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**Overwork and Overtime on Turnover Intention in Non-Luxury Hotels:
Do incentives matter?**

Abstract

Purpose: Given the intense competition in the hotel industry, this study investigates the effect of overwork (OW) and overtime (OT) on turnover intention (TI) as well as the moderating effect of incentives in the context of non-luxury hotels in an emerging market

Methodology: Using a purposive sampling technique, a total of 271 front-line employees who are currently working in non-luxury hotels in Sarawak responded to the study. Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to perform latent variable and moderation analyses.

Findings: The findings show that both OW and OT have a direct impact on TI. Contrary to the past studies, incentives do not exert any moderating effect on the relationship between OW, OT and TI among the employees working at non-luxury hotels.

Originality/Value: This is one of the first studies to explore the effect of incentives between OW and working OT on TI in the context of the non-luxury hotels in an emerging market and show why incentives might not work. It further advances the understanding of the JD-R theory, demonstrating the necessity for organizations to provide matching resources to address job strains.

Keywords: Employee turnover, overwork, overtime, incentive, hospitality industry.

Introduction

High and consistent turnover has been a challenge for manpower-intensive industries such as the hotel industry. Globally, the estimated turnover in the hotel industry ranges from 60 percent to 300 percent, which is higher than most of the turnover rates in other industries (Hemdi *et al.*, 2011). The cost of recruiting a new hotel employee is high, and it takes about six months to recruit, to orientate and to train one employee (Cohen *et al.*, 2015). For a labor-intensive industry where the differentiating factor is the level of service, high staff turnover would have a direct impact on the quality of service. Hotel establishments must be able to retain staff, with the longer-term objective of improving the customers' experience. This would, in turn, translate to greater loyalty, repeat visitations and new referrals. All of which, would, of course, have a positive impact on the profit margin of the hotel. For these reasons, the TI of the employees, which is a "reasonable proxy for actual turnover" (Cho and Lewis, 2012, p. 19) should be closely monitored and addressed at the early stages.

TI has been a research agenda and a growing focus of many academics as well as industry practitioners over the years (e.g. Liu and Lo, 2018, Wan *et al.*, 2018, Gupta and Shaheen, 2017, Karatepe and Avci, 2017, Akgunduz and Sanlin, 2017). Despite the burgeoning research, gaps remain. First, many of the existing studies, such as Mohsin *et al.* (2013) focus largely on upscale or luxury hotels. Other scholars, such as Huang *et al.* (2018), focus their study on the hotel industry as a whole. In other words, non-luxury hotels have not been a central focus of past research studies.

Second, studies on employee compensation are sporadic and scarce. On average, there is only about one research paper per year written about financial incentives (Gupta and Shaw, 2014). The lack of studies on employee compensation is especially worrying when compensation is one of the key criteria that attracts and retains employees in an organization (Bryant and Allen, 2013). At the same time, it plays a psychological role in influencing employees' attitudes and behavior (Mabaso and Dlamini, 2017). It is almost axiomatic that unless an organization has a well-designed compensation framework, the intended effects of organizational policies might not manifest to the extent that it is envisaged (Gupta and Shaw, 2014). Considering the dearth of research on employee compensation, and given that there is a fond saying within the hospitality industry that employees are the most valuable asset (Lee and Way, 2010), it will be

intriguing to examine further if this is reflective in employees' incentives, particularly for those working in the non-luxury hotels.

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework

This study adopts the job demands-resources (JD-R) theory and the social exchange theory (SET) in explaining the phenomenon that it seeks to examine. The JD-R theory is one of the most widely used theories for understanding the motivational and inhibition effects of job resources and job demands. Job demands can be explained as different aspects of the job that require effort and skills, which therefore, often associated with costs, both physiological and/or psychological (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). Job resources are attributes of the job that achieve work goals, reduce job demands, reduce associated physiological and psychological costs, and/or stimulating personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). Together, both job demands and job resources reflect the key tenet of the JD-R theory. Any imbalances in either of them initiate an impairment process or a motivational process, which in turn, has a negative and/or positive outcomes respectively, at the personal and organizational level (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). The health impairment process describes the phenomenon where the presence of job demands negatively affects the individual's psychological and physiological well-being ranging from disengagement at work, having the intention to resign, reduction in commitment or lowering of proactivity (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). On the contrary, resources possess motivational properties that facilitate individuals in fulfilling their work expectations (McGregor *et al.*, 2016).

