	0.086	1.342	0.007	0.097	1.333	0.010	0.037	0.674	0.001
Age	0.074	1.826	0.005	0.062	1.665	0.004	0.038	1.023	0.002
Ethnicity	0.093	0.928	0.008	-0.002	0.049	0.000	-0.065	1.052	0.003
Gender	0.008	0.204	0.000	-0.047	1.180	0.003	-0.092*	2.311	0.009
Marital Status	0.053	0.542	0.003	0.074	1.041	0.005	0.046	1.296	0.002
Job Tenure	0.082	1.869	0.007	0.040	1.077	0.002	0.056	1.335	0.003
Organization Tenure	0.086	2.005	0.007	0.059	1.628	0.004	0.070	1.821	0.005

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

said that the measurement model possess convergent validity. Meanwhile, discriminant validity focuses on the degree in which the item of a latent variable differs from one another. Henseler *et al*. [94] suggestedthe use of both Fornell and Larcker's [96] criterion and Chin's (1998) cross loadings criterion in determining discriminant validity. From Table 2, it can be seen that the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) of the latent variable exceeded the correlations of other constructs which fulfillFornell and Larcker's [96] criterion. While, the cross loading for each items is greater than all of its cross-loadings indicated the presence of sufficient convergent and discriminant validity [95]. Based on the estimated parameters, it can be concluded that the measurement model is reliable and valid.

Structural Model Results: Before performing the path analysis, the effects of the control variables on exogenous variables were estimated. As presented in Table 3, most of thecontrol variables did not have a significant effect on the exogenous variables except gender. Thedata showed that gender has a significant effect on participation OCB with the R^2changed value 0.009. However, the effect is trivial since it is less than 0.02 [98].

After estimating the effects of the seven control variables, bootstrapping with 1000 resample was conducted to determine the significance of the paths. Our first three hypotheses (H1, H2 and H3)postulated that service training will be positively related to the three dimensions of SO-OCBs: loyalty OCB, service delivery OCB and participation OCB. Asdepicted in Table 4, service training is a significant predictor of the three dimensions ofSO-OCBs: loyalty OCB ($\beta = 0.198$, $p < 0.01$), service delivery OCB ($\beta = 0.239$, $p < 0.01$) and participation OCB ($\beta = 0.102$, $p < 0.05$). These results lend support to H1, H2 and H3.

Likewise, H4, H5 and H6 posited that service rewards will have a positive relationship with the three dimensions of SO-OCBs. However, the resultsprovided in Table 4 contradict our hypotheses. Therefore, these three hypotheses were rejected.

Similarly, H7, H8 and H9relate to the path from performance appraisal to the three dimensions of SO-OCBs. As shown in Table 4, performance appraisal had a significant relationship with loyalty OCB ($\beta = 0.275$, $p < 0.01$), service delivery OCB ($\beta = 0.298$, $p < 0.01$) and participation OCB ($\beta = 0.266$, $p < 0.01$).Therefore, H7, H8 and H9 are supported.

Finally, our findings also provided support our H10, H11 and H12whereby information sharing was shown to be a significant predictor of loyalty OCB ($\beta = 0.155$, $p < 0.01$), service delivery OCB ($\beta = 0.192$, $p < 0.01$),and participation OCB ($\beta = 0.250$, $p < 0.01$).

In addition to the path analysis, the predictive power of the exogenous latent variables in the measurement model is examined via the R^2 value. According to Chin

Table 4: Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta Coefficient	t-value	Decision
H1	Service Training -> Loyalty OCB	0.198	3.566**	Supported
H2	Service Training -> Service Delivery OCB	0.239	4.335**	Supported
H3	Service Training -> Participation OCB	0.102	1.871*	Supported
H4	Service Reward -> Loyalty OCB	0.039	0.718	Rejected
H5	Service Reward -> Service Delivery OCB	-0.043	0.848	Rejected
H6	Service Reward -> Participation OCB	0.074	1.269	Rejected
H7	Performance Appraisal -> Loyalty OCB	0.275	4.654**	Supported
H8	Performance Appraisal -> Service Delivery OCB	0.298	5.925**	Supported
H9	Performance Appraisal -> Participation OCB	0.266	4.561**	Supported
H10	Information Sharing -> Loyalty OCB	0.155	2.646**	Supported
H11	Information Sharing -> Service Delivery OCB	0.192	3.345**	Supported
H12	Information Sharing -> Participation OCB	0.250	4.512**	Supported