According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), SET provides a basis for understanding the role that organizations and managers play in creating feelings of employee obligation and positive work attitudes. SET is accepted as one of the frameworks explaining workplace behavior, which involves transactions that generate obligations with the potential of improving relationships among the different actors (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Fundamentally, the relationship is informal and is developed based upon the trust the two parties have for one another. That is to say; when hotel employees are provided with a positive work environment, they would be obliged to reciprocate accordingly in a manner that is acceptable to both (Parzefall and Salin, 2010). Interestingly, Ko and Hur (2014) argue that such reciprocation takes more than monetary forms, such as perceived organizational support or socio-emotional form. In this regard, it refers to displaying a reduction in TI. Another tenet within SET

20

highlights that recipients' perception of the value of the benefits determines the magnitude of the reciprocation. For instance, DeJoy *et al.* (2010) discovered that employees reacted more positively when they perceived that the management offers higher support to fulfill their obligations. Similarly, Wu and Lee (2017) found that empowering leadership style created a sense of reciprocation where the recipients were more open towards knowledge sharing. In other words, the magnitude of reciprocation differs across individuals depending on the valence of the stimuli to them.

Following the JD-R theory and the SET, we postulate in figure 1 that job demands are the physiological and/or psychological costs consist of accelerated work pressure, responsibility overload, emotional demands as well as inferior environmental circumstances (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). When hotel employees face job demands of being overworked and frequently having to work OT, there would be a reciprocating effect on having the intention to resign. However, the presence of incentives, as a form of job resource, provides motivational properties that mitigate the effect. Despite that, the SET theory elucidates that the magnitude of mitigation depends on the valence of the incentives to the employees.

*** Insert Figure 1 ***

Research Context

Sarawak

Tourism is opulence, and it has grown to be among the largest industry after automobiles and oil in terms of revenue. The expanding network of transportation, the abundance of accommodation, and the growth of low-cost carriers make travel comparatively cheaper. Similar to other countries, the tourism industry has contributed significantly to Malaysia's economy. In 2018, Malaysia received a total of 25.83 million international tourists and recorded a 2.4 percent growth in tourism receipts, making Malaysia the second most-visited South East Asian country after Thailand (Tourism Malaysia, 2018).

Among the different states in Malaysia, Sarawak is one of the few that provides a plethora of culture, adventure, nature, food, and festivals (Tourism Malaysia, 2018). Over the last ten years, the number of visitors to Sarawak, a state in the east of Malaysia, has increased rapidly, topping 4.9 million in 2017, bringing in estimated tourism receipts of RM8.59 billion which is

approximately a ten-fold increase compared to 2007 (Ling, 2018). As an emerging market, Sarawak's appeal cannot go unnoticed. Sarawak houses one of the largest numbers of tropical rainforests in this region that boasts a unique collection of biodiversity (Sarawak Forestry, 2019). Sarawak has successfully organized several upscale events such as the 4th ASEAN International Film Festival and Awards, Rainforest World Music Festival, 26th World Masters Badminton Championship and the 21st Asian Masters Athletics Championship (Ling, 2019). Recent archaeological work has confirmed the presence of human settlements in Sarawak that dated back to 65,000 years ago (Chua, 2018). It is for these reasons that Sarawak prides herself in providing urban, nature and archeo-tourism - a unique proposition that neighboring states nor countries in this region have. Taking these into consideration, it is of little surprise that Sarawak has been a tourist attraction (Ling, 2019). As a result, the demand for accommodations within Sarawak has also increased. According to the data from the Census and Economic Information Center (CEIC), the number of hotel rooms in Sarawak has grown from 20,496 rooms in 2015 to 22,105 rooms in 2016 (CEIC, 2018), representing one of largest increment among all the fourteen states in Malaysia. Given the growth and the potential of the tourism industry, it is natural that this study examines the hospitality industry in Sarawak.

Non-luxury Hotel

Following the definition by Gunasekar and Sudhakar (2019), this study operationalized non-luxury hotels as hospitality accommodations that are affordable and offer relatively basic services with limited food and beverage facilities. Though non-luxury hotels are losing their appeal in light of the growing popularity of sharing economy as well as the appearance of new variants of hotels such as green hotels and theme hotels, their presence nevertheless remains relevant. The number of non-luxury hotels has increased significantly over the years and is in parallel with the growth of the national tourism sector (Abdullah *et al.*, 2012). A key reason for this growth is because non-luxury hotels offer affordable accommodations that keep tourists' budget in control. It is not unreasonable to say that the choice of accommodation depends on the types of tourists and their economic standards.

 For the majority of the tourists visiting different tourist spots in Sarawak, their choice of accommodation is mostly non-luxury hotels because of their high levels of hospitality services and the convenience of their location to the attractions (Sivadsasan, 2015). Based on Sivadsasan (2015), Sarawak has 102 non-luxury hotels where the majority of them (73 non-luxury hotels) are in the capital city of Kuching. The increasing number of tourist arrivals has

generated an increasing growth of economic developments in the state, and it can boost the income of the state and country as a whole. Non-luxury hotels play a big role in accommodating tourists with different needs and wants. Along with the establishment of more non-luxury hotels in the state, the growing demand for hospitality and travel professions means that more people are employed to work for these hotels, which makes this study timely.

Turnover Intention

Jobs in the hotel industry are characterized as low-skilled employees, irregular hours, non-conducive work environments, high job demands, inadequate training, low wages, and overly demanding customers (Boğan and Dedeoğlu, 2019, Tan *et al.*, 2019) . Such characterizations often lead to hotel employees experiencing occupational stress resulting in job burnout with the inevitable corollary of having the intention of leaving the profession or the industry (e.g. Ariyabuddhiphongs and Marican, 2015, Brien *et al.*, 2015, Hemdi *et al.*, 2011). For the hospitality industry, the turnover rate is particularly higher than in other sectors, and it is proven to be one of the most significant challenges for any hotel (Davidson *et al.*, 2010). When an organization faces a high turnover rate, the productivity of the organization reduces because of the learning curve tangled with the identification of the job and workplace when the employees withdraw from the organization (Wambui, 2012). For an industry that depends on employees' tacit knowledge on their guest's preferences, efficiency is compromised as experienced employees leave, and vacant positions are not able to be filled up with better-skilled employees (Rahman *et al.*, 2008).

TI is, therefore, the most crucial aspect of turnover and it can be defined as perceiving and deliberating willfulness to leave the organization, with the intention of seeking employment opportunities elsewhere (Emiroglu *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, conditions that possibly trigger TI should be eliminated. On this, Liu and Lo (2018) found that the most common reasons for causing employees' TI are the quality of the working environment, low wages and benefits, uncomfortable organizational culture, lack of clear definition of responsibilities, unclear job scope, poor internal and external communications, and no direction on operations.

Overtime and Employee Turnover Intention

OT can be explained as the compulsory, voluntary, pressurized, and extended working hours or work during an off day; having unpaid versus paid OT and different lengths of hours per

week and hours extended to shifts (Wheatley, 2017). In Malaysia, all employment are governed by the "Malaysia Employment Act 1955". All employees covered under the Act are required to work for six days per week, with one day designated as the rest day (Department of Labour Sarawak, 2019). Unless subject to exigencies of work or mutual agreement, an individual should generally work 8 hours per day, culminating to not more than 48 working hours per week (Department of Labour Sarawak, 2019). Any additional working hour is OT, but subject to a cap of not more than 104 hours of OT per month (Department of Labour Sarawak, 2019). On this note, a recent report showed that Malaysians work on average, 15 hours more than their contracted hours each week compared to employees in Australia (AIA, 2018).

The tendency of doing OT differs across cultures. For instance, employees from the United States work more than employees in German and France (Golden, 2009). Another study complemented this finding, indicating that though the Americans generally works longer than the Europeans, it is still lagging behind Asians (Dembe, 2009). Working OT is a prevalent culture in Asian workplaces (Beckers *et al.*, 2004). Studies such as Beckers *et al.* (2004) have found that Asian employees may work more than 60 hours per week. These differences are not surprising considering the popularity of Confucianism culture in Asia countries. It was found that the four major Confucian orientations of seniority orientation, relationship orientation, righteousness orientation, and benevolence orientation are positively associated with employees' behaviors and attitudes, which fosters a climate of competitiveness of improving oneself and others (Kang *et al.*, 2015). However, it is also due to this work culture that employees in Asian countries often suffers from stress-related issues such as burnout, depression and suicidal tendencies (Ogawa *et al.*, 2018).

Being a labor-intensive industry, OT is a common phenomenon among employees working in hotels. During the peak season, employees work OT to manage the influx of hotel guests. The increase in workforce deployment acts as a safeguard in ensuring that the quality of service is not compromised. However, Tsai *et al.* (2016) show that OT is a significant predictor towards TI and actual turnover. At the same time, hotel establishments face higher rates of absenteeism among employees during peak periods which according to Chiang and Liu (2017), increases one's TI as employees experience a lack of work-life balance and escalating fatigue. These studies draw similar observations that consistently working OT affects the time for leisure activities, leaving employees without enough time to recuperate and be energized. This affects their ability to spend time with families in relaxing activities. The longer the employee is

trapped in this situation, the more chance they want to resign from the organization (Lee *et al.*, 2016), leading us to the first hypothesis.