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

[95], R^2 value ranges from zero to one. According to Cohen (1988), an R^2 value of 0.26, 0.13, or 0.02 for endogenous latent variables are considered as substantial, moderate, or weakrespectively. As presented in Table 1, substantial variance in loyalty OCB, service delivery OCB and participation OCB are explained by the three HRM practices: service training, performance appraisal and information sharing with an R^2 value of 0.311, 0.346 and 0.338 respectively.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of HRM practices on SO-OCBs. Our sample comprised of customer-contact employees attached to 34 upscale hotels in Malaysia. Overall, the statistical results provided support for a majority of the proposed relationships. In particular, our findings revealed that greater perceptions of service training were significantly related to all three dimensions of SO-OCBs.These findings concur with those of prior researchers [27, 74] who advocated that service training helps increase customer-contact employees' task-related and behavioral skills as well as enhance their capability to deal effectively with varying customers' needs, personalities and circumstances. Thus, through training, these employees become more capable of handling their job demands in an efficient way, which means that they are likely to have extra resources (e.g. energy and time) to engage in other forms of extra-role behaviors that are discretionary, positive and beneficial such as SO-OCBs.

Contrary to expectation, service reward was found to have a non-significant relationship with all three dimensions of SO-OCBs. In the context of the hotel industry, this finding is justifiable. According to Hayes and Ninemeier [99] employees tend to tie the rewards given by the organizationas an indication of their value in the eyes of the employer. In an empirical study among 104 frontliners from a single branded, national restaurant chain located in Florida, Curtis, Upchurch and Severt [100] concluded thatgood wages is one of the top motivating factors for frontliners. This is because the salary for customer-contact employees in hotels is generally low [75] which may lead them to feel that they are not appreciated in the eyes of their employers. This unfavorable impression may inhibit the employee's motivation to focus on their core job duties and neglect those that extend beyond their call of duty such as SO-OCBs. This may be further reinforced by the job attributes associated with customer-contact employees which include heavy workload, long work hours and an array of customers' demands that need to be addressed quickly as highlighted by Karatepe *et al.* [74].

With regards to performance appraisal, the findings of this study showed that performance appraisal has a positive and significant relationship with all SO-OCBsdimensions. Performance appraisal signifies to employees the form of behaviors that are appreciated by the employer and serves as a tool for employees to obtain greater rewards [78]. Hence, employees are likely to engage in behaviors that are viewed as having a positive impact on performance evaluation rating by the superiors. One such behaviors would be SO-OCBs.

The findings of this study also demonstrated that information sharing had a positive and significant relationship with SO-OCBsconsistent with those of Lawler's [101]. According to Lawler [101], disseminating information about the organizationsuch as its mission, vision, goals, policies and strategies are bound to create a sense of identification between the employees and their employing organization, which in turn, motivate them to help the organization achieve its goals through the display of SO-OCBs.

Implications and Limitations: Our study provides several implications for the hotel industry. Perceptions of customer-contact employees regarding their organization's HRM practices affect their SO-OCBs. Meanwhile, SO-OCBs have been acknowledged as having a positive effect on customer's perception of service quality. Thus, if hotels can provide service training, proper performance evaluation and share information with their employees, they will become more willing to assist customers by going beyond their call of duty. Hotels should make it mandatory for every new customer-contact employee to undergo some form of basic training on how to serve customers during theirfirst weekon the job. Furthermore, hotels may want to develop policies that require the existing customer-contact employees to attend a minimum number of hours of service training per year. In this way, customer-contact employees are able to refresh their skills.In addition, within a hotel service environment, managers need to convey that employees need to deliver quality service in order to achieve progress in their career and receive relevant benefits. This emphasis should be captured through the use of several performance appraisal criteria, which can include records of accomplishments in service delivery, commitment to customers, ability to meet customers' needs and wants and the ability to resolve customer complaints. Finally, hotel managers may want to use social network channels (for instance, Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp, WeChat and Viber) in addition to the conventional communication channels (for example, face-to-face interactions, telephone, letters and emails). With a wider range of communication modes, employees will not only have access to formal information related to the job and organization but also informal information quickly. Besides, social networks enable employees to express their opinions and feelings to the management in a more informal manner.