H1   There is a significant relationship between OT with TI.

Overwork and Turnover Intention

There is a growing body of evidence demonstrating that the role of front-line hospitality employees has undergone significant changes over the last decade, gradually moving away from the dyadic employees-guest relationship to the co-creation of values that involves the organization, the employee and the customer (Su *et al.*, 2019). In such an environment, more autonomy and control are accorded to the guests over the experience that they want to encounter. For an industry that focuses mainly on delivering quality services, the co-creation of value is especially relevant for hotels in this competitive landscape. After all, this industry is about the creating and consumption of experiences (Solnet *et al.*, 2016). As a result, this adds significant responsibilities and obligations to hotel employees as the onus is on them to actively create the value on behalf of the hotel (Solnet *et al.*, 2016). In other words, the hotel workforce no longer requires operational skills. They will need to possess emotional and social intelligence, be more agile, more adaptive and always be ready in leveraging information to deliver added value. In more precise terms, this refers to additional skills such as crisis dealing, creative thinking, problem-solving, managing of the unexpected, and acquiring of knowledge on new technology and cultural awareness. Taken together, the competitive landscape, changing consumers' expectations and the evolution of employees' roles signal an increase of physical or additional mental requirements that are needed for hospitality employees to complete certain tasks or assignments – a phenomenon is also known as OW (Humayon *et al.*, 2018).

From a behavioral and psychological perspective, OW has been found to impinge upon personal well-being, reduce work efficiency and effectiveness, as well as resulting in poor decision making (Mariappanadar and Aust, 2017). As elucidated by Mazzetti *et al.* (2016), OW refers to the "conduct of those employees that dedicate an amount of time to their work so excessive that it begins to entail escalating risks beyond those associated with standard, agreed-upon hours" (p. 880). Often, organizations require their employees to manage additional workload without hiring new employees. This is especially relevant to industries that face a

cyclical business environment, such as the hospitality industry. Moreover, management may take employees' willingness to do OW as a proxy of commitment and dedication, which in the long run, is counterproductive if "one considers that two psychosocial work characteristics foster the association between OT work and impaired individual well-being" (Mazzetti *et al.*, 2016, p. 881)

Within hospitality settings, overworking employees increase service breakdowns, and depression-related diseases (Ryan *et al.*, 2019). All of which results in a reduction of revisits and a drop in new referrals, eventually hurting the hotel's profit. This demonstrates that long working hours, heavy workloads, increasing work pressure and growing expectations from customers are fundamentals of job-stress that can drive employees to OW, resulting in disorders and sickness in the working environment of the hospitality industry. To further add value to the burgeoning literature on the effect of OW, we attempt to establish a relationship where OW is a predictor of TI, as reflected in the second hypothesis.

H2   There is a significant relationship between OW and TI.

Incentives as a moderator

The ultimate agents in producing a memorable hospitality experience are the service staff. In today's service paradigm of co-creation, hotels' service staff play an ever-important role as the interaction with customers has changed, where the "value is co-created with actors, who engage and integrate their resources through co-creation in-context and in-use" (Tu *et al.*, 2018, p. 2094). Thus, understanding the motivations of service staff is a pre-requisite to designing effective organizational rules. From the literature, motivation can be classified into extrinsic where the purpose of pursuing is for incentives and promotion, while the other is intrinsic, innate satisfaction (Devonish, 2017). With the growing competitiveness of the hospitality industry, many establishments are placing more emphasis on co-creation, this inadvertently adds on not only to the workload, but also involving role modifications. To facilitate these changes, many hospitality employers created various incentive structures that provide more monetary rewards to promote motivation for change within the service staff (Krishnaveni and Monica, 2016).

In this regard, our study operationalizes the term incentives as tangible remuneration an employee will receive (Merriman, 2014). As a job resource, incentives serve as a motivation for employees to dedicate more hours and more energy into their work with a view of improving their current or future income, or to attain non-monetary benefits such as upward mobility in an organization. At the same time, organizations use incentives as a means to compensate for insufficient manpower by maximizing the value of their existing pool of employees as opposed to hiring new ones, especially in periods of economic uncertainty or during peak seasons. Such reciprocity can be surmised using the SET which postulates that when individuals receive a certain form of benefits or services, the recipients are obliged to reciprocate with something in return that is mutually acceptable, beneficial and gratifying.

However, there has been inconclusive evidence of the effectiveness of incentives as a moderator on relationships. Otto and Dalbert (2012) found that the presence of non-financial incentives shape individuals' willingness in accepting changes to the nature of their occupation. On the other hand, Fernando *et al.* (2015) show that incentives played a limited effect in encouraging the adoption of food safety standards among food companies. Similarly, Sinha and Banerjee (2012) verified that incentives failed to improve consumers' willingness to receive commercial messages using an opt-in email format. Going back to SET again, the inconsistencies in results demonstrate that when the valence of the outcome is not palatable to the individual, the magnitude of reciprocation reduces, hence manifesting negative psychological states that culminate into undesirable individual behaviors that eventually impact personal and organizational outcomes. Leveraging both SET and JD-R theory as well as considering the inconsistencies in results, an additional examination is warranted on the effectiveness of incentives in reducing the negative impact from working OT and feeling overworked, leading us to the final set of hypotheses:

H3a   Incentives moderate the relationship between working OT and TI.

H3b   Incentives moderate the relationship between OW and TI

Research Methodology

Sample and data collection

Using the purposive sampling technique, responses were collected from the operations staff working in six non-luxury hotels over the three months period from May to July. The sample size was determined using the power analytic technique advocated by Cohen (1988). Unlike

the traditional rule-of-thumb method which derives sample size based on a ratio to the number of predictors, power analytics is more robust and unlikely to design studies that have "insufficient power because of too few samples or excessive power because of too many samples" (Green, 1991, p. 509). In this regard, the sample size of 271 represents 99.9% of power, meaning we could proceed with our analysis.

Measures

Other than the demographic profiles of the respondents, the variables of OT, OW, incentives, and TI were measured by using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The instrument was adopted from Latif and Saraih (2016) for OT, Qureshi *et al.* (2013) for OW, Khan *et al.* (2012) for incentives and Saeed *et al.* (2014) for TI. To address potential issues that may arise during data collection, we have conducted pre-testing. As explained by Memon *et al.* (2017), pre-testing is imperative to ensure that any ambiguity in the questions are removed, and respondents could understand and answer the questions in the way they are designed and intended. In this regard, the survey was sent to researchers in the hospitality industry; any ambiguity in words and instructions was removed or amended.

To achieve the research objectives, we deployed the structural equation model (SEM) with the partial least squares (PLS) approach, using the SmartPLS version 3.28 (Cheah *et al.*, 2019). PLS-SEM can be viewed as quite similar to multiple regression analyses to examine the possible relationships with less emphasis on the measurement model (Hair *et al.*, 2017). In this model, OW and working OT are modeled as reflective constructs and estimated using correlation weights (or Mode A). With PLS-SEM based model estimation always relies on composites, regardless of the measurement model specification, we can surmise that PLS-SEM is more accurate using reflective assessment, (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, this study delves into prediction modeling, in which the use of PLS-SEM would provide a better option in estimating the prediction power of the model (Shmueli *et al.*, 2019).

Given that this is a cross-sectional study, procedural and statistical remedies have been put in place to ensure common method variance (CMV) is not present within the model. Other than assuring anonymity and confidentiality of the data collected, we have provided temporal separation by placing the demographic questions between the predictor and outcome variables (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2012). This study adopted the full collinearity test suggested by Kock (2015).

Our results show that both lateral and vertical collinearity were lower than 3.3, indicating that the result of this model is not affected by CMV.

Data Analysis and Research Results

Respondents' Demographics

Based on the study, female respondents represented 56.4 percent of the total respondents, while male respondents represented 43.6 percent. In terms of the race group, the majority of the respondents were Chinese (41.1 percent) and Malay (18.9 percent). For the age group, the majority of the respondents were between 21 to 30 (40.1 percent) and 31 to 40 (37.1 percent). The fifty and above age group only had 7.3 percent. For the educational background, most of the respondents had obtained Diploma level (39.3 percent) and Degree level (27.6 percent). The third highest educational background respondents were secondary school level (19.3 percent). Only 1.8 percent of the respondents had attained a PhD level. For the marital status, 61.1 percent of the respondents were single while 37.5 percent of the respondents were married. In the average OT per week section, the majority of the respondents worked an additional two hours (22.9 percent), followed by six to eight hours (22.6 percent). The third highest average OT per week was three to five hours (21.5 percent). In terms of the extra task and jobs per week, most of the respondents were given extra tasks and jobs four times (23.3 percent), followed by two times (21.5 percent). This is followed by three times (17.5 percent), with the least as six times and above (9.5 percent). Table 1 reports the correlation matrix of this study.