Several limitations in this study should be taken into consideration. First, the nature of the data only allows for a cross-sectional analysis and thus, only inferences can be drawn. An obvious recommendation is to conduct a longitudinal study to evaluate the efficacy of the SO-OCBs model. Second, the data in this study was self-reported data that may lead to the issue of common method bias. Future studies may consider collecting data from multiple sources (such as from the supervisors as well as peers) as a preventive step to counter this issue. Third, this study was confinedto a sample of full-time customer-contact employees within the hotel industry in Malaysia. As such, the issue of generalizability emerges. Given that employing part-timers has become a common trend in the hotel industry, it is constructive for future studies to expand the study to customer-contact employees who are employed on a part-time basis. It would also be interesting to duplicate this study in other hospitality settings in developing Asian countries. All these would definitely improve the generalizability of the findings.

REFERENCES

1. Kler, B.K., 2010. Philosophically grounding tourism research in Malaysia, in Tourism Research in Malaysia: What, Which Way and So What?, K. Din and J. Mapjabil, Editors. 2010, Penerbit Universiti Utara Malaysia: Malaysia.

2. Tourism Malaysia. Tourist arrivals and receipts to Malaysia. 2013 [cited 2013 December 27] ; Available from: http://corporate.tourism.gov.my.

3. Ministry of Information Communications and Culture. Revving up the tourism industry. 2011 [cited 2011 August 15] ; Available from: www.kpkk.gov.my.

4. Ministry of Tourism, Malaysia Tourism Key Performance Indicators 2009, R. Division, Editor 2011: Kuala Lumpur.

5. Tourism Malaysia. Malaysia Hotels & Rooms Supply. 2013 [cited 2013 March 16] ; Available from: http://www.tourism.gov.my/facts_figures/.

6. Kandampully, J. and D. Suhartanto, 2000. Customer loyalty in the hotel industry: The role of customer satisfaction and image. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 12(6): 346-351.

7. Bowen, J. and R.C. Ford, 2002. Managing service organizations: Does having a "thing" make a difference? Journal of Management, 28(3): 447-469.

8. Bienstock, C.C., C.W. DeMoranville and R.K. Smith, 2003. Organizational citizenship behavior and service quality. The Journal of Services Marketing, 17(4/5): 357-378.

9. Ma, E. and H. Qu, 2011. Social exchanges as motivators of hotel employees' organizational citizenship behavior: The proposition and application of a new three-dimensional framework. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30(3): 680-688.

10. Cook, S., 2008. Essential Guide to Employee Engagement: Better Business Performance Through Staff Satisfaction 2008, London: Kogan Page.

11. Baum, T. and R. Mudambi, eds. Economic and Management Methods for Tourism and Hospitality Research. ed. T. Baum and R. Mudambi. 1999, John Wiley and Sons Ltd: England.

12. Hayes, D.K. and J. Ninemeier, Hotel Operations Management 2ed. 2007, New Jersey: Prentice Hall

13. Kusluvan, S., *et al*. 2010. The human dimension: A review of human resources management issues in the tourism and hospitality industry. Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 51(2): 171-214.

14. Organ, D.W., Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome. 1988, Lexington: MA: Lexington Books.

15. Bettencourt, L.A., K.P. Gwinner and M.L. Meuter, 2001. A comparison of attitude, personality and knowledge predictors of service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86(1): 29-41.

16. Wang, M.L., 2009. What makes a good citizen in service settings? Service Industries Journal, 2009. 29(5): 621-634.

17. Payne, S.C. and S.S. Webber, 2006. Effects of service provider attitudes and employment status on citizenship behaviors and customers' attitudes and loyalty behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 91(2): 365-378.

18. Suazo, M.M., 2009. The mediating role of psychological contract violation on the relations between psychological contract breach and work-related attitudes and behaviors. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 24(2): 136-160.

19. González, J.V. and T.G. Garazo, Structural relationships between organizational service orientation, contact employee job satisfaction and citizenship behavior. International Journal of Service Industry Management, 17(1): 23-50.

20. Wang, M.L., 2010. Does organisational support promote citizenship? The moderating role of market-focused HRM. The Service Industries Journal, 30(7): 1077-1095.

21. Wang, M.L., 2009. Does organizational support promote citizenship in service settings? The moderating role of service climate. Journal of Social Psychology, 149(6): 648-676.

22. Yang, Y.C., 2011. High-involvement human resource practices, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors in service setting. The Service Industries Journal, 32(8): 1209-1227.