Insert Table 1

Measurement Model Assessment

Table 2 presents the results of the measurement model to confirm the construct of reliability and convergent reliability of the constructs (Cheah *et al.*, 2019). The constructs, which comprise OT, OW, and TI, have achieved a high level of internal consistency with the values of 0.887, 0.898, and 0.890, respectively in composite reliability. The values of average variances extracted (AVE) for all constructs are more than the threshold of 0.5, which are suffice (Fornell and Lacker, 1981) to allow factor loadings from 0.4 to 0.7. Besides, the values

of Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio for all constructs were less than 0.85, which indicate discriminant validity is attained (See Table 3)

*** Insert Table 2 ***

*** Insert Table 3 ***

Structural Model Assessment

The multicollinearity test was conducted before the structural model assessment. The results showed that the values of variance inflation factor (VIF) for all constructs also were less than the threshold of 5.0 (Hair *et al.*, 2011). The results of the path relationship assessment utilizing the bootstrapping procedure in Table 4 show that H1 and H2 were supported (H1, $\beta = 0.227$, $p < 0.001$; H2, $\beta = 0.272$, $p < 0.001$). The direct impact of OW on TI was stronger than OT. Table 3 presented the moderating effect of incentives on OT (H3a, $\beta = 0.201$, *ns*) and OW (H3b, $\beta = -0.06$, *ns*). Thus, incentives did not moderate the relationship between OT, OW and TI. Both H3a and H3b were rejected. In this study, the assessment of the effect size (f^2), coefficient of determination (R^2) and the predictive relevance (Q^2) of independent variables on dependent variables were also conducted (see Table 4). OT (0.048) and OW (0.069) have a small effect size on TI. The value of R^2 is 0.187, which indicates OT and OW explain 18.7 percent of the variances in TI. The Q^2 value is 0.099, which is greater than zero, shows that over time and OW have the predictive ability over the TI.

*** Insert Table 4 ***

Using Q^2 value as the sole criterion of determining predictive power has been criticized by Shmueli *et al.* (2019). It has been criticized that Q^2 value is inadequate in assessing the model's predictive capability. To overcome this, PLSpredict has been developed where it is a technique separating the sample into testing and training data in estimating model parameters and predictive power (Shmueli *et al.*, 2019). Succinctly speaking, PLSpredict uses the values for the independent constructs' indicators in the holdout sample and applies the model estimates from the training sample to generate a prediction of the dependent constructs' indicators (Shmueli *et al.*, 2019). A small divergence between the actual and predicted out-of-sample case values suggests that the model has a high predictive power while, a pronounced divergence indicates a low predictive power (Shmueli *et al.*, 2019). With this understanding, Table 5 shows that the majority of the independent indicators values of root mean squared error (RMSE) for the PLS model is smaller than that of the linear model, implying a medium predictive ability.

*** Insert Table 5 ***

Discussions

From the earlier results, there are three findings worth discussing. First, significant relationships are observed between work hours and OW on TI. This is consistent with existing studies such as Qureshi *et al.* (2013) where it shows that there is a significant positive relationship between work overload and TI. Our findings raise serious concerns that not only on the well-being of the employees but also indicating that OW and consistent OT increase their propensity of leaving the organization, which as a result, adding unnecessary administrative cost and affects the efficient functioning of the hotels. Unlike other intangible factors that lead to TI, long working hours and workload are tangible and actionable. With regulation and advanced planning, the well-being of employees can be enhanced, at the same time, mitigating the possibility of them leaving the organization. This result also provided support to the JD-R theory fitted that when hotel employees are faced with job demands of being overworked and frequently having to work OT, there would be a reciprocating effect on having the intention to resign.

Second, our results reveal that incentives play an insignificant role in moderating the adverse effect of long hours and OW on TI. Similar results are found in other studies. For instance, Tsai *et al.* (2016) found that incentives could not effectively moderate the relationship between work hours and TI among physicians. Another article from Dale *et al.* (2015) shows that incentives alone exhibit limited effect and other factors such as working conditions, training opportunities and progression pathways should not be overlooked. Despite the importance of financial rewards in developing countries, the results show that incentives are not the silver bullet and employers should not ignore other root causes that drive TI (Tsai *et al.*, 2016). In the hospitality industry, a study by Makrinova and Grigorieva (2015) drew a similar conclusion that attention should be paid to the creation of each employee's sense of his/her importance and value, fair treatment regardless of the taken position. Likewise, Tatuev *et al.* (2017) advocated that the principles for solving the problems of motivation and stimulation of hospitality staff include: objectivity, encouragement; competitiveness; the building of corporate identity and unity sociability and implementation of a code of ethics. From the perspective of JD-R theory, the result of non-moderation is attributable to the nature of the resource. Mirroring the effect of homeostatic regulation advocated by Cheung *et al.* (2011), it is said that when the nature of the

moderator is matched with the nature of the strain, it is more likely that a moderation effect will be observed. In other words, the root causes to employees having the intention to resign, as a result of OW and working longer hours are not due to a lack of incentives, rather it could be due to poor planning and a lack of appropriate leadership skills.

Finally, our research model explained 18.7% of the variance of the dependent variable. This suggests that variables in this context are not considered critical in influencing one's TI. Similar results have also been observed in Hwang *et al.* (2014). In their study that focused on luxury hotels' employees, six sources of occupational stress, ranging from personal challenges, unfair treatment, shortage of support and poor organizational culture only accounted 15.5% of the variance of TI (Hwang *et al.*, 2014). Taken together, the results spotlighted the multifaceted nature of this profession. Work within the hospitality industry is highly labor-intensive and an increasingly harsh working environment. The nature of work within hotels include non-negotiable deadlines, unexpected interactions with guests, long working hours, shift work and repetitive nature of work that come with high emotional demands. Moreover, the increasing emphasis of face to face contact with guests and the real-time nature of service delivery implies that hotels' employees are expected to respond promptly, which at times, exposing them to a mass of competing, contradictory or conflicting demands and expectations across a multiplicity of services. This study further elucidates the point that unless specific triggers can be identified, hotels' employees are highly susceptible to burnout, absenteeism and turnover.

Theoretical Implications

First, this study adds to the availability of literature on the moderating effect of incentives work hours and OW on TI. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that directly analyzes the effect of these relationships among employees of the non-luxury hotels in a developing country within ASEAN and show why incentives might not work. It further advances the understanding of the JD-R theory, demonstrating the necessity for organizations to provide matching resources to the job strains. Secondly, this study elucidates that organizations need to provide a different form of resources to effectively alleviate the negative corollaries that arise from the job and personal demands. Just as postulated in the SET, whereby receiving certain forms of benefits or services result in individuals being obliged to reciprocate with something in return. It should be mutually acceptable, beneficial and gratifying, which does not necessarily be in a monetary form (Gouldner, 1960). However, the magnitude of

reciprocation depended largely on the valence that individuals placed on the benefits or services, which would differ from one to another, depending on the background and value system.

Practical Implications

This also shows the importance of investing in a resource caravan implying that organizations with the hope to manifest desirable job outcomes and behaviors must maximize the "ecology that fosters resource caravan enrichment and challenge that promotes excellence, dedication, and commitment" (Hobfoll, 2011, p. 113). From this basis, hotels can offer their members a marketplace of resources for employees to leverage. A good way is to provide a flexible benefits plan. As demonstrated through our results where incentives play an insignificant role, there is no one size fits all solutions in motivating employees. Evidenced by studies such as Lin *et al.* (2011), the changes in labor force composition and worker values enhance the importance of flexible benefits plans in the future, especially when their study shows that flexible benefits plan reduces job turnover and improved recruitment capacity. Especially for an emotionally and physically demanding profession, the presence of resource caravan supported individuals to be resilient towards experiencing negative corollaries arising from the various job demands (Hobfoll, 2014).

Limitations and Future Research

This study is not without its limitations. Firstly, the results may not be generalised to the hotel landscape in Malaysia given the small number of hotels involved in this study. Additionally, though procedural and statistical checks were implemented to reduce CMV, the respondents could still provide a socially desired response for this study. Therefore, future studies should use a longitudinal design or obtain data from different sources Secondly, the moderating results of this study could be attributable to a similar profile possessed by the sample population. Xanthopoulou *et al.* (2007) indicated that studies focusing on homogeneous sample populations would inevitably result in range restrictions and possibly leading to results of no moderation. However, this could be "avoided with the examination of heterogeneous samples of the population" (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007, p. 136). Moving forward, future researchers can consider having respondents from diverse hospitality settings or from other industries to examine the moderation effects of the incentives. Finally, this study focused only on the relationship between OW, OT and TI, with incentives as the moderator. While the model is simple, it nonetheless provided us with important insights that are useful for managers and policymakers. Given the multifaceted nature of hospitality work and a diverse working

population, there could be possibilities that other factors play a similar role in inhibiting or encouraging one's inclination to turnover in the emerging markets. In this regard, future research should continue to search for appropriate individual variables such as psychological capital as well as including more organizational factors, such as supervisory support behaviors. After all, both individual variables and organizational factors represent personal and job resources respectively, which the JD-R theory espouses their potential of mitigating the effects of job demands.