23. Chen, C.H. and R. Kao, 2012. Work values and service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors: The mediation of psychological contract and professional commitment: A case of students in Taiwan police college. Social Indicators Research, 107(1): 149-169.

24. Tsai, C.T.S. and C.S. Su, 2011. Leadership, job satisfaction and service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors in flight attendants. African Journal of Business Management, 5(3): 1915-1926.

25. Tang, T.W. and Y.Y. Tang, 2012. Promoting service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors in hotels: The role of high-performance human resource practices and organizational social climates. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31(3): 885-895.

26. Lin, S.J.J. and S.C. Lin, 2011. Moderating effect of organizational climate on the relationship of organizational support and service oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. African Journal of Business Management, 5(2): 582-595.

27. Sun, L.Y., S. Aryee and K.S. Law, High-performance human resource practices, citizenship behavior and organizational performance: A relational perspective. Academy of Management Journal, 50(3): 558-577.

28. Chaudhry, A.A. and A. Usman, 2011. An Investigation of the relationship between employees' emotional intelligence and performance. African Journal of Business Management, 5(9): 3556-3562.

29. Ladebo, O., 2004. Employees' personal motives for engaging in citizenship behavior: The case of workers in Nigeria's agriculture industry. Current Research in Social Psychology, 9(16): 220-233.

30. Nasurdin, A.M., T.C. Ling and L.S. Fun, *Service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior: Assessing the predictive role of human resource management practices.* International Journal of Arts & Sciences, 2011. 4(9): p. 381-394.

31. Turnipseed, D.L. and E. Murkison, 1993. ultural comparison of organization citizeship behavior: Does the OCB phenomenon trancend national culture?. International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 8(2): 200-222.

32. Paine, J.B. and D.W. Organ, 2000. The cultural matrix of organizational citizenship behavior: Some preliminary conceptual and empirical observations. Human Resource Management Review, 10(1): 45-59.

33. Organ, D.W., P.M. Podsakoff and S.B. Mackenzie, Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature, Antecedents and Consequences. 2006, California: Sage International Inc.

34. Hoque, K., 1999. Human Resource Management in the Hotel Industry: Strategy, Innovation and Performance. 1999, London, GBR: Routledge.

35. Salanova, M., S. Agut and J.M. Peiro, 2005. Linking organizational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty: The mediation of service climate. Journal of Applied Psychology, 90(6): 1217-1227.

36. Liao, H., *et al*. 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, 2009. 94(2): 371-391.

37. Tsaur, S.H. and Y.C. Lin, 2004. Promoting service quality in tourist hotels: The role of HRM practices and service behavior. Tourism Management, 25(4): 471-481.

38. Rose, R.C. and N. Kumar, 2006. The influence of organizational and human resource management strategies on performance. Performance Improvement, 45(4): 18-24.

39. Daud, N. and Z.A. Ahmad, 2003. Human resource management practices and business performance: An empirical study on manufacturing firms in Malaysia. in 5th Asian Academy of Management Conference, "Challenges of Globalized Business: The Asian Perspective". Kuantan, Pahang..

40. Wright, P.M., T.M. Gardner and L.M. Moynihan, 2003. The impact of HR practices on the performance of business units. Human Resource Management Journal, 13(3): 21-36.

41. Katz, D. and R.L. Kahn, 1964. The Social Psychology of Organizations. Second ed. 1964, New York: Wiley.

42. LePine, J.A., A. Erez and D.E. Johnson, 2002. The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(1): 52-65.

43. Yoon, M.H. and J. Suh, 2003. Organizational citizenship behaviors and service quality as external effectiveness of contact employees. Journal of Business Research, 56(8): 597-611.

44. Byars, L.L. and L.W. Rue, Human Resource Management. 7th ed. 2003, Irwin: New York: McGraw-Hill.

45. Wood, S.J. and T.D. Wall, 2002. Human Resource Management and Business Performance. Psychology at work, ed. P.B. Warr. 2002, Harmonsworth: Penguin. 351-374.

46. Rousseau, D.M. and M.M. Greller, 1994. Human resource practices: Administrative contract makers. Human Resource Management, 33(3): 385-401.

47. Morrison, E.W., 1996. Organizational citizenship behavior as a critical link between HRM practices and service quality. Human Resource Management, 35(4): 493-512.

48. Tsaur, S.H., H.M. Chang and C.S. Wu, 2004. Promoting service quality with employee empowerment in tourist hotels: The role of service behavior. Asia Pacific Management Review, 9(3): 435-461.

49. Allen, D.G., L.M. Shore and R.W. Griffeth, 2003. The role of perceived organizational support and supportive human resource practices in the turnover process. Journal of Management, 29(1): 99-118.

50. Whitener, E.M., 2001. Do "high commitment" human resource practices affect employee commitment? A cross-level analysis using hierarchical linear modeling. Journal of Management, 27(5): 515-535.

51. Blau, P.M., 1964. Exchange and Power in Social Life. 1964, New York: Wiley.

52. Gouldner, A.W., 1960. The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. American Social Review, 25: 161-178.

53. Vlachos, I., 2008. The effect of human resource practices on organizational performance: Evidence from Greece. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19(1): 74-97.

54. Haynes, P. and G. Fryer, 2000. Human resources, service quality and performance: A case study. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 12(4): 240-248.

55. Philmore, A., D. Liz and G. Dion, 2006. Approaches to HRM in the Barbados hotel industry. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 18(2): 94-109.

56. Davies, D., R. Taylor and L. Savery, 2001. The role of appraisal, remuneration and training in improving staff relations in the Western Australian accommodation industry: a comparative study. Journal of European Industrial Training, 25(7): 366-373.

57. Batt, R., 2002. Managing customer services: Human resource practices, turnover and sales growth. Academy of Management Journal, 45(3): 587-598.

58. Delery, J.E. and D.H. Doty, 1996. Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency and configurations performance predictions. Academy of Management Journal, 39(4): 802-835.

59. Huselid, M.A., 1995. The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity and corporate financial performance. Academy of Management Journal, 1995. 38(3): p. 635-672.

60. Koys, D.J., 2001. The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover on organizational effectiveness: A unit-level, longitudinal study. Personnel Psychology, 54(1): 101-114.

61. Lawler, E.E., 2005. From human resource management to organizational effectiveness. Human Resource Management, 44(2): 165-169.

62. Mills, P.K., R.B. Chase and N. Margulies, 1983. Motivating the client/employee system as a service production strategy. Academy of Management Review, 8(2): 301-310.

63. Schneider, B. and D.E. Bowen, 1985. Employee and customer perceptions of service in banks: Replication and extension. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70(3): 423-433.

64. Zerbe, W.J., D. Dobni and G.H. Harel, 1998. Promoting employee service behaviour: The role of perceptions of human resource management. Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 15(2): 165-179.

65. Pfeffer, J., 1994. Competitive advantage through people. California Management Review, 36(2): 9-28.

66. Youndt, M.A., *et al*., 1996. Human resource anagement, manufacturing strategy and firm performance. Academy of Management Journal, 39(4): 836-866.

67. Liao, H. and A. Chuang, 2004. A multilevel investigation of factors influencing employee service performance and customer outcomes. Academy of Management Journal, 47(1): 41-58.

68. Meyer, J.P. and A.S. Catherine, 2000. HRM practices and organizational commitment: Test of a mediation model. Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 17(4): 319-331.

69. Buck, J.M. and J.L. Watson, 2002. Retaining staff employees: The relationship between human resources management strategies and organizational commitment. Innovative Higher Education, 26(3): 175-193.

70. Paré, G. and M. Tremblay, 2007. The influence of high-involvement human resources practices, procedural justice, organizational commitment and citizenship behaviors on information technology professionals' turnover intentions. Group & Organization Management, 32(3): 326-357.

71. Wei, Y.C., T.S. Han and I.C. Hsu, 2010. High-performance HR practices and OCB: A cross-level investigation of a causal path. The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 21(10): 1631-1648.

72. Mendelson, M.B., N. Turner and J. Barling, 2001. Perceptions of the presence and effectiveness of high involvement work systems and their relationship to employee attitudes: A test of competing models. Personnel Review, 40(1): 45-69.

73. Hobfoll, S.E., 1989. Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. American Psychologist, 44(3): 513-524.

74. Karatepe, O.M., U. Yavas and E. Babakus, 2007. The effects of customer orientation and job resources on frontline employees' job outcomes. Services Marketing Quarterly, 29(1): 61-79.

75. Babakus, E., *et al*., 2003. The effect of management commitment to service quality on employees' affective and performance outcomes. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 31(3): 272-286.

76. Yavas, U., O.M. Karatepe and E. Babakus, 2012. Correlates of Nonwork and Work Satisfaction Among Hotel Employees: Implications for Managers. Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 22(4): 375-406.

77. Lytle, R.S., 1994. Service Orientation, Market Orientation and Performance: An Organizational Culture Perspective, Arizona State University: Arizona. pp: 250.

78. Cawley, B.D., L.M. Keeping and P.E. Levy, 1998. Participation in the performance appraisal process and employee eeastions: A meta-analytic review for field investigation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83(4): 615-633.

79. Becton, J.B., W.F. Giles and M. Schraeder, 2008. Evaluating and rewarding OCBs: Potential consequences of formally incorporating organisational citizenship behaviour in performance appraisal and reward systems. Employee Relations, 30(5): 494-514.

80. Browning, V., *et al*., 2009. Realising competitive advantage through HRM in New Zealand service industries. Service Industries Journal, 29(6): 741-760.

81. Watson, S. and N. D'Annunzio-Green, 1996. Implementing cultural change through human resources: The elusive organization alchemy? International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 8(2): 25-30.

82. Lee, J. and A.M. Morrison, 2010. A comparative study of web site performance. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology, 1(1): 50-67.

83. Kazlauskaite, R., I. Buciuniene and L. Turauskas, 2006. Building employee commitment in the hospitality industry. Baltic Journal of Management, 1(3): 300-314.

84. Farook, F., 1994. The Importance of Service Recovery Strategies in 4 and 5 Star Hotels in Penang Island, Malaysia: The Managers Perspective, in *Business School* 2004, University of Queensland: Australia.

85. Medlik, S., The Business of Hotels. 1994, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann Ltd.

86. Ministry of Tourism, Malaysia Accommodation Directory 2010/2011, H. Unit, Editor 2012, Tourism Malaysia, Ministry of Tourism: Kuala Lumpur.

87. Armstrong, J.S. and T.S. Overton, 1977. Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys. Journal of Marketing Research, 1977. XIV. pp: 396-402.

88. Hemdi, M.A., 2009. Investigating hotel employees' organizational commitment: The influence of human resource management practices and perceived organizational support. Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts, 1(3): 1-18.

89. Zacharatos, A., J. Barling and R.D. Iverson, 2005. High-performance work systems and occupational safety. Journal of Applied Psychology, 90(1): 77-93.

90. Raub, S., 2008. Does bureaucracy kill individual initiative? The impact of structure on organizational citizenship behavior in the hospitality industry. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27(2): 179-186.

91. Ramachandran, Y., *et al.*, 2011. Emotional intelligence, emotional labour and organisational citizenship behaviour in service environments. International Journal of Work Organisation and Emotion, 4(2): 136-157.

92. Bolino, M.C. and W.H. Turnley, 2005. The personal costs of citizenship behavior: The relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress and work-family conflict. Journal of Applied Psychology, 90(4): 740-748.

93. Ringle, C.M., S. Wende and A. Will, 2005. SmartPLS 2.0, www.smartpls.de.

94. Henseler, J., C.M. Ringle and R.R. Sinkovics, The use of Partial Least Squares path modeling in international marketing, in *Advances in International Marketing*, R.R. Sinkovics and P.N. Ghauri, Editors. 2009, Emerald Bingley. pp: 277-320.

95. Chin, W.W., 1998. The Partial Least Squares Approach for Structural Equation Modeling. Modern methods for business research.Methodology for business and management ed. G.A.E. Marcoulides, (1998). 1998, United States: Lawrence Erlbaum.

96. Fornell, C. and D.F. Larcker, 1981. Evaluating Structural Equation Models with unobservable variables and measurement error. Journal of Marketing Research, 18(1): 39-50.

97. Urbach, N. and F. Ahlemann, Structural Equation Modeling in information systems research using Partial Least Squares. Journal of Information Technology Theory and Application, 11(2): 5-40.

98. Cohen, J., Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences. 2nd ed. 1988, Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

99. Hayes, D.K. and J.D. Ninemeier, 2009. Human Resources Management in the Hospitality Industry. 2009, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

100. Curtis, C.R., R.S. Upchurch and D.E. Severt, 2009. Employee motivation and organizational commitment: A comparison of tipped and nontipped restaurant employees. International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration, 10(3): 253-269.

101. Lawler, E.E., 1986. High-Involvement Management. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.