Conclusions

To sum up, the study confirms that OT and OW have a significant relationship with employee TI. However, the role of incentive in non-luxury hotels is not sufficient to retain the employee in the hospitality industry. Therefore, employers should examine other forms of factors such as work-life balance, employee recognition program, career enhancement or job satisfaction which can be useful to guide the organization to design a better program to retain their employees, decrease the hotel high turnover rate as well as cutting down unnecessary massive labor cost.

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Table 1. Correlation Table

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Gender[a]	0.440	0.497	-								
2	Race[b]	2.435	1.034	-0.154*	-							
3	Age[c]	2.720	0.979	-0.030	0.180**	-						
4	Education[d]	3.137	1.461	-0.082	0.167**	0.110	-					
5	Marital Status[e]	1.402	0.521	-0.050	0.176**	0.462**	0.088	-				
6	OT	3.482	0.940	0.098	-0.001	0.057	0.065	-0.035	-			
7	OW	3.485	0.959	0.053	-0.016	-0.001	-0.080	-0.048	0.490**	-		
8	INC	3.621	0.769	0.022	-0.072	-0.065	-0.042	0.006	-0.017	0.007	-	
9	TI	2.843	0.983	0.090	0.013	0.032	-0.030	-0.080	0.333**	0.371**	-0.254**	-

Notes: n = 271; [a]Gender was code as: 1 = male, 2 = female; [b]Race was coded in categories: 1 = Malay, 2 = Chinese, 3 = Indian, 4 = Others; [c]Age was coded in categories: 1 = 20 years and below, 2 = 21-30 years, 3 = 21-40 years, 4 = 41-50 years, 5 = 50 years and above; [d]Education was coded in categories: 1 = secondary school, 2 = professional certificate, 3 = diploma, 4 = bachelor, 5 = master, 6 = Ph.D; [e]Marital Status was coded in categories: 1 = single, 2 = married, 3 = others; OT-Overtime, OW-Overwork, TI-Turnover intention; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Table 2. Outer loading, composite reliability and AVE

	Outer Loading	Composite Reliability	AVE
OT 1	0.706	0.887	0.567
OT 2	0.669		
OT 3	0.793		
OT 4	0.742		
OT 5	0.798		
OT 6	0.802		
OW 1	0.762	0.898	0.594
OW 2	0.798		
OW 3	0.762		
OW 4	0.787		
OW 5	0.766		
OW 6	0.746		
TI 1	0.792	0.890	0.581
TI 2	0.854		
TI 3	0.821		
TI 4	0.832		
TI 5	0.518		
TI 6	0.702		

Note: OT-Overtime, OW-Overwork, TI-Turnover intention

Table 3: Discriminant validity

	Overtime	Overworked	TI
OT			
OW	0.570		
TI	0.384	0.433	

Note: OT-Overtime, OW-Overwork, TI-Turnover intention

Table 4: Assessment of Path Relationship

Path Relationship	Path Coefficient	Std Error	t-value	Confidence Interval		VIF	f^2	R^2	Q^2
OT -> TI	0.227	0.065	3.476***	0.111	0.326	1.324	0.048	0.187	0.099
OW -> TI	0.272	0.066	4.099***	0.158	0.375	1.324	0.069		
OT*INC -> TI	0.201	0.213	0.945(NS)	-0.187	0.335				
OW*INC -> TI	-0.06	0.06	0.999(NS)	-0.15	0.049				

Note: OT-Overtime, OW-Overwork, TI-Turnover intention, *** $p<0.001$, NS-Not significant

Table 5: PLSpredict

	PLS		LM		PLS - LM	
	RMSE	$Q^2_{Predict}$	RMSE	$Q^2_{Predict}$	RMSE	$Q^2_{Predict}$
TI 1	1.228	0.108	1.259	0.062	-0.031	0.046
TI 2	1.217	0.154	1.236	0.128	-0.019	0.026
TI 3	1.219	0.102	1.205	0.123	0.014	-0.021
TI 4	1.178	0.083	1.207	0.038	-0.029	0.045
TI 5	1.287	0.060	1.313	0.020	-0.026	0.040
TI 6	1.329	0.057	1.326	0.061	0.003	-0.004

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework