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**THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND EMPLOYEE
INNOVATIVE BEHAVIOR IN RESPONSE TO OFF-SEASON IN HOTEL:
AN APPROACH-AVOIDANCE PERSPECTIVE IN ETHIOPIA**

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PhD

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

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The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
School of Hotel & Tourism Management

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BEHAVIOR IN RESPONSE TO OFF-SEASON IN HOTEL: AN APPROACH-
AVOIDANCE PERSPECTIVE IN ETHIOPIA**

SENBETO DAGNACHEW LETA

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

May 2019

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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Senbeto Dagnachew Leta

Abstract

A common and, perhaps, permanent feature of the tourism industry, seasonality in tourism remains an important issue and it is one of the most documented issues in the tourism literature. Generally, the cause and impact of seasonality has received considerable attention; however, there is limited work on its theoretical and conceptual development (Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Senbeto & Hon, 2019) since most studies have focused on case studies or practical issues. With regard to the cause of seasonality in tourism, natural and institutional factors have been broadly identified as the main causes in connection with push-pull factors that create high and low seasons. Climate and weather-related variables like temperature, sunlight, and rainfall are linked to natural seasonality factors while institutional factors represent human-related activities such as events, festivals, traveling and vacation tradition. The impacts of seasonality have been in doubt due to its positive and negative effects arising from sustainability and economic dimensions respectively. Few studies have argued that seasonality encourages sustainability, provides time for recovery, and minimizes overcrowding and overuse of resources (Butler, 2001; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Matheison & Wall, 2006). However, a number of studies have asserted that seasonality reduces economic capability of destinations and tourism organizations. For example, off-season influences tourist flow, occupancy, tourism receipts, and investment (see Amelung et al., 2007; Getz & Nilsson, 2004; Pegg et al., 2012; Terry, 2016). Regarding response to seasonality, destinations at macro level and tourism organizations at micro level adopt different strategies to manage seasonality. Although a number of studies have investigated the cause and impact of seasonality, little is known about how tourism organizations or destinations respond to seasonality. In particular, how individual tourism businesses respond to seasonality needs further investigation (Fernández-Morales, Cisneros-Martínez, & McCabe, 2016). While hotels are motivated to tackle

off-season market challenges, response to seasonality requires innovation in terms of changing the status quo both in thinking and action. Thus, some hotels innovatively respond to seasonality while others do not. In line with innovative response to seasonality, organizational culture plays a crucial role in determining firms' business plan in order to handle the seasonality issue (Amabile, et al., 2004; Hon & Leung, 2011).

In response to the above-mentioned research gaps, this study develops a research model by integrating the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories with the aim of 1) examining 1) the impacts of several organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season; 2) analyzing the influence of employee situation-based responses on innovative behavior in response to off-season; and 3) assessing the mediating effects of employee openness and resistance to change on the relationship between innovative, collaborative, and traditional culture and innovative behavior in response to off-season. Using a multi-source data collected from both employees and managers from 48 hotels that ranged from 3 to 5-star ratings in Ethiopia, the results demonstrate that employee openness, innovative and collaborative cultures are positively related to innovative performance in response to off-season while employee resistance and traditional organizational culture are negatively related to innovative response to off-season. In addition, employee openness positively mediates the relationships of innovative and collaborative cultures on employee innovation whereas it negatively mediates the relationship between a traditional culture and innovative behavior.

The study has theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, the study offers empirical perspectives on seasonality and response to it in a context underexplored in the literature.

Also, the research model extends the theoretical underpinning of tourism seasonality research and the findings provide newer insights into the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories in seasonality. Further, the findings shed light on the impact of the approach–avoidance and regulatory focus theories with regard to how hotels respond to seasonality. The study offers practical contributions and suggestions for hotel managers, human resource practitioners, marketers, and policymakers. Based on the findings, human resource managers need to embrace a management approach in their recruitment and selection procedures. In addition, managers and marketers need to distinguish the nature of hotel’s culture in the process of developing marketing plans, packages, and strategies to curb off-season impacts. Moreover, the study provides relevant information to policy makers in their efforts to create plans and business strategies to manage seasonality in the hotel context. Finally, the study is relevant to owners and prospective hotel investors as it highlights the need for them to consider seasonality as an essential aspect of their business operation.

Keywords: Seasonality; Organizational cultures; Innovative behavior; Openness; Resistance to change; Ethiopia.

Publications arising from the thesis

Journal publication:

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2. Senbeto D. L. (2017). The effects of various types of crisis on tourist behavior and expenditure pattern: A perspective from evolutionary theory. The proceeding of Asia Pacific Tourism forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism, Daegu, South Korea, July 22-24, 2017.

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CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

1.1. Research background

Seasonality is a common feature of the tourism industry and is among one of the most documented issues in the tourism literature (Ferrante, Lo Magno, & De Cantis, 2018; Vergori, 2017). Tourism demand and market segment fluctuations caused by seasonal variations, thereby affecting tourist flow, is determined by seasonal vicissitudes (Reintinger, Berghammer, & Schmude, 2016; Turrión-Prats & Duro, 2017). The winter/summer variation may influence a tourist's decision to visit attractions. For example, tourists may seek 'sun, sea, and sand' during summer season; conversely, they may prefer city tours and cultural tourism destinations in the winter. In addition, human activities like school and vacation time, traveling inertia, and events can influence the volume of tourists. Generally, seasonality influences not only variation, but also suppliers' reaction to seasonal changes. Consequently, in the tourism literature, understanding the causes, impacts, and responses to seasonality has received considerable attention from both demand and supply perspectives. For managers and policy makers, seasonality determines return on investment and their strategic decision-making process. It also alters tourists' perceptions and choice of attractions (Senbeto & Hon, 2019).

Various studies have classified the causes of seasonality into two categories: natural and institutional factors (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Ferrante, Magno, & De Cantis, 2018; Fernández-Morales, Cisneros-Martínez, & McCabe, 2016; Higham & Hinch, 2002; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Weather-related variables such as temperature, rainfall, sunlight, daylight, and precipitation are some of the main natural factors. Institutional factors comprise events, festivals, holidays, school and industrial leaving schedules, traditions, social pressure, sport and fashion

events. There is an ongoing debate on the impact of seasonality in hospitality and tourism. From the perspective of the economy, the abundant literature has mostly paid attention to the commercial aspects of seasonality (e.g., Amelung & Viner, 2006; Cooper et al., 2005; Getz & Nilsson, 2004; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Szivas, Riley, & Airey, 2003). In this vein, seasonality is considered as a bottleneck for the tourism business because off-season leaves hotels with empty rooms, which in turn leads to low level of occupancy and less amounts of revenue. Nonetheless, some studies have argued that seasonality promotes sustainability and resource conservation, minimizes overcrowding, and provides time for recovery after the peak season. Seasonality in tourism could also transcend efforts to alleviate problems like climate change and global warming (cf. Amelung, Nicholls, & Viner, 2007; Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Butler, 1998, 2001; Hinch, Hickey, & Jackson, 2001; Kennedy & Deegan, 2001; Mathieson & Wall, 2006).

Regarding response to seasonality, hotels face two types of market – i.e., off or low as well as peak or high season markets. Peak seasons generate a greater number of guests to hotels while low seasons results in lower number of guests. Destination and tourism organizations respond to off-season market challenges by using several strategies. For example, by examining the potential of Rugby sports events in New Zealand, Higham and Hinch (2002) found that alternative tourist attractions like sport events and festivals enable tourism organizations to minimize business challenges and curb off-season market encounters. Despite being demanding and even laborious to accomplish, marketing, demand creation, and adjustment play a substantial role for organizations to cope with off-season challenges (Jang, 2004; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Although many studies have investigated the cause and impact of seasonality, little is known about how tourism organizations respond to seasonality (Goulding, Baum, & Morrison, 2005).

Various studies assert that the success of tourism organizations' response to seasonality depend on their reaction either to challenge or embrace seasonal variation (Getz & Nilson, 2004; Jolliffe, & Farnsworth, 2003). Building on empirical findings on the impact of seasonality in the Australian alpine region, Pegg, Patterson, and Gariddo (2012) suggest that managers should adopt new and alternative marketing mechanisms to overcome market-related challenges caused by low season. This implies that innovative response is needed to curb off-season market challenge. Innovation in this regard could make a difference and can be the reason why some hotels perform better on the market throughout the seasons while others do not. Employee creativity theorists indicate that employees are a vital force to augment organizational creativity and innovation at the grassroots level (Amabile, 1998; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993). Moreover, Pitta, Wood, and Franzak (2008) assert that employees' innovative behavior could be used to transform an ordinary organization into a market leader. Employees could be the ultimate means to convey innovation through sharing of their knowledge and experience since they are the linchpin of a hotel's success in the market (Kim & Lee, 2013). Considering market fluctuation caused by seasonal variations, innovation plays a pivotal role for companies in the hospitality industry in their efforts to manage such challenges; hence, employees' innovative behavior determines the success of hotels to tackle off-season market downtrends.

Although employees are the cornerstone of organizational success, the culture of an organization depends on employees' contribution to the organization's innovation. Research has found that employees innovative behavior do not only depend on their personality, skill, knowledge, cognition, and motivation but also on social elements like culture (Ali Taha, Sirkova, & Ferencova, 2016; Naranjo-Valencia, Jiménez-Jiménez, & Sanz-Valle, 2016; Ogbeibu, Senadjki,

& Gaskin, 2018). Unlike other variables, an organization's culture affects employees' behavior and work procedure (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). The culture of an organization plays a crucial role in determining attitude, system, and processes of an organization which in turn can promote or inhibit innovation. Practically speaking, an innovative performance can be caused by norms that support information exchange about new ways of doing things within an organization. Various studies have found that organizational culture is an antecedent for innovative behavior (Amabile, 1988; Hogan & Coote, 2014). Thus, it has been suggested in the organizational behavior literature that the need to investigate the influence of several types of organizational cultures on employee innovation, and whether employees respond similarly or differently, in terms of creativity, to the cultural aspects (Amabile et al., 2004; Zhou & George, 2001; Zhou & Shalley, 2008). Despite the fact that most previous studies consider organizational culture as a single construct, Schein (1992) stresses the significance of examining several types of organizational culture on employee behavior. Consequently, this thesis examines innovative, collaborative, and traditional organizational cultures on innovative behavior in response to seasonality since the cumulative effect of organizational culture on employee innovative behavior can result in fostering new ideas and interaction or it can impede new thinking (Büschgens, Bausch, & Balkin, 2013; Hogan & Coote, 2014; Hon & Leung, 2011). Hence, drawing on approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, the present study aims to investigate the impact of innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season through an assessment of the mechanisms of situation-based responses i.e. openness and resistance to change.

1.2 Research gaps and problem statement

This study addresses a number of research gaps. First, it has been recognized that although the service industry has witnessed substantial growth together with the rapid development of technology in a wide range of social and economic areas, not much research has centered on innovation in the service industry compared to manufacturing sector (Axtell et al., 2000; Gomezelj, 2016; Oke, 2004; Ramamoorthy, Flood, Slattery, & Sardessai, 2005). In addition, as part of the service sector, the hotel industry is currently experiencing market turbulence caused by seasonality, crisis, and disaster (Duro, 2016; Ritchie & Wang, 2010; Senbeto & Hon, 2018). In response to such challenging conditions, creating new service or modifying current service is necessary to address market fluctuation. It is also important for firms to find ways to mitigate the pressure caused by crises and uncertainties (Campiranon & Scott, 2014; Israeli & Reichel, 2003).

In an organization, employee innovative behavior reinforces innovation and helps to achieve a competitive edge in the market. In the last two decades, research has been conducted on employee innovative behavior in the hospitality and tourism industry. Most of these studies paid attention to issues such as motivation (Wong & Ladkin, 2003), stress and conflict (Hon & Chan, 2013), service standard (Lai, Lui, & Hon, 2014), emotional labor (Geng et al., 2014), leadership (Wang, Tsai, & Tsai, 2014), knowledge sharing (Hu, 2009; Kim & Lee, 2013), and empowerment (Luoh, Tsaur, & Tang, 2014). Compared to research in management and psychology (Hon & Lui, 2016), innovation-related studies in hospitality have received less theoretical development and such studies are not-yet-rigorous in methodology. In addition, there is growing research interest in innovation in the service sector of less-developed contexts like Africa (Carlborg et al., 2014). Therefore, there is need for theoretical development and knowledge advancement towards employees' innovative behavior in the hospitality industry in developing countries. To fill this gap,

the present study examines innovative behavior and how it can be deployed to curb off-season market challenges in the hotel industry in Ethiopia.

Second, compared to the cause and impact of seasonality, relatively less work has been done on response to seasonal variation. Some of the main causes of seasonal variations are climate and weather (Butler, 1998, 2001; Saverimuttu & Varua, 2014; Shields & Shelleman, 2013; Zhang & Kulendran, 2017), social customs/holidays (Lise & Tol, 2002; Lundtorp et al., 1999), and calendar-related effects (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Butler, 1998). In addition, there are several studies on the impact of seasonality at the destination level with special emphasis on economic and community perspectives (Goulding et al., 2005; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2010). However, compared to the cause and impact of seasonality, there is less research on how to mitigate off-season market challenges (Connell, Page, & Meyer, 2015). Since seasonality creates challenges for tourism marketers and off-season specifically deteriorates the marketability of tourism organizations, it is imperative that managers and marketers strive to sustain and attract existing and new market segments (Buhalis, 2000; Pegg et al., 2012). To achieve this, introducing new products and services as well as building marketing or promotion mechanisms are essential. As Burugu, Wishitemi, Kiprutto, and Eleri (2014) suggest, innovative approach is necessary to tackle seasonality, making it needful for hotels to pursue new and alternative working ways and procedures to mitigate off-season market decline. Such an idea remains consistent with the simple theory of economy that supply creates demand (Kates, 2005) rather than the conventional thinking that demand creates supply.

Previous tourism seasonality studies have mainly paid attention to developed countries contexts such as in North America, Europe, Australia, and New Zealand (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Chen & Pearce, 2012; Koenig & Bischoff, 2005), and there is a paucity of research from developing countries in Africa, Asia, and South America. Apart from the variation that results from geography, climate, and level of development, the survival of business remains salient and is even more crucial in developing countries. Thus, research is needed to bridge the gap between developed and developing contexts in addition to the importance of generalizing the issue of seasonality across different geographic contexts. Taking Ethiopia as an example of a developing country, tourism organizations and their business are affected by seasonality (Mitchell & Coles, 2009). The seasonal trend for the inbound leisure tourists in Ethiopia shows that the high season occurs between September and March due to a high flow of tourists during December and January (in time of Christmas and Ethiopian epiphany). The low season occurs from April until September due to heavy rainfall during June, July and August. According to the Ethiopian sustainable tourism development plan, which is published after extensive stakeholder discussion, reveal, seasonality hampers the country's tourism and hospitality growth (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), 2015). The plan prioritizes marketing and promotion as a strategy to tackle seasonality. In addition, a study conducted by Mitchell and Coles (2009) with support of the World Bank and United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) found that seasonal variation invariably influences hotel occupancy.

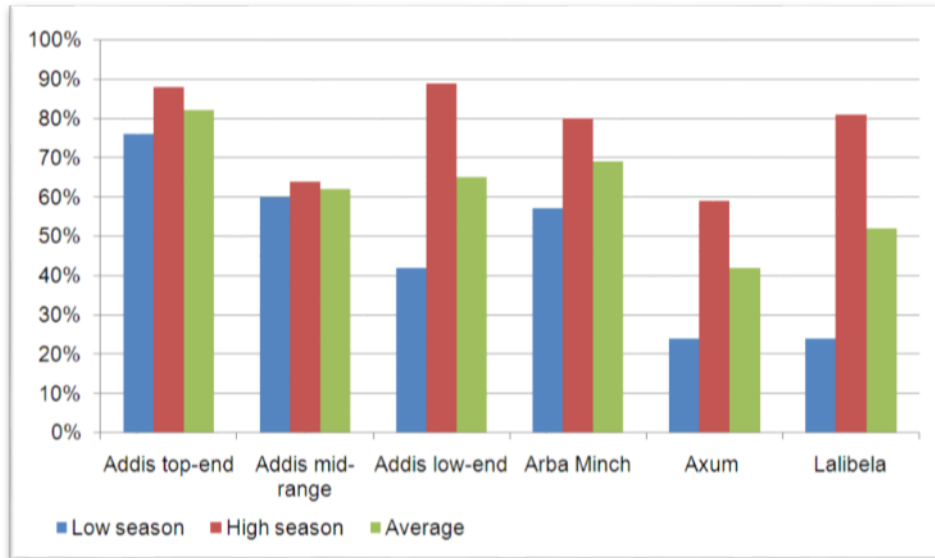


Figure 1.1 Seasonal variations in Hotel occupancy across cities and towns in Ethiopia

Figure 1.1 depicts that hotel occupancy is higher, which is around 90% in the peak season, but the percentage decreases by 20% in the off-season. The statistics shows that seasonal variation regularly affects hotel occupancy in Ethiopia. Research found that resorts and lodges situated in the south-central part of the country have regularly been affected by seasonal variations (Adem, 2008). The above-mentioned studies reveal that seasonal variations influence hotels, resorts, and lodges in Ethiopia. Therefore, it is needful to examine how hotels cope with challenges arising from seasonal variations and how they tackle market challenges caused by off-season in particular. Thus, this study examines hoteliers' response to seasonality; specifically, hotel employees' innovative behavior and their reaction during low season.

Fourth, in an organizational context, the influence of culture on innovation has been studied mainly from western cultural setting; hence, there is growing interest to examine culture and its influence on innovative behavior and management practices in non-western contexts (Ahmad, 2012; Beugre & Offodile, 2001). Given the variation in understanding innovation across western

and eastern socio-cultural spectrum (Leung & Morris, 2011), innovation represents novelty in western contexts while in eastern settings, it is seen as a process. For example, from the easterners' point of view, being innovative is associated with the generation of novel ideas or procedures to solve problems as a process of re-discovering existing ideas or mechanisms to address problems or phenomenon (Morris, Michael, & Kwok, 2010). Easterners argue that solutions are already available for foreseen and unforeseen problems through general approach whereas westerners contend that discovery or the creation of novel ideas is compulsory to solve problems through specific approaches. Hence, this study fills a gap by exploring the relationship between different organizational cultures and innovative behavior in a different non-western cultural context.

Regarding methodology, since previous tourism-related seasonality studies have primarily used secondary data analysis, qualitative case-based and focus-on-practice approaches, there is little use of primary data and quantitative methods, resulting in a lack of theoretical development (see Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Hinch & Jackson, 2000; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Lundtorp, 2001; Senbeto & Hon, 2019). Hence, this study adopts a quantitative method, measures variables and tests theories, thereby contributing to methodological rigor. In sum, the discussion above suggest that a considerable research gap exists in the literature on seasonality, organizational culture, and innovative behavior in hospitality. To fill these gaps, this study develops a conceptual model by integrating approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, and it examines the relationships between organizational culture types (innovative, collaborative, and traditional culture), employee situation-based responses, and innovative behavior in the context of hotel seasonality.

1.3 Research questions and objectives

Currently, innovation is seen not only as an alternative approach to achieve competitive advantage in the market, but also as a necessary means to survive in stiff market competition. Hotels' competition to gain a market advantage is fierce, especially in situations like off-season which results less occupancy. Studies suggest that tourism organizations should pursue an outside of the box approach to tackle seasonality (Burugu et al., 2014; Higham & Hinch, 2002; Pegg et al., 2012). Employees' innovative behavior plays a pivotal role in maintaining and upholding organizational innovation. This leads one to ask what factors affect creativity and innovation for better hotel marketing in conditions of off-season. Employees' innovative behavior is not only the result of cognition, interaction, collaboration and mental procedure but also a source of cultural values (Ogbeibu, Senadjki, & Gaskin, 2018). Thus, there is growing interest to study different categories of organizational cultures and their outcomes on employee innovative behavior (Hon & Leung, 2011), and research is now focusing on the impacts of several types of organizational cultures on employee innovation (Amabile et al., 2004; Zhou & George, 2001; Zhou & Shalley, 2008). For example, Pitta et al. (2008) found that creative culture could positively drive sales and marketing activities in an organization. In addition to the influence of organizational cultures, employees' situation-based responses, stemming from approach-avoidance and regulatory processes (Elliot, 2006; Higgins, 1997; Kim & Lee, 2013), also play a vital role in determining innovative response to off-season. Thus, the central question for this thesis is *“to what extent do different types of organizational cultures and employees' situation-based responses enable or inhibit employee innovative behavior in response to off-season?”*

Within the framework of organizational culture, several studies have look at the influence of organizational culture on employee innovative behavior (e.g. Hirst, Van Knippenberg, Chen, & Sacramento, 2011; Hon & Leung, 2011; Low, Abdul-Rahman, & Zakaria, 2015; Malaviya & Wadhwa, 2005; Moon, Quigley, & Marr, 2012). Organizational culture does not only determine employees' intentions, motivations, and commitments, but can also foster an environment that assists productivity as well as adaptation to the environment (Lund, 2003; Moon et al., 2012; Smircich, 1983). Although research found that culture and organizational culture significantly influence employees' innovative behavior (Chua, Roth, & Lemoine, 2015; Hofstede, 2001; Leung & Morris, 2011; Leung & Wang, 2015), relatively less work has been done on the effect of different facets of organizational culture on employee innovative behavior. Due to this, the interplay of various dimensions of organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior needs further investigation in hospitality. Consequently, this thesis responded to the sub-question *“to what extent do different organizational cultures, i.e., innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational culture influence employee innovative behavior in response to off-season?”* In considering personal and psychological factors and their impact on innovation (Coelho, Lages, & Sousa, 2018), the second sub-question of the study is *“to what extent do culture types affect employees' situation-based response, i.e., openness and resistance in response to the off-season?”*

Although organizational culture determines employees' innovative behavior, employees situation-based responses can also play a pivotal role in their intention and willingness to exhibit innovative behavior (Chen, Tsou, & Huang, 2009; Kim & Lee, 2013). In addition to the effect of organizational cultures, employees' openness or resistance determines their innovative behavior. From the perspective of conservatism and hierarchy-based dimensions, employees' resistance

behavior relates to traditional organizational culture while employees' openness to experience exhibit different working environments associated with innovative organizational culture (O'Cass, & Ngo, 2007). Hence, the third sub-question of the study is *“to what extent does situation-based response, i.e., openness and resistance influence employees' affect innovative behavior in response to low-season?”*

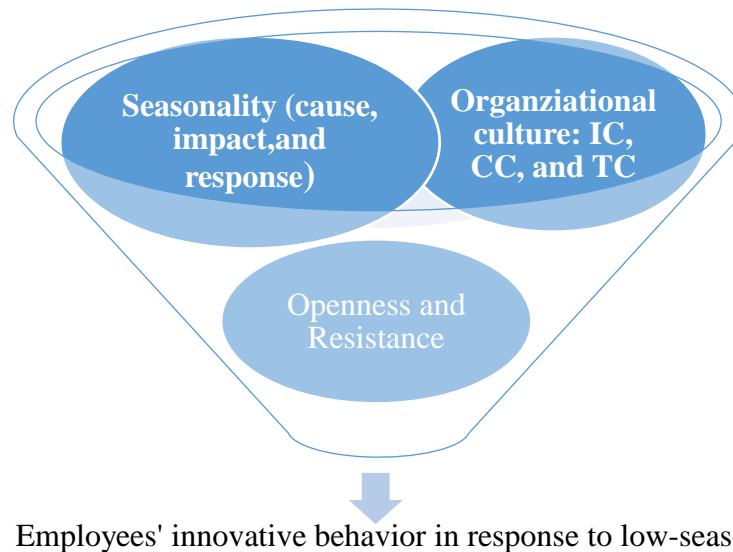
After answering the above research questions, this thesis aims to accomplish the following objectives:

- Examine the relationship between innovative, traditional and collaborative organizational cultures on employees' situation-based response, i.e., openness and resistance in response to off-season.
- Analyze the effect of innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational cultures on employees' innovative behavior in response to off-season.
- Assess the influence of employees' situation-based responses on innovative behavior in response to off-season.
- Examine the mediating effects of employee openness and resistance on the relationship between innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational cultures and innovative behavior in response to off-season.

1.4 Scope of the study

This thesis focuses on employees' innovative behavior in response to low season. To answer and achieve research questions and objectives respectively, this thesis emphasizes certain dimensions such as seasonality, organizational cultures (i.e., innovative, traditional, and collaborative),

employees' situation-based responses (i.e., openness and resistance), and innovative behavior. In this study, innovative, collaborative, and traditional organizational cultures represent independent variables. Employee innovative behavior is an outcome variable and openness and resistance to change is considered as mediating variables in the relationship between organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior.



* TC-Traditional Culture; IC-Innovative Culture; CC-Collaborative Culture
 Figure 1.2 Scope of the study

1.5 Research Contributions

1.5.1 Theoretical contributions

Compared to the various investigations on the cause and impact of seasonality in tourism, relatively little is known about response to seasonality. Recent studies have suggested the need to conduct further research on response to seasonality in the context of tourism organization (Connell et al., 2015; Fernández-Morales, Cisneros-Martínez, & McCabe, 2016; Senbeto & Hon, 2019). In response to this, this study provides empirical evidence regarding response to seasonality in a hotel setting, by focusing on organizational cultures, employees' situation-based response and

innovative behavior. The thesis contributes to the literature in hospitality by adding new knowledge to the seasonality literature at a micro-level tourism organization setting.

Previous studies have asserted that the outcome of tourism organizations' response to seasonal variation can make them challenge or embrace seasonal variation (Getz & Nilson, 2004; Jolliffe & Farnsworth, 2003). Although firms strive to tackle seasonality by relying on employees' performance and innovation, further research is needed to understand the reason why some employees perform innovative behaviors in response to seasonality and why others resist innovation during off-season? Without an understanding of the underlying mechanism between organizational cultures and employee innovation, tourism organizations' one-size-fits-all approach to the off-season is questionable. Bearing this in mind, this study builds on the existing literature by examining several dimensions of organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior in response to seasonality.

Existing seasonality studies in tourism and hospitality have primarily addressed the issue of seasonal variation from western world context (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Chen & Pearce, 2012; Koenig & Bischoff, 2005; Senbeto & Hon, 2019). Although few studies have investigated seasonality in the hospitality industry (Lundtorp, 2001; Jeffrey, Barden, Buckley, & Hubbard, 2002), all of these studies were based in western developed countries located in a temperate climate zone. Hence, this study fills theoretical and practical gaps as far as seasonality in the hotel setting of non-western and developing economies like Africa is concerned. Furthermore, the literature indicated that there is a paucity of research on innovation in service setting (Gomezelj, 2016; Oke, 2004) as compared to the manufacturing industry and in less-developed countries (Carlborg et al., 2014). Moreover, exploring the impact of seasonality on hotel business in Kenya, Burugu et al.

(2014) suggested that further research is necessary to examine innovative approaches to deal with response to seasonality in developing economies like Africa. Therefore, this thesis offers insights into seasonality and highlights the usefulness of innovation to curb off-season market challenges in less-developed world contexts.

Theories of innovative behavior in hospitality research have concentrated on the componential (see Amabile, 1983, 1988) and interactionist (Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993) theories. The componential theory submits that innovative behavior is sourced from motivations (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic) that stem from domain-specific context forces to either drive or dissuade an individual innovative behavior. Drawing on the concept of interactionist psychology, the interactionist theory considers how personal characteristics, situational and contextual factors contribute to individual innovative behavior. Since performing innovative behavior is mainly driven by behavioral activation (Dreu, Nijstad & Baas, 2011), additional theories are needed to investigate innovative behavior, behavioral activation and decision making instead of relying on the over utilized theories of innovative behavior. Against this backdrop, various studies have suggested the need to consider the role of activation and self-regulation to comprehend individual innovative behavior (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2011; Lam & Chiu, 2002). More specific, studies (e.g. De Dreu, Baas, & Nijstad, 2008; Friedman & Förster, 2001, 2008; Higgins, 1997) have suggested the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories to better understand innovative behavior in the context of activation, valence, and hedonic tones. Approach-avoidance theory is considered a behavioral activation motivated by positive or negative stimuli (Elliot 2006) in which approach motivation represents the aspiration for positive stimuli or motives while avoidance motivation represents negative stimuli or motives. The regulatory focus theory elucidates how a person's self-regulation is governed by positive or negative stimuli (Higgins, 1997, 1998)

represented by promotion and prevention processes. A promotion indicates the seeking of pleasure, development, and excitement, and it is led by the ideal self, which is consistent with approach motivation. In contrast, prevention focuses on safety, protection, and obligations, is driven by the actual self, and is consistent with avoidance motivation. The relationship between the two theories helps to understand individual response and reaction to situations (Elliot, 1999; Higgin, 1997, 1998). Furthermore, Lanaj, Chang, and Johnson (2012) noted that approach-avoidance theory is seen as an antecedent of regulatory focus theory (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). In such instance, approach-promotion represents pleasure while avoidance-prevention represents pain.

Based on the above-mentioned theory-related gap, this thesis is one of the first attempts to integrate approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory in the hospitality literature in order to examine employee innovative behavior by explicitly linking organizational culture and employee situation-based responses. And it considers employee openness as an approach-promotion and resistance to change as an avoidance-prevention mechanism to determine innovative behavior. This fills the research gaps related to limited utilization of theories on seasonality research in tourism and hospitality (see Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Senbeto & Hon, 2019). The findings provide complementary views toward research on approach-avoidance and regulatory fit (Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Cesario Grant, & Higgins, 2004), through integration of such theories in the context of tourism seasonality, organizational culture types, situation-based attitudes, and innovative behavior. In addition, the results of the study uphold and widen the scope of such theories in the context of hotel seasonality and in a context underexplored in the literature. Thus, the proposed conceptual model provides a combination of different concepts related to seasonality, organizational culture, personal and psychological behavior that add a multi-disciplinary knowledge and thinking to comprehend employee innovative behavior.

In addition, the framework of this study provides understanding of theories, variables, and concepts on the issues of organizational culture, innovative behavior, and employees' situation-based attitude in hospitality sourced from psychology and organizational behavior literature. The research model exhibits a multitude of organizational culture types and their effect on innovative behavior, which is beyond the one-size-fits-all approaches of organizational culture consideration. (Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2017). This study adopts a quantitative approach and it contributes to methodological extension by measuring variables and testing theories based on primary data unlike previous studies that largely relied on secondary data and qualitative case-based studies (Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Senbeto & Hon, 2019). The findings add empirical evidence to hospitality and organizational behavior literature by considering the mediating effects of openness and resistance developed from approach-promotion and avoidance-prevention respectively on the relationship between organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior in response to seasonality.

1.5.2 Practical contributions

Considering the current changing, heterogeneous, challenging, and deplorable business environment, the survival and competitiveness of an organization depends on its ability to react and respond to situations. Hence, innovation plays a crucial role in sustaining organizations capacity, and it helps to achieve a competitive edge in the market. For example, Apple and McDonald's altered the unusual practice in the technology and food sectors respectively; as a result, they are market leaders and have an enormous customer demand. Conversely, because of less effort in innovation, companies like Nokia and Kodak lose their ground-breaking market edge (Johnston & Bate, 2013). Innovation is significant to the longevity of companies in a fierce and volatile competitive environment in the tourism industry. In hospitality, companies create

strategies to maintain innovation. For instance, Disney Corporation, Air China, and Intercontinental hotels have been expanding their share in the market by utilizing various marketing strategies and techniques to target customer demand. Likewise, innovation is necessary in the process of tourism organization's response to seasonality since seasonal variation influences the marketability of tourism business, and organizations need to alleviate the negative impact of seasonality (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Coshall, Charlesworth, & Page, 2015; Koenig & Bischoff, 2005). This study investigates how hotels respond to off-season by considering organizational cultures, employees' situation-based responses, and innovative behavior.

It is essential for hotels to understand the nature of seasonality in their regions; thus, they can track their operations based on the seasonality characteristics. For example, hotels should focus on internal staff training and development, service recovery, upgrading facilities and infrastructures in relation to unforeseen-related seasonality factors since it is difficult to attract market demand during unforeseen events. However, in the normal off-peak season pattern, hotels could search for alternatives such as packaging and bundling, weekly and weekend promotional rates/packages, demand creation through value-adding mechanisms, using non-peak product or service promotion and loyalty programmes. Precaution to minimize customer complaints in time of busy season is also important to sustain existing demand. Thus, hotels should focus on customer handling to resolve problems in order to prevent complaints. Most importantly, hotels need to consider domestic tourism and other forms of tourism like diaspora tourism to diversify their market and to operate throughout the year. A collaborative work culture could promote off-season marketing through networking and relationship marketing. Hotels need to create collaborative work culture to not only encourage customer-hotel relationship, but also to develop trust during off-season and unforeseen situations.

From the practical standpoint, it is obvious that seasonality is a pertinent and worrying issue for tourism organizations. Hence, tourism organizations pursue different approaches to manage seasonal variation. With the effect of seasonality and its consequence on off-season market-related challenges, managers need to consider strategies that can assist them to manage seasonality by identifying and responding to guests' seasonal variation patterns. In this regard, this study suggests that innovative behavior is essential to curb off-season market challenges, enabling employees to secure their job through year-round market opportunities. The findings of this study indicate that creating conducive work environment helps to ensure innovative behavior which in turn contributes to non-peak promotion, packaging product and service, complimentary services, and employee-customer interaction during off-season. When employees develop innovative performance, they can help to address off-season market challenges through high proclivity for marketing activities and customer satisfaction. Innovative behavior assists employees to understand and predict the extent of seasonal variation and show readiness to assist organization's effort to curb off-season. For example, Alananzeh, Mahmoud, and Ahmed (2015) found that high seasonality has several consequences on hotel employees with respect to miscommunication, deviance, negative relationship and conflict with coworkers during work hours. In response to such effects of seasonality, employee innovative behavior can help them to become aware of the variation on customer demand, to build up psychological remedies, and to address issues with several working mechanisms. Tourism firms rely on their employees for innovation that will generate new and useful ideas and form the foundation for new products, services, or processes so as to attract new tourists and sustain existing guests (Amabile, et al., 2004; Burugu et al., 2014; Hon & Leung, 2011). Thus, employee innovation assists to mitigate off-season market challenges through putting extra effort in developing new marketing and promotion strategies. Several studies

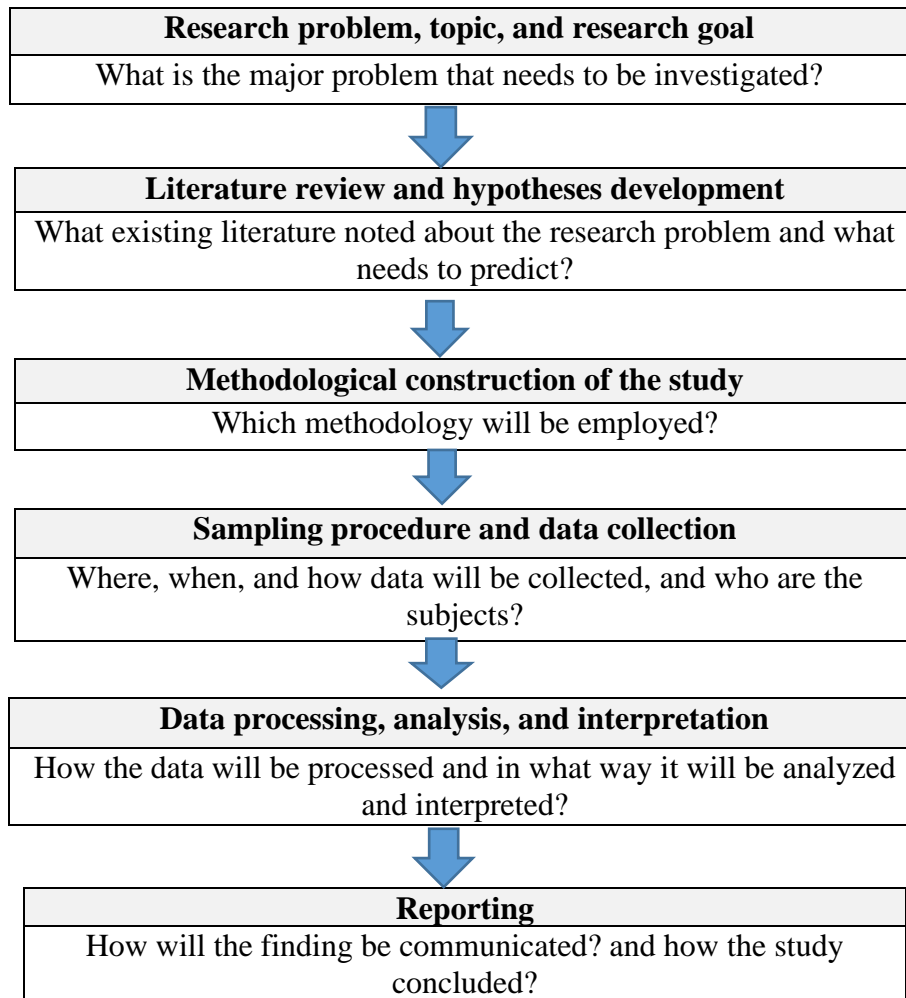
have intimated that employee innovative behavior is not only essential for the effectiveness and survival of an organization, but can also be used to transform an ordinary organization into a market leader (Bani-Melhem, Zeffane, & Albaity, 2018; Connell, Page, & Meyer, 2015; Gu, Duverger, & Yu, 2017; Pitta, Wood, & Franzak, 2008). For instance, firms in the hotel industry rely on employee innovative behavior to fill empty hotel rooms during off-season and to maintain a good relationship with hotel guests. In the tourism industry, firms need to be innovative to create different movie- and media- synergized theme parks to attract international tourists and sustain local customers. In the airline industry, firms developed a new Introductory Fare Program or offered relatively cheap tickets on certain routes to attract more tourists from mainland China and opened more routes for short- and long-haul leisure travelers (Hon & Lui, 2016). Such innovative strategies are crucial to help organizations offset the seasonal shortage of demand.

The findings point out mechanisms for hospitality owners and managers to support employee innovative behavior as part of organizational strategies to tackle seasonality. One of the challenging tasks that hotels experience is their reaction to situations like off-season market challenges. As this is a problem facing hotel businesses, the current finding reveals the importance of innovative response to off-season that draws from conducive organizational culture, employee openness to experience new and alternative strategies, and through promoting approach-promotion-oriented motivation and decision-making strategies. The findings suggest that managers need to foster innovative and collaborative organizational cultures to tackle seasonal variation since such cultures offer an open environment and provide a chance for employees to take risks in their attempt to try new and alternative working mechanisms during off-season. It is also crucial for human resource managers and practitioners to understand or assess how employees can respond to situations and their compatibility with organizational culture during recruitment.

This thesis further benefits hotel marketers and managers by highlighting the need for them to grasp employees' profiles and intentions to exhibit innovative behavior to tackle off-season. It provides a notion of understanding about how employees' openness and resistance relate with organizational cultures in response to off-season. For example, innovative hotel culture is compatible with employees who are open to experiences and willing to adopt various mechanisms to attract guests during off-season. Consequently, the findings offer insights into staff behavior and organizational culture relevant to create and organize marketing strategies to combat the impact of seasonal variation on business. In summary, this thesis is not only significant in shedding light on organizations' intention and reaction to seasonality but is also essential in providing a practical display of organizational culture and employee innovative behavior in hospitality. The study presents insights relevant for existing owners and potential investors to notice issues like seasonality and for them to better understand the extent of factors that affect hotels' response to seasonality.

1.6 Organization of the thesis

Drawing on theoretical and practical research gaps and building on conceptual framework by using approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, this study examines the impact of organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season, while considering the mediating effects of employee openness and resistance to change. Figure 1.3 outlines the overall research processes and contents of the thesis which covers research problem, objectives, literature review, hypothesis development, methodological issues, sampling, data collection procedures, analysis, discussion and conclusion.



Source: adapted from Srantakos (2005)

Figure 1.3 Organization of the study

This thesis has seven chapters, namely introduction, literature review, conceptual framework and hypotheses, methods and methodology, analysis and result, discussion and conclusion. Chapter 1 presents research background, gaps and problem statements, and research questions and objectives, scope of the study and implications of the study. It explains the need and context of the study. The chapter highlights the need to examine the influence of seasonality on hotel business and hoteliers' rejoinders to it. Organizational cultures have been varied in their effect on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season; thus, the chapter addresses

different organizational culture types and their relationship among main constructs. For example, innovative culture encourages new ideas and alternative procedures, and collaborative culture promotes a supportive environment and affinity among employees while traditional culture keeps after old practices. In this regard, relatively less studies can be found on the effect of such organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior. In addition, previous studies pointed out that being innovative is an important way to curtail the impact of low-season market challenges (Burugu et al., 2014; Higham & Hinch, 2002). However, organizational culture plays a crucial role on employee innovative behavior (Hsu & Chen, 2017), and this can be workable on employees' innovative behavior in response to off-season. Thus, the link between organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior in response to seasonal variations becomes the main setting of this study. In addition, although employees work as a component of an organization, their personal and psychological needs and their compatibility with the organization's culture is worthy of investigation (Chen, Tsou, & Huang, 2009; Kim & Lee, 2013). Thus, the current study considers the mediating roles of employees' openness and resistance to change on the relationship between organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior. The chapter includes research contributions i.e. theoretical and practical contributions.

Chapter 2 discusses the literature on seasonality, response to seasonality, organizational cultures, and employees' innovative behavior. This chapter begins with an overview of seasonality in the tourism and hospitality industry. The main issues of seasonality such as causes, impacts, and responses are covered under this section. The section also presents several definitions as well as argumentative issues of seasonality. Existing studies have discussed the positive and negative aspects of seasonality from socio-economic and environmental perspectives (Amelung & Viner, 2006; Luković & Božić, 2011; Matheison & Wall, 2006). The chapter also highlights trends and

developments in hotel industry, in particular the feature of seasonality in hotel business in Ethiopia. Hotel development in Ethiopia commenced in the 19th century by its feudal leaders. Currently, the country possesses rapid growth in hospitality by attracting a number of international tourism and hospitality chains. Nevertheless, the sector have been experiencing challenges related to human resource and service quality (Bekele & Singh, 2015). In general, seasonality is seen as a shortcoming (UNECA, 2015), making it needful to find ways to offset it. Indeed, it received considerable attention in the country's macro level tourism strategy since it seems to be a research gap that needs to be filled. More importantly, a comprehensive literature review reveals that tourism organisations need to change the status quo of their off-season markets, by using appropriate strategies and techniques, and measuring operator's perception and attitude with regard to seasonality (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). The chapter concludes that nurturing employee innovative behavior to respond to off-season is a viable way to be pursued by hoteliers, and it provides reviews on factors affecting innovative behavior, such as organizational cultures and employees' situation-based responses. In addition, it explores what existing studies mentioned about the relationship among major constructs, such as organizational cultures i.e. innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture, employees' openness and resistance to change, and innovative behavior. Further, theoretical approaches on employee innovative behavior were assessed.

Chapter 3 explains the proposed hypothetical relationship among major constructs, and it presents the study's conceptual model. First, the chapter provides overviews about the history, definition and major perspectives of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories. Approach-avoidance originated from psychological hedonism, which governs human behavior. These include pleasure and pain led by approach and avoidance stimuli respectively. With extensive

laboratory, field, and psychological experiments, scholars segmented approach-avoidance theory into five, namely motivation, valence (positive and negative), movement (physical and psychological), stimuli (event, object, or possibility), and positive and negative stimuli. Regulatory focus theory is linked to decision-making processes driven by behavioral and personal self-intentions. Promotion and prevention are the two main principles which direct a person's regulatory foci. Promotion is associated with excitement and developmental-oriented while prevention is associated with vigilance, safety and security. Having explained the two theories, the chapter discusses the use of these theories in tourism and hospitality research. The results of the review show that existing tourism and hospitality studies often used approach-avoidance theories to investigate tourists and guests' emotions, satisfaction, and intention. These studies also employed regulatory focus theory to investigate engagement, effectiveness, hope, coping, reaction, and performance. The chapter presents hypothetical relationship among variables, such as organizational cultures, openness, resistance, and employee innovative behavior in the context of response to low season, by using approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories.

Chapter 4 describes the research methods and methodology, which is related to design and nature of the study, sampling procedures, data collection, and analysis. This thesis follows a positivist paradigm because of the research questions and objectives. The chapter explains the research methods and methodology used to address the research questions. To achieve the research objectives and to answer the research questions, this study adopts a quantitative approach to test the proposed hypotheses. Measurement items were adopted after a detailed examination on the conceptualization and operationalization of variables. Convenience and quota sampling were followed for the main and pilot survey respectively. Comments and suggestions collated from pilot

survey were used to adjust the questionnaires, and the data analysis techniques and tools were outlined. The chapter presents descriptive, confirmatory, and then structural model analysis of the study. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to confirm the underlying measurement items with respect to the construct they represent. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test the proposed hypothesized relationship among constructs. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) were utilized to perform descriptive and structural equation modelling analysis. The chapter explains justifications for validity and reliability concerns as well as the rationale for choosing the intended statistical techniques.

Chapter 5 presents results drew from descriptive, confirmatory factors, and structural equation modelling analyses. The chapter begins with examining data screening such as missing values, outliers, and normality. Statistical procedures were followed to check for univariate and multivariate outliers, normality, and missing values. Then, descriptive analysis was conducted to demonstrate the respondents' socio-demographic profile. Before proceeding to hypotheses testing, assessment of measurement model was conducted. Results from CFA, were checked for model fit indices, validity, reliability, and common method bias issues. Using SEM analysis, the hypotheses were tested after the model fit assessment. The chapter presents the result of relationships among predictor variables (innovative, collaborative, and traditional culture), mediating variables i.e. openness and resistance, and an outcome variable i.e. employee innovative behavior. Building on results in Chapter 5, Chapter 6 explains the interpretation of the findings in line with research objectives and provides theoretical and practical contributions of the study.

Chapter 6 discusses the influence of innovative, collaborative, and traditional culture on employee innovative behavior, and the mediating roles of employee openness and resistance to

change on the relationship between innovative, collaborative, and traditional culture and employee innovative behavior. This chapter illustrates the findings along with previous studies through description and interpretation of research questions and objectives. The chapter also presents theoretical and practical contributions of the thesis. Theoretically, the study contributes to seasonality and organizational behavior literature by assessing the impact of organizational cultures on innovative behavior in response to seasonality. Adopting approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory in hospitality literature is another contribution in terms of theory, thereby broadening and re-examining such theories in a different domain. This chapter also presents the practical contributions of the study to human resource managers and practitioners, managers, marketers, owners and prospective investors in hotel.

Chapter 7 is the conclusion chapter. It begins with a summary of the findings of the study in line with research questions and objectives, followed by a summary of the study's contribution to theory and practice. The chapter also discusses limitations of the study and makes suggestions for future research. The chapter ends with a concluding remark.

1.7 Definition of key terms

The definitions of the key terms used in this study are presented as follows.

- Seasonality is defined as an unbalanced demand and supply caused by seasonal variations. Natural and human factors are the main reason for seasonality in tourism. According to Butler (2001), "seasonality is a temporal imbalance in the phenomenon of tourism, which may be expressed regarding dimensions of such elements as numbers of visitors, expenditure of visitors, traffic on highways and other forms of transportation, employment and admissions to

attractions” (p. 5). Seasonality is the main feature of tourism and hospitality and is an inescapable feature of the sector.

- Organizational culture is defined as a shared belief, custom, norm, and traditions shared by members of an organization. Organizational culture arose from macro-culture and viewed as a subculture of the organization. Wallach (1983) categorizes organizational culture into three: bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive culture.
- Innovative culture is defined as an organization’s orientation, norm, belief, tradition, or values which pursue new approaches and alternatives by breaking the existing norms and values to comply with different changing situations (Ireland, Kuratko, & Morris, 2006).
- Collaborative culture is defined as organization’s norm, belief, or tradition which support mutualism, interaction and active communication and exchange of ideas among members of the organization (Pérez-López et al., 2004).
- Traditional culture is defined as organization’s norm, custom, tradition, or values which prioritize high-power distance, vertical chain of command, and strict superior-subordinate relationship.
- Employee innovative behavior is defined as the combination of employees’ intention to generate and implement ideas. According to West (2002), employees’ innovative behavior is a plan to develop and pursue new methods, process, structure, and application.
- Openness is defined as a welcoming approach to different ideas, procedures, processes, and experiences. It describes individuals’ intention to explore new environments, situations and their eagerness toward exploration and discovery.
- Resistance is defined as individuals’ behavioral and attitudinal opposition against new approach, thinking and paradigms that foster change and discovery. Oreg (2003, 2006) label

resistance as an individual characteristic represented by rigidity, conservatism, and unreceptive to new thinking and approaches.

CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter introduction

A comprehensive literature review is necessary to answer the research questions and achieve the study's objectives. This chapter discusses issues such as seasonality, organizational cultures, employees' situation-based responses and innovative behavior. The chapter has been broadly categorized into two. First, it gives an overview of the concept of seasonality, including causes, impact, and response. Second, it discusses the main features of organizational cultures and employees' innovative behavior.

2.2 Seasonality

Seasonality is an inescapable feature of hospitality business and is even considered a protracted problem that affects the regular business setting. Seasonal variation contributes to fluctuation in business, and it affects hotel occupancy in the off-season. This review explains seasonality with an emphasis on the cause, impact, and response to tourism seasonality. The preliminary part of the review indicates that a broad range of seasonality-based studies exists not only in tourism but also in different discipline such as business, health, agriculture, environment, disaster and risk studies. Table 2.1 summarizes the main studies on seasonality across several disciplines, such as epidemiology (i.e., epidemic expansion), natural disaster, stock exchange market, fertility, climate and weather change, species diversity, social events like suicide, crime, marriage, and school well-being.

Table 2.1. Literature on seasonality in different discipline

Source	Research theme
Gei and Powers (2015)	Seasonality and its influence on tropical legume plantation.
Ayanlade (2016)	Seasonality and its effect on land surface temperature.
Christodoulou et al. (2012); Liu et al. (2015)	The effect of seasonality on committing a suicide.
Armbruster, Brocke, and Strobel (2017)	Seasonality and its effect on mood.
Goudeau et al. (2015)	Relationship between seasonal variation and weather change.
Ismael et al. (2016)	Seasonality and its influence on fertility rate in Holstein cows.
Hill et al. (2016); Hlimi (2015); You et al. (2016)	Epidemics and seasonality- cases like influenza, anemia, tuberculosis, and eclampsia.
Arsenović et al. (2015)	Seasonal pattern of marriage and wedding events.
Konu, Joronen, and Lintonen (2015)	Seasonality and school well-being.
Georgantopoulos and Tsamis (2011); Norvaisiene, Stankeviciene, and Lakstutiene (2015)	Seasonal variation in stock market exchange.
Goldstein and Zilberfarb (2017)	The effect of seasonal variation on inflation.
Olson and Beckworth (2011)	Seasonal variation and its influence in peoples' church attendance.
Andresen and Malleson (2013)	Seasonal variation and its determining effect on crime rate.
Dorélien, Ballesteros, and Grenfell (2013)	Seasonality, birth rate, and child disease.

2.2.1 Seasonality in tourism

The definition of seasonality is mainly associated with time variation caused by natural and human-related factors. One of the first attempts at studying tourism seasonality, Baron (1975) defined seasonality as a pitfall that fluctuates the socioeconomic cycle and structure of tourism business. The definition of seasonality centred on the undetermined demand and inefficiency of supply; hence, the idea of seasonality in a tourism context produced economic imbalances and created a variation on the regular business trend. According to Butler (2001), “seasonality is a temporal imbalance in the phenomenon of tourism, which may be expressed regarding dimensions of such elements as numbers of visitors, expenditure of visitors, traffic on highways and other forms of transportation, employment and admissions to attractions” (p. 5). Although there are several definitions available, the exact definition that encompasses all aspect of seasonality is not yet settled. However, numerous scholars agreed that seasonality had been a protracted problem for

tourism organizations (Connell et al., 2015; Higham & Hinch, 2002; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Peak season brings market opportunity, while off-season results in a decrease in hotel occupancy. Sørensen (1999) noted that the need for accommodation varies in between peak and off-season. Given the variation and its effect, seasonal variation can be classified as peak-off, shoulder, busy, and shoulder down seasons (Butler & Mao, 1997). Regarding time, Chung (2009) noted that seasonal variations expressed by month, week, or even a single day that could envisage the extent of seasonal differences.

The primary causes of seasonality in tourism is categorized into two: natural and institutional factors (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Higham & Hinch, 2002; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Climate-related variables such as rainy season, variation in humidity, sunlight, and temperature are some of the main reasons of influence for seasonal variation in tourism. More specifically, previous studies point out that temperature is the main natural-related factors determine seasonal variation. Based on leisure constraint theory, Hinch, Hickey, and Jackson (2001) noted that natural factors are more related to intrapersonal constraints while institutional factors are associated with structural constraints. On a separate note, institutional-led seasonal variation is caused by human-oriented factors, which are much more prevalent and less predictable than natural seasonality (Amelung et al., 2007). As part of institutional factors, religious and cultural festivals, school and industrial holidays determine seasonal variation. Push-pull factors also characterize seasonal variation propelled by natural and institutional factors (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Lundtorp, Rassing & Wanhill, 1999; Ridderstaat et al., 2014). The push factors arise from holidays (institutional and public), climate, calendar effects (on and off days), inertia, tradition, social pressure and fashion as well as accessibility issues like transport cost and traveling

time). The pull factors, on the other hand, include events at the destination (like hunting, fishing, golfing, and skiing), sporting seasons, and festivals. Given the idea that seasonality in tourism is associated with imbalance of demand and supply, existing studies on the pattern of seasonality have paid attention to measurement of demand and supply ranges from destination to organisational level (see. Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Coenders, Espinet, & Saez, 2003; Cuccia & Rizzo, 2011; Espinet et al., 2012; Nieto, & Amate, 2000; Parrilla, Font, & Nadal, 2007; Pegg, Patterson, & Gariddo, 2012). The measurement of seasonality, especially in the context of tourism demand seasonality, forecasting, and modelling, has received considerable attention by several scholars in terms of deterministic or a stochastic constituent of seasonal demand in time series and panel data analysis (Alleyne, 2006; Kulendran & Wong, 2005; Li, Song, & Li, 2017). Seasonal demand estimation and concentration indices such as Gini coefficient indices, Theil indices, and coefficient of variation provide seasonal demand variation and concentration of a destination.

From the viewpoints of survivability and sustainability, the advantages and disadvantages of seasonality remain under debate. As Table 2.2 summarizes, the positive and negative impacts have been broadly categorized into economic, social, environmental, and human resource issues (De Cantis, Ferrante, & Vaccina, 2011; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Kulendran & Wong, 2005).

Table 2.2 Literature on the impact of seasonality on tourism organizations.

Impact	Positive and negative impacts	Source
Economic	<i>Negative impacts:</i> low occupancy, reduction in capital and investment	Baum and Lundtorp (2001); Butler (2001); Getz and Nilsson (2004); Page and Connell (2006); Pegg et al. (2012)
Environmental	<i>Positive impacts:</i> less utilization of environmental resources, time for recovery, and encourage sustainability.	Amelung et al. (2007); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2004)
Social	<i>Positive:</i> off-season provides a calm environment, minimize overcrowding, and better to ensure societal wellbeing.	Amelung et al. (2007); Chung (2009); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005)
Employment and human resource issues	Seasonal unemployment leads to difficulty for businesses to recruit and retain full-time staff.	Terry (2015); Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff (2005); Getz and Nilsson (2004); Chung (2009)

Table 2.2 summarizes that seasonality in tourism has both advantages and disadvantages. Positively, it creates a conducive environment and enhances recuperation of biodiversity, minimizes resource exploitation, and cherish time for recovery, which in turn promote sustainability and resource conservation. From sociological and ecological viewpoints, tourism seasonality literature (e.g. Butler, 1994; Matheison & Wall, 2006) mentioned that seasonality has positive outcomes since an off-season brings rest and recovery to communities and surrounding resources. For example, continuous hiking activities may cause erosion during wet season. In addition, the off-peak season variation enables residents to have a normal lifestyle and it offers time for psychological remedies to the next peak season. However, most studies emphasize the negative consequence of seasonality, especially from business and socioeconomic contexts like employment (Getz & Nilsson, 2004), tourism receipts and investment (Amelung & Viner, 2006). Beyond this, the effect of seasonality can lead to crisis on tourism business. For example, Luković

and Božić (2011) noted that seasonality can be considered as a crisis that disrupts the normal business trend of the cruise industry. Butler (1994) categorizes the negative impacts of seasonality into three: employment, investment, and environment. Seasonality exacerbates unstable labor market in which tourism organizations continuously spend fixed costs for training new employees. The peak season followed by overcrowding and resource competition results in exploitation and environmental destruction to the destination related to air and noise pollution, sewage disposal problem, and other social costs like crime. The above literature also contends that the over/ under utilization of resources stemming from seasonal variation affects residents socio-economic, cultural, and social activities because peak season affects social and environmental conditions, while off-season is necessarily associated with economic loss and market decline.

2.2.2 Overview of Ethiopia and hotel development

Bordering the Red Sea in the north-eastern Africa, Ethiopia has a population of more than 90 million (World Population Review, 2017). In terms of absolute location, Ethiopia is located at 3^o to 15^o north of the equator and 33^o to 48^o east of the Greenwich Meridian. Ethiopia is home to ancient civilizations, and it has safeguarded her sovereignty from several aggressions, including colonialism apart from a brief Fascist interregnum in the Second World War. According to paleontological and archaeological investigations, Ethiopia has been considered as a cradle of a human kind (Brunet, 2010; Hilton-Barber, 2004). In addition, the country has numerous natural and cultural attractions, nine of which are designated by UNESCO world heritage sites list. Ethiopia is known for the birthplace of coffee, the source of the Blue Nile, evolved with astonishing Orthodox Christian monasteries, monuments, and rock-hewn churches.



Figure 2.1. Map of Ethiopia and World heritage sites (dotted sites)

Source: Author's Map (2019)

The country named as 'land of extremes' with its highest peaks with more than 4000 meters above sea level, and the lowest point called 'Danakil depression' with 100 meters below sea level (Beyth et al., 2003). The name 'Ethiopia' is significant in the history of both Christianity and Islam. In the Bible, it is mentioned more than 40 times. Ethiopia was the second Christian nation after Armenia, in 330 AD when King Ezana (Ethiopia's King) was baptized (Ray, 2012). The country plays a crucial role by saving followers of the Prophet Mohammed during their exile from Mecca, hence, such events might be considered as the first Hijra (starting of the calendar) in Muslim history when an Ethiopian king accepts Muslim refugees from Mecca, Saudi Arabia (Erlich, 2010). With more than 80 nationalities within its borders, Ethiopia's mosaic of diverse ethnic, history, religion, and culture distinguished by its unique calendar, alphabets, and traditions is its utmost gift. In addition to political and economic center of the country, Addis Ababa (the capital city of Ethiopia) serves as headquarters of the African Union (AU), Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), and it is a strategic hub for several international and continental-based organizations. Despite listed among least-developing countries, Ethiopia has started been

experiencing considerable progress in economic growth and development. According to the World Bank's report, the Ethiopian economy experienced a steady growth with a consequent double-digit GDP increment in 2017, though such progress became decelerate to 9.6% in fiscal year 2018 (The World Bank, 2018, June 11).

Despite the fact that Ethiopia owns several natural and cultural tourist attractions, tourism contribution to the national economy is little. At a macro level, tourism was a phenomenon of the early 1960s, when setting tourism at policy and institutional level began. In line with this, the history of commercial hotel industry in Ethiopia began in 1914 when Queen Taitu built the first hotel in Addis Ababa (Batistoni & Chiari, 2004). Gradually, the sector has been growing, and numerous international and national companies have been participating in the sector. New establishments such as resorts, lodges, restaurants, cafes, pensions, coffee shops, nightclubs, and bars opened day-in and day-out throughout the country. With a proven track-record of enormous day-to-day growth in the hotel sector and the insertion of international chain hotels, Ethiopia has been considered as a promising destination for international hotel chain improvement (Fortanier & Van Wijk, 2010). Currently, well-known hotel brands like Hayat Regency, Marriot, and Golden Tulip can be found in Ethiopia. Nevertheless, internal and external challenges such as service quality and human resource issues, crises, turbulence, less diversity of hotels distribution across regions, and emerging stiff market competition remain the main hindrance for hotel sector. Also, seasonal variation with subsequent prolonged low season and market fluctuation, impedes hotel development in the country.

2.2.3 Seasonality in hotel business in Ethiopia: Insights from developing countries context

Seasonality is the main aspect of public and private sectors in tourism, and its effect relates to economic, social, and environmental conditions at the destination. However, such impact arises from geographic and other socioeconomic contexts. Also, they may vary from region to region and across organizations. For instance, Baum and Lundtorp (2001) indicate that the effect of seasonality is higher in polar areas than places situated around the equator. Baum (1999) noted that tropical regions like the Caribbean and the Indian subcontinent have regularly been affected by seasonality. As seasonality research has largely been emphasized in the developed countries context, there are few studies on the concept in less-developed countries settings (Chen & Pearce, 2012; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Seasonality is a universal problem which causes business fluctuation even though it has varied implications across different socio-economic and geographic contexts (Banki et al., 2016; Yacoumis, 1980). Thus, there is a need for seasonality research in developing countries settings in order to uncover and generalize the main features of tourism seasonality. In addition, there is scant research regarding the response and reaction of tourism businesses toward seasonality (Goulding et al., 2005).

Seasonality in Ethiopia does not only affect hospitality and tourism. It also affects different sectors and phenomena such as epidemic expansion (Midekisa et al., 2015), household diet (Hirvonen, Taffesse, & Hassen, 2016), food price (Gilbert, Christiaensen, & Kaminski, 2017), and rural development (Toulmin, 2012). The effect of seasonality on the hotel sector in Ethiopia is associated with various factors such as climate, weather, festivals, and events. In Ethiopia, the low season ranges from June to August caused by the rainy season and uncomfortable weather (Mitchell & Coles, 2009). Based on tourism stakeholders' discussion in Ethiopia, UNECA (2015) identified that seasonality lessens the contribution of tourism and hospitality to the country's

economy. Tourism market in Ethiopia faces two different seasons: peak and off-seasons. Peak season ranges from September to March while off-season ranges from March to August (Mitchell & Coles, 2009). Peak season invigorates high demand, whereas off-season results in less volume of tourists and debilitates hotel occupancy. Against this backdrop, the Ethiopian sustainable tourism master plan prioritizes the idea of marketing and promotion as a strategic pillar to tackle seasonality in tourism with the aim of functionalizing tourism business throughout the year (UNECA, 2015).

2.2.4 Response to seasonality in hotel setting

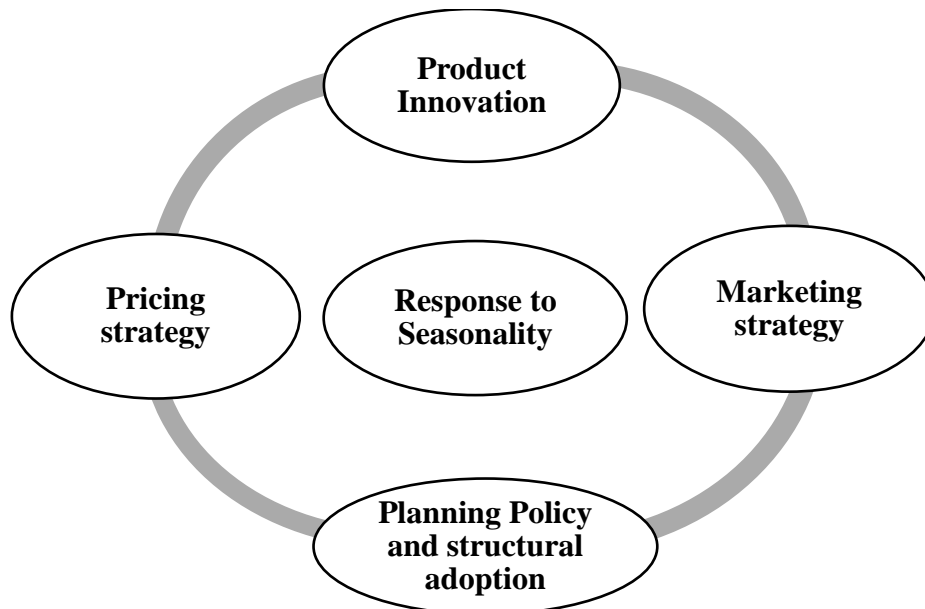
From an economic standpoint, several studies argued that the negative impact of seasonality in tourism is higher in terms of market fluctuations, reductions in employment and tourism receipts and investment (Amelung et al., 2007; Terry, 2016). In response to seasonal variation and its effect on business, tourism organizations strive to adopt several strategies to tackle off-season market challenges. For instance, Getz and Nilsson (2004) found that hotels pursue three different strategies in the off-season, namely coping, combating and capitulation. Marketing, demand creation, and modification on product and service features are some of the main reactive measures pursued by tourism organizations in tackling off-season market challenges (see. Jang, 2004; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005) as a response and reaction to seasonality in tourism.

Table 2.3 Summary of literature about response to seasonality in tourism

Source	Methods	Place	Research Finding
Banki et al. (2016)	Semi-structured interview	Mountain resort, Nigeria	Unlike temperate regions found in developed countries, family-owned resorts stay opened during the off-season.
Pegg et al. (2012)	Semi-structured interview	New South Wales, Australia	Hotel managers enforce them to change their usual operation to respond to low season.
Cisneros-Martínez and Fernández-Morales (2015)	Questionnaire survey analyzed by Gini index	Andalusian coastline, Spain	Cultural segments and attributes are a viable option to reduce seasonality.
Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2010)	Quantitative approach based on time series data	Wales	Attitude and perception determine the intention and action to tackle seasonality.
Jang (2004)	Quantitative approach based on financial portfolio theory	France	DMOs (Destination Management Organization) should try to diversify and mix market segments through considering risks after demand generation (demand-risk targets).
Getz and Nilsson (2004)	Questionnaire and interviews	Danish Island of Bornholm	Hotels response to the low season classified into three: 1) coping and adapting to seasonality, 2) combating low season by improving the attitude and action, and 3) withdrawal from the business.
Baum and Hagen (1999)	Field research by adopting 'lesson drawing' methodologies	The British Isles, Scandinavia, and Canada	Destination communities can learn from their past cases and experience to operate throughout the year irrespective of seasonality.
Yacoumis (1980)	Case study	Sri Lanka	Marketing is the central issue in tackling seasonality.
Higham and Hinch (2002)	Primary interview	New Zealand	Tourism business managers can mitigate seasonality by changing normal working trends and activities.
Connell et al. (2015)	Questionnaire survey	Scotland	70% of the businesses open throughout the year. The finding implied that local market could be a viable option during low season.
Goulding et al. (2005)	Exploratory research	Scotland (Scottish border)	The study found that lifestyle enterprise able to reduce seasonality. However, public policies are not powerful to tackle seasonality.
Burugu et al. (2014)	Qualitative research based on multiple case studies	Kenya	Managers' perception toward seasonality determines the way they follow to tackle it. The result suggested that hotel owners and managers should be creative and innovative to respond to low season.

The above literature indicates that marketing and promotion play a pivotal role in alleviating seasonality in hotel setting. Seasonality leads to heightened unemployment, leakage, and it affects the livelihood of the local economy. Hotels' response to seasonality can be explained from two perspectives: 1) accept the status quo and remain unresponsive, and 2) strive to change the current situation by applying different strategies and techniques. The review shows that quantitative and qualitative research methods were adopted to explore and measure the perception and attitudes of operators in response to seasonal variation. Yet, so far, little is known about tourism organization's response to seasonality (Goulding et al., 2005). Hence, hotels' responses and reactions to seasonality are questionable at best, and questions arise as to how hotels perform in situations like seasonality.

Regarding organization's response to seasonality, numerous studies such as Baum and Hagen (1999), Goulding et al. (2005), Hudson and Cross (2005), Pikkemaat and Weiermair (2007), and Tuppen (2000) adopt various mechanisms related to policy, product, business, marketing, planning, policy and operational issues in order to tackle seasonality. Figure 2.2 exhibits that response to tourism seasonality can be broadly categorized into four: product innovation, pricing, marketing strategy, planning and policy issues.



Source: Adapted from Goulding and Hay (2001) and Goulding et al. (2005)

Figure 2.2 Strategies to respond to seasonality

Product innovation

Product innovation is interceded through the facilitation of product and service to satisfy the contemporary demand. Benur and Bramwell (2015) noted that creating new or modifying existing products could maintain the competitiveness of tourism destinations and enterprises. Product innovation helps to attract new customers since when an existing product becomes not suited with the existing demand. Due to this, most tourism enterprises introduce new products during the low season, since innovating or diversifying products uses as a strategy to combat seasonality (Andriotis, 2005). Concerning product creation and development, Lundtorp, Rassing, and Wanhill (1999) suggested that conferences, seminars, and meetings are an expedient choice to sustain the peak season. As indicated by Baum and Hagen (1999), developing a golf course, for instance, can be utilized as a strategy to reduce seasonality in the major peripheral resorts found in Scotland. Research indicated that cultural segments can be a viable option to lessen the effect of seasonality (Cisneros-Martínez & Fernández-Morales, 2015). Several studies mentioned that

events and festivals could be used as a strategy to attract visitors during off-season (e.g. Connell et al., 2015; Fernández-Morales & Mayorga-Toledano, 2008). Conventions, trade shows, government assemblies, political campaign, tours, and events help to alleviate off-season and the subsequent market challenges. Events and festivals bring an alternative opportunity to enhance tourist flow and enlarge hotel occupancy in time of off-season. This leads to the conclusion that product innovation, which includes introducing new products as well as modifying the existing one, ameliorates hotel occupancy during off-season.

Pricing strategy

Tourism enterprises adopt different pricing strategy to overcome marketing challenges in the low season by considering price as a simpler short-term response to offset off-season. Price differentiation helps to increase demand at both peak and off-season, and it minimizes challenges that arise by off-season. The success of pricing strategy depends on the performance of an organization to achieve a competitive edge in the market. Price reduction may be considered as a viable option for the hotel sector to enhance occupancy during low season. Most importantly, price discount can be a viable option to enhance occupancy (Douglas & Barden, 2001). For instance, hotels who promote new approaches are ready to pursue different pricing strategy to target different markets. Research found that tourism business mostly utilizes seasonal pricing strategy and diversification techniques to attract visitors and guests (Espinet et al., 2012; Jang, 2004). However, using such strategies depends on the philosophy and culture of the organization to set price as a strategy in response to seasonal variation.

Market strategy

Given the strength of marketing and promotion, strategies and techniques related to marketing are regarded as a central point in response to seasonality. Market diversification is primarily designed to attract and sustain new and existing demand respectively. In response to the ever-changing customer demand, tourism organizations need to consider critical scanning of the market environment that they execute as well as risks and uncertainties, to attain new market creation, product and service diversification. Market diversification is a suggested strategy for hotels to gain a sustainable edge in the market (Lin & Wu, 2008), and the type of establishment and location also determine market strategy. For instance, resort hotels prioritize leisure market, while business hotel paid much attention to business-related markets.

Planning and policy

The main aim of planning and policy is to point out directions regarding how to operate business throughout the year. Planning and policy can be utilized to combine price, product, and market strategies to cope with seasonality. For instance, destination and tourism organizations found in Florida, Caribbean Islands, New York, and Reykjavik (Iceland's capital city) designed their business and sectoral policies to extend markets in both peak and off-season (Baum & Hagen, 1999). In addition, research found that policy adjustment on sporting events can be utilized as an option to tackle low season market failure (Hinch & Higham, 2002). In a similar vein, resorts situated in Ireland (Kennedy, 1999), offer exclusive strategies during off-season to attract guests. Although organizations respond to seasonality, employees' behavioral readiness and intention play a crucial role in organizations' response toward seasonal variation. As mentioned earlier, response to seasonality is one of the most complex tasks that organizations experience. For instance,

Fernández-Morales et al. (2016) noted that tackling seasonality has received considerable attention at institutional level; for instance, Visit England (VE) can be an example for national planning and policy-related strategy to combat seasonality.

To sum up, seasonality brings an economic challenge and reduces revenue generated from commercial tourism enterprises, thereby affecting the survivability of tourism companies. Since tourists or guests are influenced by several seasonal variation factors such as climate-related, unforeseen or unexpected events, and structural factors related to occupation, age, and income (Senbeto & Hon, 2019), attempts to market low season are risky, and the likelihood of failure is high. Nakhata and Kuo (2017) noted that hedonic behavior arises from guest perception in a way that may influence them not to use a product or service. Due to several uncertain factors caused by prolonged off-season, organizations should take success and failure into consideration in their response to low season. For hotels, response to seasonality is challenging and requires extensive efforts to develop new product or service and persuade guests during low season. Hence, they need to pursue a systematic approach and be aware of market trends to address low season market. Innovation in relation to adaptation, generation, and implementation of new ideas is essential for organizations to succeed in business in times of challenging situations like off-season (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). As employees are the linchpin of organizational change, they can play vital role in generation and application of new and alternative ideas and working procedures (Amabile, et al., 2004; Hon & Leung, 2011). Given this, the following section focuses on employee innovative behavior in hotel context.

2.2.5 Employee innovative behavior in hotel setting

Unlike the manufacturing sector, the concept of innovation has been less studied in the service industry (Axtell et al., 2000; Ramamoorthy et al., 2005) even though innovation and innovative behavior is an essential part of firms' successes in a service industry. More specifically, due to the fast-growing business environment as well as frequent occurrence of crisis and uncertain situations, innovation is seen as a key issue to influence performance and development in hotel industry (Campo et al., 2014). Out of several layers of innovation, employee innovative behavior is considered as the foundation for organizational innovation, and it can be defined as a combination of employee creativity and innovation at workplace (Dorenbosch, Engen, & Verhagen, 2005; Janssen, 2005). Studies reveal that employee innovative behavior is significant for service improvement in hotel setting (Orfila-Sintes & Mattsson, 2009), new product development (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007), and it is also useful to settle better employee-customer relationships (Ottenbacher, 2007). With high levels of uncertainty, the process of ensuring innovation in hospitality requires not only employees' intention to change the status quo, but it also relies upon their devotion toward creativity and innovation. Table 2.4 summarizes that employee innovative behavior has been studied from several dimensions.

Table 2.4 Literature on employee innovative behavior

Source	Dimensions	Method	Main finding
Chang, Gong, and Shum (2011)	HRM practices (i.e., selection and training)	Mixed method	Work environment mediates the relationship between organizational support and employee creativity.
Hon, Bloom, and Crant (2014)	Resistance to change based on sense-making perspective	Hierarchical Linear Modelling	Modernity climate, leadership style, and co-worker characteristics moderate the negative relationship between resistance to change and creativity.
Hon, Chan, and Lu (2013)	Stress	Questionnaire survey /HLM	Challenge and hindrance related stress is positively and negatively related to creativity respectively. Supervisors' feedback moderates such relationship.
Crant (2009)	Proactive personality, career satisfaction, perceived insider status	Questionnaire Survey/ Longitudinal	Proactive personality is positively related to employee creativity, while employee creativity mediates the relationships between proactive personality and career satisfaction and perceived insider status.
Lui and Hon (2014)	Service standard	Mixed Method: Questionnaire and	Employee creativity assures novel service encounter and importance to assure service standard in the hotel.
Wong and Pang (2003)	Barriers and motivators to employee creativity	Pilot test and interview	Training, policy, and recognition noted as the main motivating factor to enhance employee creativity, and the study found 15 job-related barriers toward employee creative behavior, some of them are fearful of change, criticism, time and work pressure.
Geng et al. (2014)	Emotional labor	Questionnaire survey	Surface and deep acting have a relationship with challenge and hindrance stress respectively. Such relationship influence employee creativity.
Hon (2011)	Intrinsic motivation and work environment	Questionnaire Survey: multilevel	Employee self-concordance mediates the relationship between social-contextual variables and creativity.
Hon (2013)	Creative requirement	Questionnaire Survey	Creative requirement has a positive and negative relationship with job stress and employee service performance respectively.
Tsai, Horng, Liu, and Hu (2015)	Work environment	Questionnaire Survey/ SEM	Work environment plays a mediating role in the relationship between organizational support and employee creativity.
Hon and Leung (2011)	Organizational culture: person-culture fit	HLM by using survey data	Innovative culture, traditional culture, and cooperative culture moderate employees' motivation and creativity

Hu (2009); Hu, Horng, and Sun (2009); Kim and Lee (2013)	Knowledge sharing and innovative service behavior	Questionnaire Survey/SEM	Guanxi (Chinese culture) mediates the relationship between knowledge sharing and innovative behavior.
Hu (2010)	Competency model for innovative culinary development	Interviews/Delphi technique and Analytic Network Process	Core competency dimensions such as culture, management, service, aesthetics, innovative product, creativity, and technology competencies are useful for innovative culinary development.
Luoh, Tsaur, and Tang (2014)	Employees empowerment, job standardization, and innovative behavior	Questionnaire Survey/HLM	Employee psychological empowerment mediates and moderates the relationship between job standardization and innovative behavior.
Wang, Tsai, and Tsai (2014)	Transformational leadership, creative self-efficacy, and job complexity	Questionnaire Survey/ SEM	Creative role identity and creative self-efficacy mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and employee creativity, while Job complexity moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee creative role identity.
Wong and Ladkin (2008)	Employee creativity and job-related motivators	Questionnaire survey/ See-Saw model	There is a positive relationship between creativity and job-related motivators

Table 2.4 exhibits that different studies focused on employee creative and innovative behavior in hospitality. Most studies have examined the issue of employee creative and innovative behavior in the context of motivation, empowerment, emotional labor, service standard and performance, work environment, and other contextual issues like leadership, self-efficacy, and personality. The review showed that the majority of studies adopted questionnaire surveys and quantitative approach for data collection and analysis respectively. Regarding data analysis method, most studies follow SEM (Structural Equation Modelling) and HLM (Hierarchical Linear Modelling) to examine complex conceptual models. However, the review revealed that organizational factors and its effect on employees' innovative behavior still need further investigation. In addition, theoretical and conceptual development related to employee creativity research in hospitality remain in its infancy. Given the limitation in theoretical development, Hon and Lui (2016) noted that there is a need for further employee creativity and innovative behavior research in hospitality. Thus, this study introduces approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories to examine employees' innovative behavior as a mechanism to mitigate off-season market challenges.

2.3 Culture and organizational culture

The idea of organizational culture originates from anthropology. Likewise, the definition of organizational culture is developed from earlier definition of culture by Edward Taylor (1978). He defined culture as a manifestation of composite of custom, knowledge, law, belief, morals, art, and habits acquired by humans as a members of society (Taylor, 1870 as noted in Avruch, 1998). Given the dynamic reality of culture, there is no consensus on culture (Smircich, 1983) since its impact is vigorous, invisible, and powerful, but efficacious in its outcome. Considering the

universal aspect of culture, culture-based research has received significant attention among various disciplines such as sociology, anthropology, economics, psychology, behavioral science, political science, neurology, communication studies, and linguistics. Based on this, Howard (1998) reveals that depending on discipline and phenomenon, several scholars have been proposing around 164 definitions of culture. Martin (2002) defined culture as an assumption, beliefs, and meanings that imply shared belief, tradition, custom, and norms of the society. This means culture refers to social learning acquired and transferred by members of the society. In an entity context, organizational culture seems to have been derived from the macro culture which is first labelled by Blake and Mount in 1964. Later in 1979, Pettigrew introduced the idea of organizational culture in his article “On studying organizational culture” (Pettigrew, 1979). Kuada (2010) defined organizational culture as a metaphor to recognize the adherence and interaction of members in organization. Table 2.5 highlights trends about the definition of culture and organizational culture.

Table 2.5 Definition of culture and organizational culture

Scholar	Definition
Mead (1949)	Culture is a character or disposition of individuals.
March and Simon (1958)	OC is a social construction built by the relationship among members of the organization.
Hofstede (1991)	Culture is the scheme of mind that separate members of the group from another.
Schwartz (1992)	Culture is comprised of experiences, partial or fully arranged and acquired by the people previously transferred from the past.
Scheins's (1992)	OC is a shared values, beliefs, and norms among members in the organization.
Kotter (1996)	OC refers to norm, behavior, and values shared by a group of people.
Matsumoto (1996)	Culture is a set of shared values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors varies across generations and situations.
Recardo and Jolly (1997)	OC is a set of shared beliefs and values among members of the organization.
De Long and Fahey (2000)	Culture is a shared comprehension that frames individual interpretations and actions.
Atay (2001)	OC is a shared paradigm that includes language, norm, dress, and other references manipulated to solve problems.
Spencer-Oatey (2008)	Culture includes basic assumptions, values, beliefs, policies, and procedures shared by a group of people.

*OC: Organizational Culture

Table 2.5 depicts the definition of organizational culture over the last two decades, and it shows that the concept of culture has been evolutionarily developed by the shared state of value, custom, norm, attitude, habit, belief, and behavior transferred from the past. Similarly, organizational culture is also manifested by assumptions and values transferred from the past and it expresses the socio-psychological environment of an organization. The concept of organizational culture is sourced from cultural anthropology and evolutionarily developed within management, marketing, and organizational behavior literatures (Hogan & Coote, 2014). Among several definitions of organizational culture, Schein's (1992) definition of organizational culture is widely recognized as:

“The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration which have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems” (p.3).

In the organizational behavior literature, organizational culture includes values, norms, and philosophy of the firm, and it is seen as a social force which is powerful though intangible (Ibid, 1992). Hence, the extant nature of organizational culture can determine not only expected employee behavior but can also influences market-oriented behavior (Homburg & Pflesser, 2000), employee attitude and effectiveness (Gregory et al., 2009), and knowledge management (Zheng, Yang, & McLean, 2010). Building on acceptable norms and beliefs held by members of an organization, Cheung, Wong, and Lam (2012) noted that organizational culture has powerful implications for planning, procedure, and execution of an organization. Taking employee

innovative behavior as an example, it can be considered as an outcome drawn from interactive environment and information exchange on pursuing new ways of working procedures (Amabile, 1988). In addition, studies on organizational culture across different countries reveal that there are variations of organizational culture from countries to countries, stemming from behavior, power distance, work values, and individualism/collectivism. Studies found that organizational culture is influenced by the macro national culture, as members of an organization are exposed to their surrounding ways of life and it affects the perception and processes of an organization (e.g. Hofstede 2001; Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007). Thus, in this study, organizational culture is defined as a management strategy developed through shared norms, traditions, values, and customs shared by members of the organization and it influences hotels' response to seasonality. The following section discusses culture and organizational culture in Ethiopia's context.

2.3.1 Culture and organizational culture in Ethiopia's context

With an aggregate positioning and influence, national culture has a substantial effect on the appearance, posture, perception, plan and strategy of an organization, and it plays a crucial role in an organization's decision-making (Dimitratos, Petrou, Plakoyiannaki, & Johnson, 2011). By collecting samples from fifty countries, Hofstede (1983) identified four manifestations of a national culture: power distance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. For example, the traditional Chinese culture still currently demonstrated by numerous Chinese-based organizations, like high power distance, strict and hierarchical supervisor-subordinate relationships (Zhang, Long, Wu, & Huang, 2015). Ethiopian culture is expressed in religion, national pride and prestige, and respect for elders. Despite the heterogeneity, African countries experience similar cultural features that go beyond organizational margins

(Blunt & Jones, 1997; Jones, 1988). According to Beugre and Offodile (2001), most African countries have similar cultural patterns, noting that “Cultural patterns such as respect for elders, consensus decisions, respect for authority, family orientation, collectivism, etc., appear to characterize most African countries.” (p. 537). In relation to this, developing countries share similar cultural features stems from history, political, and socio-economic backgrounds (Aycan, 2002).

Similarly, Ethiopia as a developing country situated in Africa, exhibits cultural features related to collectivism and family orientation. Ethiopian culture prioritizes cooperation and societal harmony with a wide range of interpersonal relationships (Hofstede, 1983). The Ethiopian culture includes devotion to religion, ceremonies (like coffee, funeral, and wedding); respect for elders and religious leaders, and priority given to old social customs. Cultural values are mostly characterized by being religious, devotion to customary practices; show respect labelled by hierarchy regarding age, wealth, education, and self-pride. In the book *Ethiopia Explored - A Model of Traditional Culture in Africa*, Scholler (2007) surmises that unlike other African countries, Ethiopian traditional culture demonstrates religious identity, slowness (*sic*), and collectivism. Yemer (2009) noted that male dominance, collectivism, and high-power distance are some of the main manifestations of traditional culture in Ethiopia. Stemming from the idea that culture is exposed to dynamic change, Xue (2000) noted that university students’ in Beijing and Hong Kong have been influenced by modernity and evacuated from the traditional Chinese culture. Similarly, the Ethiopian traditional cultural values have been challenged by new lifestyles and way of living (Admassu, 2010). For example, in the major cities, collective ways of life have been replaced by private lifestyle and women self-independence challenges men’s traditional patriarchies.

Although there is little research on organizational culture in Ethiopia, recently few studies have examined organizational culture from a manufacturing and service sector context. For example, building on a sample survey from textile and leather manufacturing organizations in Ethiopia, Beyene, Shi and Wu (2016) argued that Ethiopia's culture influences innovative approaches of manufacturing firms and learning orientations. Assefa, Garfield, and Meshesha's (2012) empirical study based on the Commercial Bank of Ethiopia (CBE) indicates that organizational culture determines knowledge sharing among employees. Their study also reveals that risk avoidance culture inhibits employees' intention to participate on innovative activities as well as creating solutions to work-related problems. In the context of information system implementation, Besha, Negash, and Amoroso (2009) demonstrate that organizational/corporate culture in addition to management support plays a crucial role in the growth and development of information system in Ethiopia. Nevertheless, organizational culture in the Ethiopian hospitality context is not yet clear; hence, there is need for further studies to clarify its determining effect.

2.4 Organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior

Organizational culture expresses values, beliefs, and norms that influence the entire approach, activities, and conditions of the organization. Organizational culture determines the extent that such beliefs and values influence the function and operation of an organization. In addition, by employing principal factor analysis, Cheung et al. (2012) identified the main attributes of organizational culture such as goal clarity, employee participation, conflict resolution, performance emphasis, innovation orientation, coordination and integration, reward orientation and team orientation. Although there is no right or wrong culture, the type of culture determines the destiny of the organization since it informs the mission, purpose, and strategy of the

organization itself. Earlier, Burns and Stalker (1961) classified organizational culture into two: mechanistic and organic. Mechanistic culture represents a hierarchical culture that pursues a structured approach guided by formal rules and regulations while organic culture follows a cooperative and flexible atmosphere to address problems and to communicate issues with members of an organization.

Bearing in mind variety of outcomes drawn from several types of organizational culture, Wallach (1983) divided organizational culture into three: bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive culture. In his classification, innovative culture promotes creativity, and supportive culture is associated with affiliation and togetherness. Innovative and supportive culture exhibits a high need for achievement and affiliation respectively while traditional culture is characterized by strict and controlled strategies, high power distance, hierarchical or bureaucratic culture. Naqshbandi, Kaur, and Ma (2015) noted that integrative culture is positively associated with open inbound innovation, whereas hierarchical culture is negatively associated with outbound open innovation. Previous studies have submitted that organizational culture governs motivation, enhance commitment, and it also helps to foster a stable environment in the organization (Lund, 2003; Smircich, 1983). Stemming from positive types and attributes of organizational culture, the combined effect of organizational culture and individuals' intention can be considered as a pillar to enhance productivity and creativity (Moon et al., 2012). However, organizational culture by itself neither enhances innovation nor represents an end-state for organizational success, which apparently can be a conduit either to achieve organizational success or failure.

Amabile (1996) defined creativity as the first step where individuals recognize a problem and create a solution for it. Then, innovation is employed in the implementation of the creative idea. Several studies affirmed the interchangeability of creativity and innovation (Kleysen & Street, 2001; Scott & Bruce, 1994). To widen the focus, employee innovative behavior is a multi-stage process that combines creativity (idea generation) and innovation (idea implementation and application) (Janssen, 2000; Scott & Bruce, 1994). This indicates that employee innovative behavior can be used to explain creativity and innovation in a workplace domain. Recently, considerable attention has been given to examine the effect of organizational culture on creativity and innovation, though as compared to its necessity, less work has been done on such relationships. As noted by creativity scholars (e.g., Amabile, 1996; George, 2007; Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004), organizational values and norms depend upon employee creativity and their intention to create and participate in solving problems. Beyond the usual explanation of organizational culture, Schein (1992) explains that different types of organizational culture determine the nature and characteristics of outcomes, and he developed a model of different cultures characterized by dimensions of values, assumptions, and artefacts. In an extending Schein's attempt, Later Hogan and Coote (2014) assert that the main component of organizational culture such as norm, artefact, and innovative behavior can mediate the relationship between firm performance and innovation.

In the implementation of innovation, firms should create an organizational climate that fosters innovation by ensuring employee skills, providing incentives, and removing obstacles. In supporting this, empirical research reveals that the main elements of organizational culture such as value, norm, and beliefs determine creativity and innovation in the organization (Martins & Terblanche, 2003). The effect of organizational culture on creativity and innovation has been

assessed in different contexts. For instance, based on samples collected from physical education experts, Mobarakeha (2011) found that there is a significant relationship between organizational culture and employee innovative behavior. Low et al. (2015) observed that organizational culture encourages creative and innovative behavior in bidding decisions at international level. Based on an Indian Software Company, Malaviya and Wadhwa's (2005) work revealed that organizational culture determines employee innovative behavior.

Because of the rapidly changing and competitive market environment, employee creativity is indispensable in hospitality. The effect of organizational culture on employee innovative behavior has received considerable attention in hospitality and tourism. Studies (e.g., Eskiler, Ekici, Soyer, & Sari, 2016; Mobarakeha, 2011) confirmed that organizational culture plays a crucial role in enhancing creativity and innovation in hospitality and tourism. Tajeddini and Trueman (2012) noted that cultural values could enhance innovation, customer satisfaction, and service quality in the Swiss hospitality context. Several studies have observed that employee creative and innovative behavior determines hotel's success in terms of enhancing guest experiences (Su, 2011), and choice and decision-making in the restaurant sectors (Victorino, Verma, Plaschka, & Dev, 2005). Based on person-culture fit theory, Hon and Leung (2011) found that organizational culture can either promote or inhibit employee creativity. The above literature indicates organizational culture influences employee innovative behavior. Nevertheless, it is difficult for hotels to nurture employee innovative behavior since the type of organizational culture influences innovation in addition to the fact that fostering innovation is demanding. Thus, the type of cultures determines the process and outcome of employee innovative behavior in a hotel setting, as Schien (1992) and Wallach (1983) identified the impact of different types of organizational culture on organizational success. In relation to this, the following sections explore different types

of organizational cultures such as innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational culture on employees' innovative behavior.

2.4.1 Innovative organizational culture and employee innovative behavior

The concept of innovation arises from uni and multi-dimensional viewpoints (Kreiser, Marino, & Weaver, 2002). Uni-dimensional innovation explains the relation between structural variable (e.g., professionalism) and innovation while multi-dimensional innovation refers to the effect of several structural variables such as innovativeness domain, content domain, and reference domain on innovation (Ibid, 2002). A multi-dimensional view of innovation gives insight into areas where the organization is innovative or not. For instance, Salavou (2004) noted that an organization can be innovative in a single product or service as compared to similar companies located in the same country. Thus, the view toward innovation is contextual and comparative. Not only did it place emphasis on the outcome, but it depends on the process and intention to nurture innovation. The literature categorizes in terms of innovation as product vs. process (Han, Kim, & Srivastava, 1998), incremental vs radical (Atuahene Gima, 1996), and administrative vs technical (Ibarra, 1993; Weerawardena, 2003).

Innovative culture can be defined as an organizational orientation to pursue new approaches and alternatives by breaking the existing norms and values to comply with different changing situations (Ireland, Kuratko, & Morris, 2006). Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, and Falkus (2000) defined innovative culture as “the willingness of the organization to take risks, and the encouragement it shows for innovation and creativity” (p. 141). Dombrowski et al. (2007) identified 8-components of innovative culture, i.e., vision and mission, liberal culture with limited

hierarchy, safe environment conducive to innovation, flexibility, learning and sharing, reward or incentive and leadership facilitated to encourage innovative culture. The process and outcome of innovation is broadly categorized into two: 1) technical (product and service), and 2) administrative (process) innovations (Škerlavaj, Song, & Lee, 2010). Innovative culture has been oriented to target a new market to achieve organizational goals through introducing new products and services or by re-modifying the existing ones. Innovative culture assists to achieve a competitive edge in the market since it helps to provide product and services suited to satisfy customers (Dobni, 2008). Innovative culture exhibits excitement and it is aimed at fostering a conducive environment for creativity and innovation (Wallach, 1983). Hence, individuals' intention and motivation could also foster such culture. Based on a sample of 180 marketing executives in Australia, O'Cass and Viet Ngo (2007) found that market orientation can be considered as component of innovative culture, which implies innovative organizational culture could able to develop distinctive ways of product/service development as well as distribution systems.

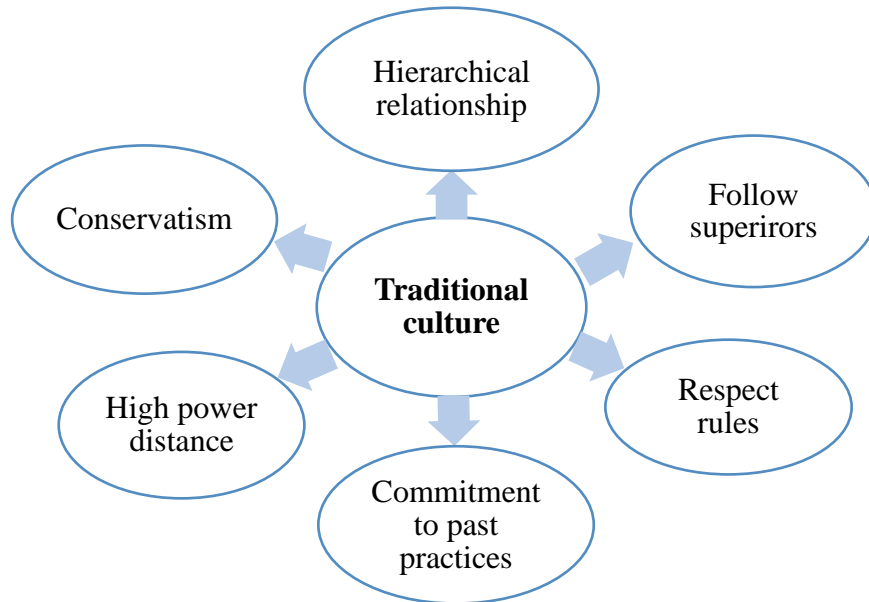
The above literature pointed out that innovative culture supports creativity and innovation. Organizations should seek to investigate how employees are motivated to engage in innovative behavior, as innovative culture sways to change the status quo, and it creates a suitable environment for adaptation, learning, decision-making, flexibility, and risk-taking. Nonetheless, the literature on innovative culture largely concentrates on innovative performance of firms situated in developed countries. Hence, little is known about innovation in the developing countries perspective (Srholec, 2011). In response to this, this study examines the effect of innovative culture on employee innovative behavior in hotel setting in Ethiopia. Because of stiff competition and changing demand, innovation is key to the hospitality industry as far as continuous improvement

is concerned. Thus, several studies suggest innovative culture such as eco-innovation (del Rosario & René, 2017), service performance (Han, 2012), creativity and motivation (Hon & Leung, 2011) as way of promoting positive attributes in the hospitality industry. Innovative organizational culture, in this study, refers to intentions to participate in practicing new ideas of working procedures initiated by the need for achievement and accomplishment.

2.4.2 Traditional organizational culture and employee innovative behavior

The idea of tradition is mostly associated with the transmission or deliverance and practising such delivered beliefs or practices. A traditional culture founded on a social meaning advocates that people in such culture carries well-adapted beliefs and practices transferred from the past. Cudd (2015) defined tradition as “the set of beliefs, values, rituals, and practices, formal and informal, explicit and implicit, which is held by and constitute a culture” (p. 10). The word tradition is widely used in philosophy, theology, anthropology, and sociology. For instance, in philosophy, tradition is manifested by change, respect, and thinking. In sociology, the word tradition mostly referred to current activities and events transferred from past habit, belief, and objects. Tradition helps to utilize purpose and belief to sustain the business or organizational strength, and it is defined as a conviction or value exists through time under continued practices (Drayer, Stotlar, & Irwin, 2008; Shils, 2006). According to Schwartz (1992), traditional value arises from culture and demonstrate commitment, respect, and acceptance of past beliefs and practices. Narrowing down the focus, people in a traditional culture exhibit conservatism, defensiveness, and resistance to new ways of doing, and they even strive to protect old beliefs and practices (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Leong & Chang, 2003). Organizations, which foster traditional culture exhibit a stricter vertical chain of command, rigidity, manifesting acceptance

and commitment to superiors, pursue existing rules and prescribed code of conduct. In traditional culture, the overall structure of the organization adheres to rules, regulations, terms, and conditions adopted from the past.



Source: Fahr et al. (1997) and Yang, Yu, and Yeh (1991)

Figure 2.3 Values of Traditional Culture

In addition to the literature, Figure 2.3 exhibits that traditional culture is characterized by high power distance, a hierarchical relationship, respect rules and regulations, and adhere to an old and usual structure and practices. Zhou and Su (2010) identified major dimensions of traditional culture that had been utilized to differentiate creativity in between eastern and western culture. They identified some of the main distinctive features of creativity in between eastern and western context; these are, flexibility, originality, and fluency. For example, creativity necessitates uniqueness and flexibility among westerners, whereas in eastern contexts, creativity is perceived as a process and requires a certain level of novelty and fluency of an individual. Traditional culture is also one part of organizational cultures of the hotel industry. Hence, research in hospitality

consider traditional organizational culture as the main component of organizational culture (Mejia, Wang, & Zhao, 2018; Wang, Royo Vela, & Tyler, 2008).

Comparing traditional and non-traditional culture, Wu, Liu, and Liu (2009) noted that employees most likely obey supervisors' abusiveness than employees who reside in non-traditional culture. Intentions to change the status quo is mostly raised as a central issue in examining the relationship between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior. In traditional culture, employees' creative and innovative behavior is seen as an opposition to well-accepted and respected tradition. Hence, in traditional culture, employee innovative behavior is considered as a disrespect and detachment from accepted organizational rules and regulations. For example, Zhang, Long, Wu and Huang (2015) found that Guanxi which is a long-dated Chinese traditional culture has negatively moderated the relationship between HRM practices (e.g., pay for performance) and employee work performance. Evidently, an empirical investigation of traditional culture and its effect on employee innovative behavior has seldom been studied from the context of less-developed countries. Motivated to bridge such gaps, this study focuses on examining the effect of hotel's traditional culture on employees' innovative behavior in response to low season.

2.4.3 Collaborative organizational culture and employee innovative behavior

Collaboration is mostly associated with togetherness and supporting each other. The idea of collaboration dates back to ancient Egypt and it stresses the idea of standing for common and shared practices and goals. As Kumar et al. (2016) noted, "culture for collaboration is as important as carbon for life" (p. 595). The occurrence of strong collaboration requires robust interactions among stakeholders, abide by shared rules, structure, and norms in the organization. The process

and outcome of collaborative culture can be maintained by people who work under cooperative work environment and such cooperation resulted from an extended period of communication and exchange of ideas to achieve a common goal (Nardi & Farrell, 2003). Collaborative culture ensures values such as teamwork, communication, respect, empowerment, and advantages. Therefore, it depends on individuals' knowledge developed through organizational learning (Pe´rez, Pe´on, & Ord´as, 2004). Collaborative culture in an organization aims to promote shared ideas, beliefs, norms, and custom among members of an organization. Flores (2004) noted that collaborative culture promotes working together for common goods, which is developed through voluntary, spontaneous, and adaptability of employees to the cooperative organizational culture. Since they share assumptions and belief through internal and external interactions, employees from the basic constituent of an organization are highly influenced by the culture that an organization executes. In addition, employees' willingness to achieve common goals obtained by sharing experience, is one of the main success factor for collaborative culture.

In a collaborative culture, people work together, offering various mindsets on a variety of issues, and intend to discuss the problem. Unlike other organizational cultures, collaborative culture could enhances employees' engagement and create a conducive environment to maintain mutual relationship and understanding. Collaborative culture is also significant in an attempt to improve relationships with other stakeholders outside of the organization; for example, it assists to enhance and transcend customer-supplier interaction (Singh & Power, 2009). But further achievement requires common understanding, sense of belongingness, enjoyment on the job, and continuous learning (Beyerlein et al., 2003). Previous research indicated that effective collaboration, strong support, and interaction among employees might transcend creative and

innovative behavior (Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011). Hence, this implies that organizations that support cooperative culture can build a sense of affinity among employees, thereby helping to promote innovative behavior. Because of the importance of cooperation, interaction, and communication, collaborative culture remains one of the main features of the hotel industry. Given this, previous studies (e.g. Yang, 2007; Hon & Leung, 2011) suggests collaborative culture is also the principal figure of tourism and hospitality industry. In this study, collaborative organizational culture refers to a working environment which ensure cooperative relationship between members of an organization driven by sense of affiliation (Stahl and Harrell 1981).

2.5 Employees' situation-based responses

This section focuses on how situation-based responses divulge employees' innovative behavior. From the stimulus-response domain, reaction to situations is more correlated with individual personality as well as psychological-related behaviors. According to theory of persons in situations, a person's phenomenology to situations affects his/her readiness and determination to respond to situations. Previous studies mentioned that individuals' creative response to situations arises either from motivation (Amabile, 1996) or personality (Kim, Hon, & Crant, 2009). Grant and Ashford (2008) underscore the point that dispositional and other person-related variables determine individuals' change-oriented behaviors. In addition to person-related variables, personal values and contextual factors play crucial roles in influencing person's response to situations. According to Schwartz's (1992), universal content and value structure theory, values presented in Figure 2.5, are regulated by a persons' motivationally conflicting set of openness against conservation values. As Figure 2.4 exhibits, openness to change is expressed with values of self-direction and stimulation, while conservation represents security, resistance, tradition, and

conformity. This indicates that openness to new working procedures is seen as willingness to change the status quo while conservation represents resistance to change, resulting in employees demonstrating fewer initiatives to change existing scenario and placing more emphasis on adhering to existing work procedure.

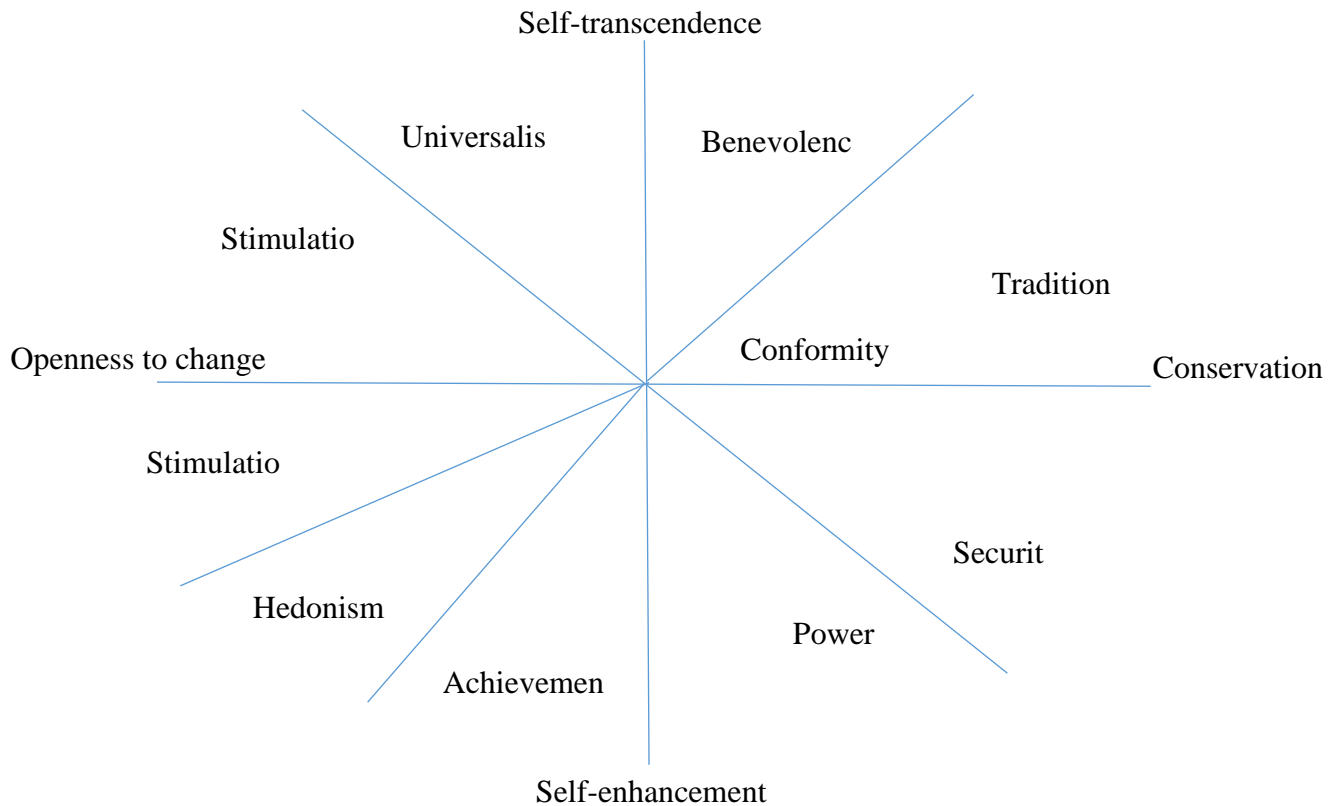


Figure 2.4. Schwartz's model of motivational type of values (adapted from Schwartz, 1992)

2.5.1 Openness

Given the varied nature of human behavior, people have different personalities that distinguish themselves from one another. Personality studies reveal that human personality is categorized into five types: conscientiousness, openness to experience, extraversion, neuroticism, and agreeableness (Judge & Zapata, 2015; Leutner, Ahmetoglu, Akhtar, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2014). Openness to experience is one of the most complex personality traits with several layers of

manifestations. Costa and McCrae (1992) defined openness as a comprised set of features, including intellectual curiosity, depth of feeling, behavioral flexibility, vivid fantasy, unconventional attitudes and artistic sensitivity. McCrae and Sutin (2009) summarized openness as a personality trait that arises from cognitive flexibility and curiosity. In association with cognition, recent research by Staff, Hogan, and Whalley (2017) reveals that openness is positively linked to a persons' cognitive ability while neuroticism is negatively related to cognitive ability. This indicates that openness can be explained as a desire to experience new environments, and individuals who are openly engage in discovery and exploration, prefer socialization and seek to comprehend new experiences. Openness stimulates a person's range of interest to seek for newness, artistically sensitive and eager for exploration and discovery.

Stemming from the idea of 'Locus of control,' Rotter and Kimble (1966) indicated that people's control of internal and external environment can affect their openness to experience situations. For example, people with internal control exhibit active involvement and strive for success whereas external focuses lead them to demonstrate passively since they consider that their success remains under external pressure. Based on the componential theory of creativity, Amabile et al. (1996) indicated that employees who exhibit higher openness indicate that they are motivated to ensure novelty, face new challenges, and they share ideas with other colleagues. This leads to their prediction that there is a degree of relationship between openness and creativity. George and Zhou (2001) found that openness to experience is more related to creative behavior than conscientiousness, and they confirmed that openness to experience demonstrates higher level of creativity with the effect of heuristic task and positive feedback. Previous research found that openness is positively associated with change-oriented goals, and it enhances creativity (Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, & Knafo, 2002; Sung & Choi, 2009).

Narrowing down the focus, organization by itself cannot support employees' innovative behavior; rather employees' attitudinal response plays a pivotal role to generate and apply ideas and procedures in their daily tasks. Although numerous studies conceptually refer to openness, relatively little work has been done on the effect of openness toward creative and innovative behavior. Regarding the importance of individuals' openness, unlike other occupational position or job type, some professions seek openness as an attitudinal response. For example, Feist (1998) suggested that artists and scientists are open with less conscientious of failures. Employees' exposition toward idea gathering and information helps them to manoeuvre organizational success. Several studies pointed out that openness assists organization to cope-up with different internal and external environment that they experience (Vakola et al., 2004; Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

2.5.2 Resistance

The concept of resistance has regularly been studied in various natural and social science field of studies such as health science (Robertson et al., 2003), ecology (Byers & Noonburg, 2003), and hydraulic science (Armanini, Righetti, & Grisenti, 2005). The term resistance is widely mentioned in both natural and social science field of studies. In life science, resistance refers to species deviations from external extinguisher or internal changes. Resistance is largely associated with organizational change and exhibited by people who are averse to change and progressive tasks. Oreg (2003) defined resistance as "an individual's tendency to resist and avoid making changes to devalue change generally and to find change aversive across diverse context and types of change" (p. 680). Resistance to change shows a reluctance toward new ideas and a preference for old habits. Resistance begins unconsciously as individuals oppose new ideas, procedures, or ways of doing. Resistance cultivated during childhood may arise from rejection of families' rules

and orders, culminating into resistance behavior over time (see Freud, 1915). In addition, in earlier times, Zaltman and Duncan defined resistance as "any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo" (1977, p. 63). Oreg (2003) identified four dimensions of resistance: 1) routine seeking which exhibit involuntary attitude toward new thinking and actions, 2) short-term focus labelled by short-term disadvantages instead of long-term benefits, 3) cognitive rigidity refers to being rigid and dislike of alternative ideas and directions, and 4) emotional reaction through considering change as a stressor and demonstrates reluctance to engage in change process.

Resistant people exhibit low resilience and are unable to cope with change or adjust to changing situations. Later in 2006, Oreg again identified another three components of resistance: 1) Affective resistance, individual feeling toward change represented by anxiety and anger. 2) Behavioral resistance, which describes individuals' reaction against change through complain and persuade others not to accept the proposed change, and 3) cognitive resistance, refers to peoples' inquiry about whether such change is necessary or not and they require the benefit of it. In the organization domain, resistance is seen as pessimism, quarrelling, hostility, decline in productivity, and pursuing contradictory directions against organizational requirement (Harding, Ford, & Lee, 2017).

In the organizational behavior literature, resistance is seen as a bottleneck for organizational success. Conversely, some studies have argued that employee resistance has negative implications for leader-member exchange and organizational success as well (Furst & Cable, 2008). Mulki et al. (2012) found that salesperson's resistance results from stress, which leads to minimize their performance in sales and marketing activities. Employees' resistance to

change is expressed as a sabotage, vocal complaints, objections, withdrawal attitude or less commitment (Judson, 1991). However, some studies have argued that resistance does not only originate from employees' self-inflicted behavior, but also from organizational culture as a constructed reality influences the norm, direction and beliefs of employees (Ford *et al.*, 2002). Although several studies related to resistance pay attention to the impact of resistance to change, little work has been done on the antecedent of resistance. Hence, theoretical understanding and reasons behind the existence of human resistance behavior require further investigation. In an attempt to understand the cause of human resistance, based on traditional change agent-centric context, Ford, Ford, and D'Amelio (2008) asserted that peoples' resistance derives from the perception that change is a disturbing agent aimed at ruining their normal calm situations. To sum up, resistance has been considered as an opposition to new and alternative thinking and action, and it affects organizational success, creativity and innovation.

2.6 Theoretical approaches on employee innovative behavior

In the last two decades, theories of individual creativity and innovation have been extended from intellectual ability to personal, social and contextual issues. Theories such as componential (see Amabile, 1983, 1988) and interactionist theory of creativity (see. Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993) are the two dominant theories widely used to examine individuals' innovative behavior. These theories have been designed to assess situational and contextual factors that affect employee innovative behavior in an organization. This section discusses the theoretical and conceptual background of these two theories and other employee creativity theories.

2.6.1 Componential theory of creativity

Teresa Amabile is a prominent scholar widely known by her contribution to the creativity literature, specifically in terms of scrutinizing creativity from personal and contextual dimensions in the workplace domain. Her work on componential theory of creativity (CTC) is one of the most important approaches to examine creativity in work setting. This theory was first partially developed from the componential model of social psychology previously linked with cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Domain-relevant skills, creativity-relevant processes, and task motivation are some of the main elements of CTC. According to Amabile (1988), domain-relevant skill focuses on individuals' knowledge and skill on the basis of a particular domain; creativity-relevant skill refers to utilization of such knowledge and skill to generate creative ideas; and task motivation expresses individuals' motivation and attitudes to their mission, which is the key aspect of CTC. More specifically, intrinsic motivation is one of the major tenets of this theory, which is similar to self-determination theory since it also considers internal and external forces and subsequent influence on individual's creative behavior. According to CTC, employees become creative and innovative when they are intrinsically motivated from their self-interest. Later, Amabile and Pillemer (2012) added 'social environment' to the CTC in order to assess environmental factors in response to theoretical criticisms.

2.6.2 Interactionist theory of creativity

This theory derives from the concept of interactionist psychology (Terborg, 1981), which Woodman et al. (1993) developed into a theory of creativity. In this theory, creativity is the result of individual interaction with people, organization, and situations. According to the interactionist theory of creativity, individuals' interaction and other contextual factors functioned as a predictor of creativity (Woodman et al., 1993). Individual, group and organizational factors lead them to

either promote or inhibit innovative behavior given that individuals' creativity developed from interaction with persons, situations, and other contextual factors. In such a stratum, several conditions can determine individual creativity; some of which include cognition, style, intrinsic motivation, personality, and knowledge. Group characteristics such as roles, cohesiveness, diversity, tasks, norms, size, and problem-solving influence team creativity. Lastly, Organizational creativity focuses on strategy, resource, technology, culture, structure, and reward. Table 2.6 presents a summary of componential and interactionist and other theories related to employee innovative behavior. Although both componential and interactionist theory of creativity have widely been used to examine employee creative and innovative behavior, they have been criticized in literature.

Table 2.6 Summary of employee innovative behavior theories

Approach	Dimensions	Representative theorist
Componential theory of creativity	Domain-relevant skills, creativity-relevant processes, and task motivation.	(Amabile, 1983, 1988, 1996)
Interactionist theory	Interaction between: Individual, group, and organization.	(Woodman et al., 1993)
SDT (Self-Determination Theory)	Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation toward creativity and innovation.	(Deci & Ryan, 2012)
Other componential approaches	Motivation, knowledge, and ability	(Ford, 1996)
	The social side of creativity - examine the role of others in idea generation.	(Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2003)
	Creativity developed by changes acquainted by individuals from a given norm and rules.	(Csikszentmihalyi, 2014)
	Internal and external drivers and environment-based problems (open and closed) that surrounds individual creativity.	(Unsworth, 2001)

Criticisms of the Componential Theory of Creativity: Although the componential theory of creativity (CTC) is suitable in examining employee innovative behavior in an

organization, it can still be criticized for not considering additional contextual factors. In response to this, Amabile and Pratt recently (2016) modified the 1988 model of creativity by adding additional four dimensions related to external environment: 1) progress in intention to create new ideas, 2) task meaningfulness, 3) effect, and 4) pressures arise by extrinsic motivation. Yet, CTC gives little attention to the prerequisites of innovative behavior like intention to change, goal-orientation. Besides, outcome-related variable such as conservatism, rigidity, risk-taking, and flexibility received less attention within the CTC.

Criticisms of the Interactionist Theory of Creativity: The interactionist theory of creativity also has some limitations. The interpretation and meaningfulness of the interactionist theory is highly dependent on the power of interactivity among variables. The theory gives little explanation about the emotional magnitude of human behavior, and this may influence broader investigation of innovative behavior since it is designed to examine innovative behavior from the standpoint of interaction rather than from self-led internal aspects. Additionally, decision-making arising from emotional and biological sensitivity is not yet well explained by the interactionist theory of creativity.

Generally, the review showed that the above theories have given little consideration to the effect of behavioral activation and decision making toward innovative behavior since behavioral activation plays a considerable role to perform innovative behavior (Dreu, Nijstad & Baas, 2011). In addition, further studies are needed to examine the role of activation and self-regulation on innovative behavior (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2011; Lam & Chiu, 2002) as previous studies paid attention to innovation from the context of personality trait or cognitive skills. More importantly, previous studies intimated that behavioral difference resulting from approach-avoidance and

promotion-prevention focus processes can influence activation, valence, and hedonic tones which in turn determine innovative performance (De Dreu, Baas, & Nijstad, 2008; Friedman & Förster, 2001, 2008; Higgins, 1997).

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the literature review based on main issues related to seasonality, organizational culture, and employees' innovative behavior. Broadly, the chapter was categorized into two sections: 1) seasonality and 2) organizational culture and employee innovative behavior. The first section discussed seasonality in tourism by focusing on the cause, impact, and response to tourism seasonality. The review showed that seasonality affects different disciplines and phenomena (e.g., epidemiology, crime, inflation, stock exchange, and other social events), including tourism. Natural and institutional factors are the main causes of seasonal variation in tourism. The majority of scholars agreed that seasonality in tourism is a temporary imbalance in demand and supply caused by natural and institutional factors. Regarding the impact of seasonality, scholars continue to debate on the positive and negative impacts of seasonality. Some suggested that seasonality contributes to sustainability, resource conservation, cherish time for recovery, minimizes overcrowding, and creates a calm environment for nature as well as for local community as well. Numerous scholars asserted that seasonality negatively affects the socio-economic and business activities of tourism organizations resulted in a reduction in hotel occupancy, tourism receipt, and investment. The last sub-section focused on response to seasonality, which is the core part of this study. The review showed various mechanisms utilized by tourism organizations in response to low season, namely product, market, price, planning, and policy. Several studies pointed out that attitude, perception, and intention toward seasonality play

a crucial role in enterprises response to seasonality. Moreover, studies strongly suggested that change in marketing and promotion is essential to tackle challenges arises in time of off-season.

The second section focused on organizational culture and employees innovative behavior. The literature indicate that organizational culture can be viewed as a subculture which manifests the macro culture. The review demonstrated that culture types can enable or influence employee innovative behavior in an organization; however, the type of organizational culture will determine the extent of its influence on employee innovative behavior. In line with this, the review encompassed innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational culture and their effect on innovative behavior. The literature exhibited that innovative and collaborative culture promote sense of idea creation and affinity among employees, which in turn positively contribute to employee creative and innovative behavior. Contrastingly, traditional culture, manifested by high power distance and respect organizational rules and regulation, is seen as an inhibitor to employee creative and innovative behavior in an organization. Hence, innovative culture has a conducive environment that allows employees to take risks and to explore ideas while traditional culture pursues strict hierarchical structure and chain of command which inhibit innovative behavior. The last sub-section of the review discussed major theories employed to investigate employee innovative behavior in hospitality. This review presented the most widely used theories of employee creativity, i.e., componential and interactionist theory of creativity. Such theories have several limitations bordering on issues such as risk-taking and personal state of behaviors like conservatism, rigidity, and flexibility of human behavior taken into account. In general, the review found that the relationship between organizational factors and employee innovative behavior needs further investigation in hospitality. Besides, the review showed that although several studies have

been conducted on seasonality, organizational culture, and employee innovative conduct, little is known about such issues from the context of developing countries. In sum, the literature revealed the following research gaps regarding tourism seasonality, organizational culture and innovative behavior:

- Although seasonality is not a new topic in the tourism literature, it has been discussed from a one-size-fits-all approach. Unfortunately, there are limitations in terms of conceptual and theoretical development (Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Senbeto & Hon, 2019).
- In comparison to studies that focus on the cause and impact of seasonality in tourism, little is known about how tourism organizations respond to seasonal variations at micro-level (Connell, Page, & Meyer, 2015; Goulding, Baum, & Morrison, 2005).
- Although it is necessary for hotels to create and modify services to address market fluctuation caused by several reasons like seasonality, relatively little is known about innovation in the service sector compared to manufacturing sector (Axtell et al., 2000; Gomezelj, 2016).
- Innovative behavior-related studies in hospitality context have seen limited theoretical development and are not yet rigorous in methodology compared to research in management and psychology (Hon & Lui, 2016).
- The review showed that there is an unbalanced distribution of tourism seasonality research between developed and developing countries. Less research has been carried out in less-developed countries context in Africa, Asia, and South America compared to developed world settings such as North America, Europe, Australia, and New Zealand (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Chen & Pearce, 2012; Koenig & Bischoff, 2005).

- In an organization domain, the influence of culture on innovation has been studied mainly from western cultural settings; however, little research has been conducted on the relationship between organizational culture and innovation from non-western cultural contexts (Ahmad, 2012; Beugre & Offodile, 2001).

To bridge the above-mentioned research gaps, this study examines the effect of organizational culture on employee innovative behavior in response to low season in hotel by considering the mediating role of employees' situation-based responses: openness and resistance to change. Figure 2.5 shows the map of the literature review.

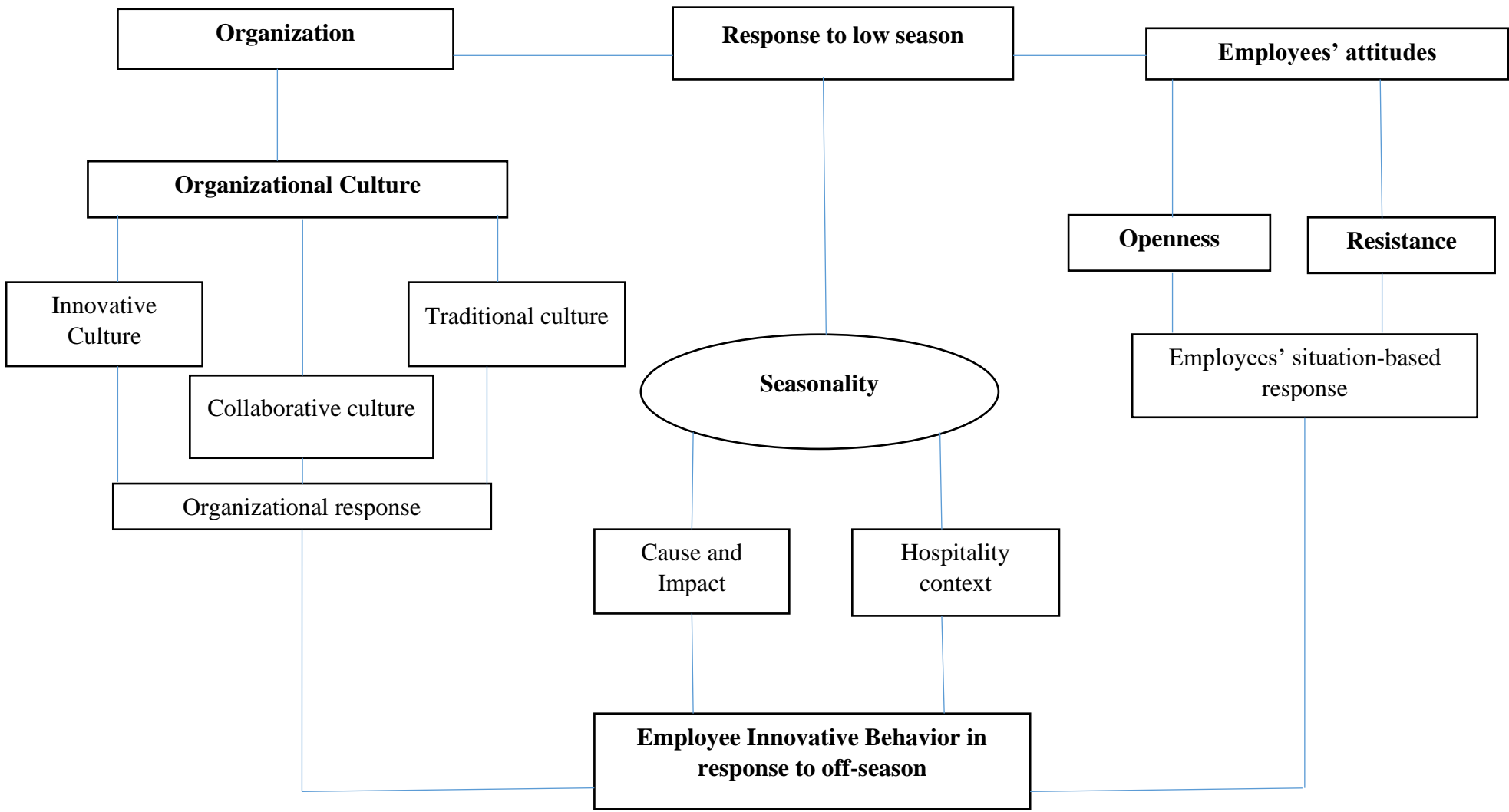


Figure 2.5 Map of the Literature Review

CHAPTER THREE – CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter presents theoretical descriptions, conceptual framework, and hypotheses development. First, the chapter explains a comprehensive overview of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, and it provides extensive reviews on utilization of such theories in tourism and hospitality literature. Building on theoretical explanations and hypothetical relationships, the chapter presents the research model which illustrates hypothetical relationships among major constructs such as innovative, collaborative, traditional organizational culture, employee openness, resistance and innovative behavior.

3.1 Approach-avoidance theory

3.1.1 Historical overview, definition and major perspectives

Over the last two millenniums, several scholars investigated how the approach-avoidance theory originated and developed through various philosophical thoughts to separate the two-fundamental state of human behavior, i.e., pain and pleasure. Approach-avoidance theory originated from the idea of ethical hedonism dating back to ancient Greek and which was first developed by Democritus (460-370 B.C.), Socrates pupil Aristippus (435–356 B.C), and Epicurus (342–270 B.C) (see. Elliot, 1999). Jeremy Bentham, the British philosopher, illustrated that human behavior is governed by two sovereign masters: pain and pleasure, emanated from psychological hedonism. As cited in Elliot and Thrash (2002), James (1890) illustrated the distinction between approach and avoidance in his book *principles of psychology*, defining pleasure as ‘*tremendous reinforce,*’ whereas pain exhibited as a ‘*tremendous inhibitor*’ of the human behavior (p. 549). A while back, on his (un) conscious study of human behavior, Freud (1915) noted that approach-avoidance is a psychodynamic

foundation that describes the main functions of human behavior into two: pleasure and pain. Thorndike (1911) explains pleasure as a search to gain strength while weakening pain in order to run away from loss. In 1921, Jung revealed that a person who is extrovert represents an approach intend to social interaction whereas introverts represent avoidance that they refrain from social objects or interaction (Jung, 2014). Unlike the conventional method in theoretical distinctions, an experimental result found in 1930 in Kurt Lewin's laboratory identified that approach and avoidance represent pleasure and pain respectively (see. Elliot, 1999). The result confirmed that both approach and avoidance existed as independent states of motivational orientation utilized to distinct human achievement behavior.

Currently, approach-avoidance theory explains an implicit and explicit aspect of human behaviors such as motivation, achievement, response, stimuli, behavioral promotion, and inhibition. The idea that approach-avoidance theory is caused by biological arousal and stimulus stands as a response to situation and environment; thereby the definition focuses on examining different aspects of motivation and achievement orientation. Elliot (2006) defined approach motivation as “the energization of behavior by, or the direction of behavior toward a positive stimuli (objects, events, possibilities), whereas avoidance motivation defined as the energization of behavior by, or the direction of behavior away from, negative stimuli (objects, events, possibilities)” (p. 112). The theory also distinguishes motivation, movement (physical and psychological), valence, stimulus for events, objects, and possibilities (Elliot, 1999; Elliot & Thrash, 2010; Ferris et al., 2013; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; van Dantzig, Pecher, & Zwaan, 2008). Figure 3.1 presents the main elements of approach-avoidance theory.

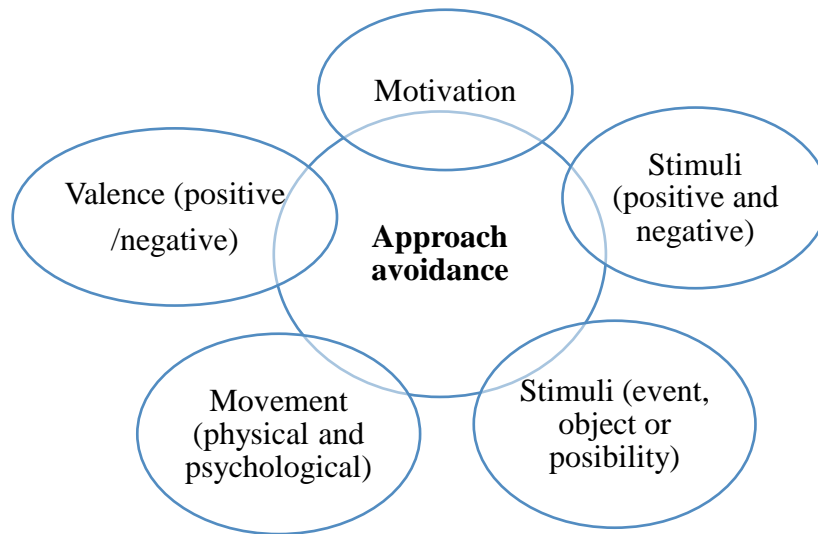


Figure 3.1 Elements of approach-avoidance motivation

Source: Adapted from Elliot, 2006

As shown in Figure 3.1, approach-avoidance stimulus determines human behavior and arouses either positively or negatively from motivation, valence, and stimuli. For example, approach represents movement (physical and psychological) which explains moving forward to add something (i.e., approach) while avoidance refers to moving away or get rid of something occurred by negative stimuli. In addition to this, Table 3.1 summarizes that approach-avoidance theory has several dimensions.

Table 3.1 Summary of main perspectives of approach-avoidance theory

Perspectives	Major Theme	Contributors
Response	Response to 'satisfaction' needs to be strengthened, whereas minimize weakness arise from 'discomfort.'	Elliot and Covington (2001)
Achievement goal orientation	Identify the distinction between approach and avoidance motivation in the context of performance-mastery dichotomy.	Elliot (1999)
Personality and activation	Self-esteem and neuroticism associated to approach and avoidance-related activation and personality.	Heimpel, Elliot, and Wood (2006)
Motivation	Approach motivation related to pleasure, whereas avoidance associated to pain.	Elliot (2006)
Behavioral responses	Assess approach-avoidance in the context of positive and negative behavioral response.	Mehrabian and Russell (1974)
Temperament	Approach temperament is demonstrated by extraversion, positive emotionality, and behavioral activation, while avoidance temperament exhibits neuroticism, negative emotionality, and behavioral inhibition.	Elliot & Thrash (2010)
Action-effect	Arm flexion and extension: arm flexion represents approach, while arm extension represents avoidance.	van Dantzig et al. (2008)
Moral psychology	Differentiate approach and avoidance from the context of morality.	Cornwell and Higgins (2015)
Core self-	Combine core self-evaluation with approach and avoidance motivation.	Ferris et al. (2011)

The above Table indicates several dimensions of approach-avoidance motivations; some of which include response, achievement, goal-orientation, personality and activation, motivation, behavioral response, emotion, decision-making, coping, memory, temperament, action-effect, moral psychology, and core self-evaluation. Based on such features, the purpose of approach-avoidance is to examine achievements and to elucidate purpose orientation and task engagement. Numerous studies in psychology, management, and marketing utilize approach-avoidance theory to examine various aspects of human behavioral response and activation in response to situations. Thus, this study adopts approach-avoidance theory to examine employees' innovative behavior in response to low season in a hotel setting.

3.2 Regulatory focus theory

3.2.1 Historical overview, definition and major perspectives

The idea of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory is established on hedonic principles dating back to ancient Greeks in the 17th and 18th century (see Higgins, 2006). Regulatory focus theory emanated from self-regulation that direct individuals either by positive or negative stimuli (Higgins, 1997, 1998). The theory illustrates how people pursue different strategies to search for pleasure and avoid pain caused by emotional responses toward decision making and goal orientation. Tony Higgins introduced regulatory focus theory to bridge the gap between the practical understanding of hedonic principle and its consequences (Higgins, 1997). Higgins also integrated the idea of regulatory focus to explain approach-avoidance theory, noting that ‘it is time to move beyond the hedonic principle by studying approach-avoidance principles that underlie it and have motivational significance in their own right’ (p. 1280). This implies that regulatory focus exhibits the effect of approach-avoidance intents on individuals’ decision-making. According to Porath and Bateman (2006), self-regulation illustrates individuals’ thoughts, adaptations, behaviors, and feelings toward task and goal achievement. The idea of regulatory focus theory refers to how peoples’ approach-avoidance behavior is regulated by situations, emotional experience, and sensitivity demonstrated by behavioral and personal self-intentions oriented to achieve goals and objectives.

According to Brockner and Higgins (2001), people’s regulatory foci are threefold: a) intention to satisfy their need, b) goal and standard orientation attempt to achieve, and c) psychological situations that influence peoples’ intention. Based on the principle of self-regulation, the theory is utilized to classify individuals’ regulatory foci into two: promotion and prevention (Higgins, 1997). Promotion is associated with development, excitement, and advancement to seek pleasure, which is mostly led by ideal self, while prevention paid attention

to safety, protection, and obligations directed by actual self (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997). Regarding goal orientation, promotion leads to maximize positive outcomes such as hope, accomplishment, aspiration, eagerness, and need-to-get success. On the other hand, prevention inclined to minimize negative outcomes (non-losses) led by vigilance, and it considers obligation, safety, and protection (Higgins, 1998; Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002; Watling et al., 2012). Table 3.2 presents a summary of the main perspectives of regulatory focus theory.

Table 3.2 Summary of main perspectives of regulatory focus theory

Perspectives	Main Theme	Contributors
Persuasion	How people persuade others to change someone's attitudes and behavior	Cesario, Higgins, and Scholer (2008)
Experience and Engagement	Value for pleasure or pain caused by motivational force and strength in addition to the hedonic experience.	Higgins (2006)
Goal orientation	Promotion directed to address advancement and development, while prevention considers safety, protection, and obligation.	Higgins (1997)
Emotions at work	People's regulatory focus influences the nature and magnitude of their emotional experience.	Brockner and Higgins (2001)
Contextual factors	The distinction of employees' regulatory foci regarding contextual factors (LMX) and outcome (burnout).	Zivnuska et al. (2017)
Responses to feedback	Promotion exhibits aspiration and accomplishment, whereas prevention, represents obligation and responsibility.	Watling et al. (2012)
Entrepreneurial process	In the context of an entrepreneurial mindset, idea generation represents promotion, whereas risk and uncertainty represent	Brockner, Higgins, and Low (2004)
Success/Failure	Promotion stands to achieve success, while prevention refers to failure	Förster, Grant, Idson, and Higgins (2001)
Creativity	The influence of promotion and prevention foci on creativity	Baas, De Dreu, and Nijstad (2011); Friedman and Förster (2001)

3.2.2 Approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory: a perspective in hospitality and tourism

This study adopts approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory to explain the relationship between organizational cultures and employees' innovative behavior in the context of response to low season. Thus, it is important to provide a comprehensive review of these

two theories in hospitality and tourism. Although approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories are suitable to examine numerous research problems in hospitality and tourism, the utilization of such theories is in their infancy. This review aims to assess such theories in hospitality and tourism research. For clarity and consistency of the review, papers not written in English language, conference papers, research notes, book review, and other unpublished studies like thesis and dissertations were excluded from the review. In addition, only full-length articles were selected and downloaded with relevant keywords such as “approach-avoidance” and “regulatory focus” by including “tourism and hospitality” taken from the Web of Science and Scopus research database. Given the limited number of studies on the use of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories in hospitality and tourism, another search was performed on Google scholar by using the same keywords. In addition, the review did not put a fence to specify year and journal type. Table 3.3 presents a review of the literature on approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories adopted in tourism and hospitality studies.

Table 3.3 Approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories in tourism and hospitality

Source	Journal name	Purpose of the study
Approach-avoidance		
Bigné, Andreu, and Gnoth (2005)	Tourism Management	Visitor emotions, satisfaction, and behavioral intention in theme park experience.
Sirgy (2010)	Journal of Travel Research	Tourist intention in leisure travel goal.
Nickerson and Ellis (1991)	Journal of Travel Research	Motivation to travel based on Plog model of allocentrism and psychocentrism.
Yüksel (2007)	Tourism Management	Assess approach-avoidance of customers' emotion to shopping.
Iso-Ahola (1982)	Annals of tourism research	Recognize tourist motivation from the socio-psychological viewpoint.
Ryu and Jang (2007)	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research	Examine customers' emotion (pleasure and arousal) perception and behavioral intentions in the upscale restaurant.
Abarbanel (2013)	UNLV Gaming Research & Review Journal	Consumers' response toward gambling sites (i.e., service-scape and functional qualities)
Lee, Shafer, and Kang (2005)	Leisure Sciences	Examine emotional interaction of visitors in leisure experience.
Kruger, Sirgy, Lee, and Yu (2015)	Tourism Analysis	Travel goal and its influence on life's satisfaction of travelers.
Hutchinson, Baldwin, and Oh	Leisure Sciences	Examine coping goals, activation (approach/avoidance), and type of leisure activities among adolescents.
Lio and Rody (2009)	UNLV Gaming Research & Review Journal	Investigate gamblers' behavior and its emotional impact in the context of approach/avoidance in Chinese table games.
Novak, La Lopa, and Novak (2010)	Journal of Culinary Science & Technology	Assess restaurant service-scape (sound and noise), and its influence on guests' mood.
Foxall and Greenley (2000)	The Service Industries Journal	Categorize consumer behavior based on utilitarian and informational reinforcement.
Ali and Amin (2014)	Journal for Global Business Advancement	Examine the physical environment and its influence on customers' emotion associated with satisfaction and behavioral intentions in Chinese resort hotels.
Regulatory focus theory		
Stenseng, Rise, and Kraft (2012)	Leisure Science	Assess escape motives, activity engagement, and how travellers tend to promote and prevent positive and negative outcome respectively.

Liu and Mattila (2016)	Cornell Hospitality Quarterly	Examine technological-based advertisement and its effectiveness in the hospitality sector.
Kim, Kang, and Mattila (2012)	IJHM	Differentiate various aspect of hope regarding promotion and prevention in the context of CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility).
Jung and Yoon (2015)	IJCHM	Examine promotion and prevention focus in the context of the task and coping style.
Yang, Mattila, and Hou (2013)	IJHM	Assess the types of delay and consumer reaction to delay in a restaurant.
Harris, Hanks, Line, and McGinley	IJHM	Examine customers' evaluation of food safety and inspection in the restaurant.
Wan, Chan, and Su (2011)	IJHM	Recognize the role of regulatory focus and personal similarity on service evaluation.
Chang and Teng (2017)	IJHM	Examine the employees' intrinsic and extrinsic motivators toward creativity.
Sun (2011)	International Journal of Tourism Sciences	Assess the regulatory between promotion and prevention foci in service value variables on consumer motivation.
Lee and Jeong (2012)	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism	Investigate the effects of e-service scape on the consumer flow experience.
Zhao and Namasisvayam	IJHM	Chronic regulatory focus on the relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction
Kim, Kim, Park, and Park (2017)	IJCHM	Influence of online travel intermediaries', review ratings, reliability and validity in the measurement of hotel performance.
Choi, Law, and Heo (2016)	Tourism Management	Examine trust among tourists in their choice of shopping destinations.

**IJHM: International Journal of Hospitality Management; IJCHM: International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*

Table 3.3 depicts that several studies published in the International Journal of Hospitality Management, Tourism Management and Journal of Travel Research. Motivation, affection, and behavioral responses of tourists and guests are some of the main variables explained by using approach-avoidance theory. Regulatory focus theory encompasses travelers' escape motives, consumer service evaluation, CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility), trust, coping and response to the situation. The review found that studies utilize approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories are limited. In addition, the review identified

a threefold limitations on adopting approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories in tourism and hospitality research: 1) existing studies paid less attention to enterprise response as they concentrated on customer response (tourists and guests) to the situations; 2) most studies conducted in specific research areas such as emotion, coping, motivation, and intention, but such theories are still capable of explaining different phenomenon; and 3) majority of the studies using the two theories were conducted in western setting, and this implies there is a paucity of research from non-western perspectives. Generally, the review show that not much research has been conducted to shed light on the integration of such theories in hospitality and tourism; for example, in terms of broadening the theories of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus on assessing the issues of seasonality (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Meanwhile, Ferris et al. (2013) have suggested that an integration of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories can help to develop novel hypotheses. Consequently, this study integrates the two theories to examine the relationship between organizational cultures and innovative behavior in response to off-season in hotel setting.

3.3. Theory and hypothesis

Previous chapters and sections discussed major issues such as organizational culture, employees' innovative behavior, approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory. This section explicates the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories to illustrate the hypothetical relationship among major constructs such as innovative, collaborative, and traditional organizational culture, employees' openness, resistance, and innovative behavior.

3.3.1 Innovative behavior in response to off-season: approach-avoidance and regulatory focus perspective

In the rapidly changing business environment, challenges and unforeseen events, organizations face market turbulence and risks to achieve desired goals. Taking seasonality as

an example, off-season reduces tourist flow, guest occupancy, and hard-to-get-in market for hotels. Given that internal change determines external outcomes, tourism organizations can pay attention to innovative approaches to solve market problem and generate demand in condition to off-season. Building on qualitative case-study design in hotels situated at the South Coast of Kenya, Burugu et al. (2014) suggested that hotels need to pursue innovative approaches to address off-season market challenges. This study proposed an integration of the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories to examine employees' innovative behavior in response to off-season. In this context, motivation to respond to off-season is caused by biological arousal (stimuli) activated either by the positive or negative stimuli (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). Hence, organization or employees' goal achievement orientation could be directed either by the performance-approach or performance-avoidance orientation in response to situations like off-season (Elliot, 1999; Elliot & Covington, 2001; Heimpel et al., 2006). Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2010) noted that attitude and perception can be considered as one of the most important issues to tackle seasonality. Activation arises from approach-avoidance leads employees' intention to respond to off-season. Directed by the stimuli, i.e., positive and negative, employees tend to choose alternative or old methods to respond to off-season. Approach-avoidance theory can be interpreted as behavioral activation that leads employees to experience new market segments.

According to the regulatory focus theory, employees' response is demonstrated by the strategy and decision-making process that they follow. In this vein, promotion and prevention focus-strategies regulate individuals' decision-making behavior (Higgins, 1997, 1998). For example, employees pursue promotion-focus strategy are willing to take risks and ready to explore ideas and mechanism whereas employees who pursue prevention-focus strategy consider safety and security and are, thus, more risk averse in their decision-making. This implies that employees follow promotion strategy are most likely oriented to generate and

implement ideas whereas employees keep on prevention strategy shows cautious and considering limitations. Thus, this study examines how employees' regulatory foci enable or influence employee innovative behavior in response to low season. For instance, Crowe and Higgins (1997) noted that a person pursues a promotion-focus strategy exhibits curiosity to explore new ideas while a person follows prevention strategy seek to continue well-established and repetitive process. An experiment conducted by Friedman and Förster (2001) found that there is a positive relationship between promotion and creativity. Similar to this, Wu, McMullen, Neubert, and Yi (2008) found that promotion-focus strategy has significant contributions to employee creativity that intends them for further entrepreneurial actions.

The relationship between approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories are deemed appropriate not only to explain employees' intention and adaptation to different environment but are also useful to examine peoples' reaction to situations. Compared to other similar theories like social exchange and value expectancy theory, approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories can be used to examine the combined feature of organization and individual response to different situation and environment.

	<u>Promotion system</u>	<u>Prevention system</u>
<u>Approach</u>	Advancement Growth “Gain”	Safety Security “Non-Loss”
<u>Avoidance</u>	Deprivation Stagnation “Non-Gain”	Danger Threat “Loss”

Figure 3.2. Integration of AAT and RFT

Source: Cornwell, Franks, and Higgins (2014)

Figure 3.2 depicts how the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories can be incorporated to shed light on individual motivation, activation, achievement, and goal orientation. Cornwell, Franks, and Higgins (2014) noted recently that the principle of motivation not only requires behavioral activation i.e. approach/avoidance, but also necessitates additional distinct motivation processes distinguished into promotion and prevention. Promotion-focus strategy and approach motivation exhibit advancement, growth, and search for pleasure and seek to achieve success whereas avoidance and prevention characterize negative stimuli attached to prioritize safety and security issues. Both theories can determine an individual's sense of behavioral activation as well as regulatory mechanisms related to advancement and growth while minimizing stagnation and deprivation. Figure 3.2 exhibits how approach-avoidance and avoidance-prevention determine a person's gain or non-gain processes, thereby resulting in either success or failure. For example, the behavioral activation (approach motivation) drive for inspiration and development through promotion processes. On the other hand, priority for safety and security is propelled by vigilant strategy (prevention) and avoidance motivation. Thus, Figure 3.2 indicates that integration of the two theories has substantial explanatory power by assimilating the self-regulatory mechanisms with that of approach-avoidance motivation (Higgins et al., 1997; Förster et al., 1998, 2001; Malaviya and Brendl, 2014). Hence, this study employs approach-promotion and avoidance-prevention to explain 'employee' openness' and 'employee resistance to change' respectively.

The combined effect of such theories helps to realize biological stimulus and influence individuals response to situations (Elliot, 1999; Higgin, 1997, 1998). This can be summarized as approach and promotion represents pleasure while avoidance and prevention represents pain. Supporting this view, Lanaj, Chang, and Johnson (2012) stated that the approach-avoidance

theory is seen as an antecedent of the regulatory focus theory (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). This implies that there was a merger of both theories to explain a sequential phenomenon in which pleasure leads to pain while pain leads to prevention. Thus, this study integrates the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories to explain major constructs since such theories are deemed appropriate to in formulating strong hypotheses (Ferris et al., 2013). Given the above-mentioned theoretical analysis and argument, Figure 3.3 presents a research model which exhibits the hypothetical relationship between innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture and innovative behavior. The model also shows the effects of employee openness and resistance to change in lieu of approach-promotion and avoidance-prevention on the relationships between three organizational cultures (innovative, collaborative, and traditional) and innovative behavior.

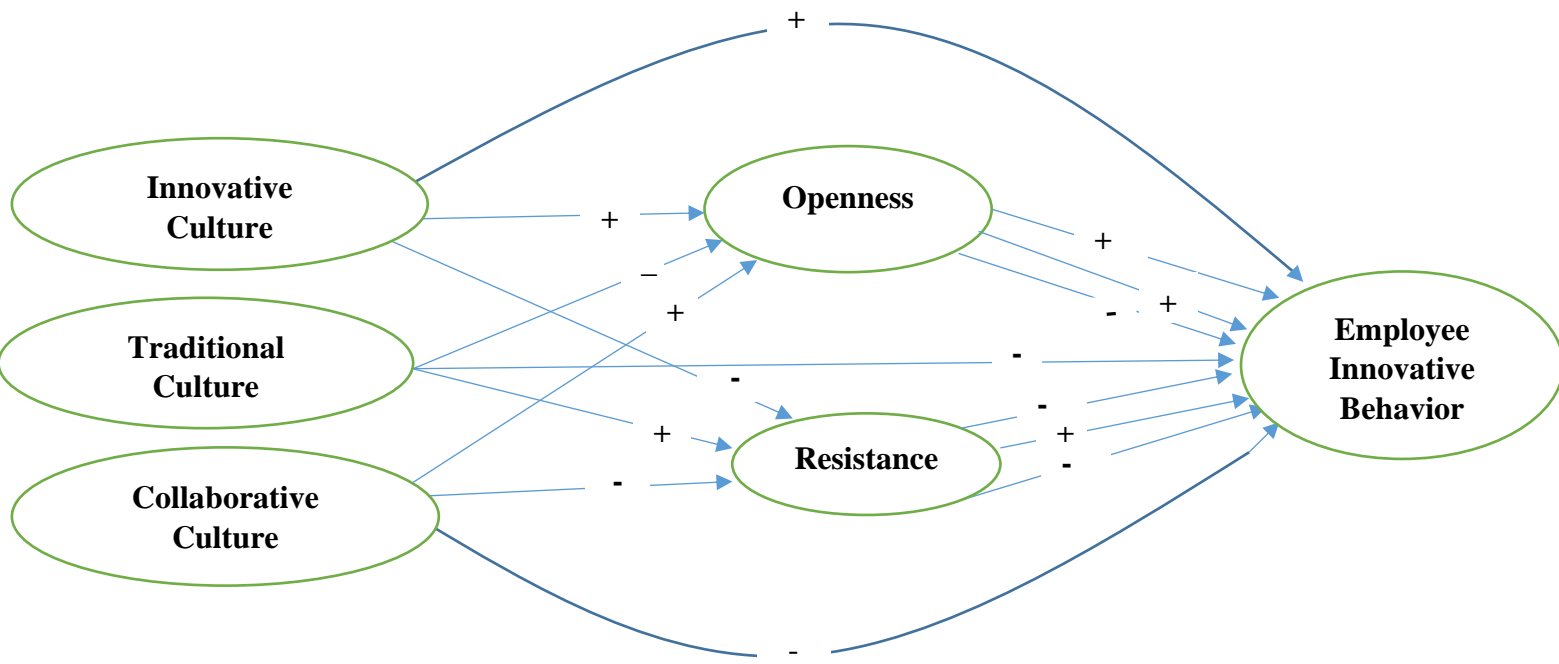


Figure 3.3 Research Model

3.3.2 Innovative culture, openness, and resistance

To cope up with the current rapidly changing business environment, innovation plays a crucial role to achieve a competitive edge in the market. Given the inevitable contribution of

culture to innovation, organizations need to foster innovative culture as a passage to establish, initiate, and functionalize innovation. Innovative culture can be described as an internal strategy that enables organizations to achieve success not only in product and service development, but also in the alignment of new and existing market (see. Hurley & Hult, 1998; O'Cass & Ngo, 2007). Innovative organizational culture allows employees to experience new methods and enable them to take risks at the workplace. Innovative culture permits employees to experience different working approach and methods, and it appreciates employees' intention to change the status quo (Kofter, 2007). Openness includes flexibility and change orientation which leads a person to evince creative and innovative behavior (Martín-de Castro et al., 2011). From the perspective of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory, the relationship between innovative culture and openness ranges from behavioral arousal determines decision-making process to respond to situations. Based on search-to-presence model, Steger, Kashdan, Sullivan, and Lorentz (2008) noted that individuals' openness leads them to search for the presence of meaning. Employees' openness is positively stimulated to experience new marketing techniques and it shows eagerness to strengthen organizational innovative culture (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Mehrabian & Russel, 1974). Supporting this position, several studies have been found the positive relationship between innovative culture and employee openness (Brettel & Cleven, 2011; Hult, Hurley, & Knight, 2004; Jun & Park, 2014; Laursen, & Salter, 2014). This implies that openness plays an imperative role to enhance innovative thinking in the organization; hence, organizations search for employee openness to maintain firm's innovative culture. Thus, this study expects that:

Hypothesis 1a: Innovative culture is positively related to openness in response to off-season.

Even though innovation helps to achieve a competitive edge in the market, employees' characteristics determine the outcome of innovation (Malaviya & Wadhwa, 2005; Miron, Erez,

& Naveh, 2004). Considering the variation in intention and behavior, attitude and situational circumstances depend on employees' influence on innovative culture. Given this, employees who oppose innovative culture exhibits resistance and show behavioral and attitudinal disagreement toward innovative approaches. Although resistance is seen as a bottleneck in the process of ensuring change and innovative atmosphere, it is difficult to consider it as an antecedent to failure. Instead, it is seen as an opposition to the proposed change. Resistant employees prefer to concentrate on current practices (Oreg, 2003) while innovative culture pushes them to move forward, and to create alternative approach to solve work-related problems. From the perspectives of approach-avoidance (Elliot & Covington, 2001) and regulatory focus (Higgin, 1998) theories, employees' resistance caused by negative valence and vigilance because of aversion to negative outcomes preferred to repeat existing workflows. For employees who are resistant, innovation is needless to some extent; rather, they consider it as a passage to failure. Hence, employees remain passive in the fast track innovative atmosphere. Previous research confirmed that resistance has a negative effect on organizational success (Oreg, 2006) and employee creativity (Hon et al., 2014). In this context, employees may resist to pursue innovative approach in time of off-season, no matter how firm innovative culture promotes them to take risks in decision-making processes. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1b: Innovative culture is negatively related to resistance in response to off-season.

3.3.3. Traditional culture, openness, and resistance

Traditional culture refers to norms, customs, and traditions, which is previously constructed as a societal value through time (Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007; Yang et., 1989). In traditional culture, people obey rules and are committed to pursue old practices generated from

the past (Schwartz, 1992). In an organization, traditional culture is manifested by hierarchical and strict relationship, high power distance, formalization, respect for authority, and structured superior-subordinate relationship (Farh et al., 1997). Although change is constant, real, and inescapable, traditional culture prefers to stick with old practices through hierarchical and vertical chain of command in which employees are forced to exhibit conservatism and resistance. Oreg (2006) noted that resistance exhibits rigidity, reaction to block change, refrain from pursuing new ways or approaches. Such relationship between traditional culture and resistance can be underpinned by the approach-avoidance theory (Elliot, 1999; 2006; Ferris et al., 2013). In this way, resistance as human behavior arises from negative stimuli that lead to risk aversion, and it considers failure and uncertainty. Individuals prevent themselves from doing wrong and rather concentrate on existing well-adapted processes (Higgin, 1998). In a similar vein, research indicated that employees' resistance impedes them from taking risks, makes them afraid of change, and makes them want to depart from an emergency environment (Ford et al., 2008). In an organization where traditional culture is fostered, resistance is preferable because the environment permits them to be a follower instead of being a bystander. Traditional culture urges employees to prioritize risks and failures, and they pursue strict regulation to sustain existing working procedure. Thus, employees exhibit resistant attitudes toward exploring different marketing techniques in hotel, as they may not even be motivated to create new marketing ideas and methods to overcome off-season. Considering the above arguments, this study predicts that:

Hypothesis 2a: Traditional culture is positively related to resistance in response to off-season.

Contrary to the relationship between traditional culture and resistance, employees with higher level of openness become get-in-to conflict with traditional organizational culture since they are unwilling to accept existing custom, tradition, norm, and believe that organizations

practice. The formalized aspect of traditional culture makes employees to demonstrate respect and commitment to organizational rules and regulations, closing the door to new thoughts, approaches, and workable ideas that employees may have. This creates a contradiction with the notion of openness, which allows employees to pursue flexible, imaginative, and sensitive approaches (DeYoung, 2014; Laursen & Salter, 2014). From the perspective of approach-avoidance and regulatory-focus theory, employees' openness activated for exploration, aspiration, and eagerness to achieve success (Elliot & Thrash, 2010; Higgins, 1998). However, traditional culture refrains them from such activation by considering losses and failures (Ferris et al., 2013). Even though employees become triggered to tackle off-season by creating different strategies, hotels traditional culture impedes such attempts. In this vein, employees' openness leads them to pursue flexible marketing approach and mechanism to increase hotel occupancy in low season, but organization's traditional culture becomes contradictory with openness to experience several marketing strategies. Supporting this view, previous research found that traditional organizational culture is negatively related to employees' voice up and interactive behaviors (Gao & Shi, 2010; Ma, Qi & Wang, 2008). Thus, this study hypothesizes that there is a negative relationship between traditional culture and employee openness.

Hypothesis 2b: Traditional culture is negatively related to openness in response to off-season.

3.3.4 Collaborative culture, openness, and resistance

Collaborative culture encourages mutualism and coordination among people; it allows employees to work together as a team to achieve a common goal in the organization (Barczak, Lask, & Mulki, 2010). However, collaboration seeks individuals' intention and willingness to interact each other. The literature revealed that the success of collaborative culture can be leveraged by employees' mutual interaction (Beyerlein et al., 2003; Nardi & Farrell, 2003).

The approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories can underpin the relationship between collaborative culture and openness since individuals' behavioral response stems from biological arousal, which is stimulated to create interaction with others. Individuals' behavior determines their interactivity with others; thus, employees' behavioral activation ensure their reaction toward organization's endeavor to ensure collaborative work culture. Although individuals differ in their intention to cooperate and have mutual consensus to work together, employees with high level of openness seek collaborative environment which promotes socialization and mutual interaction. Research indicates that employees with a high level of openness intend to seek, identify, utilize, and understand information with respect to mutual support and interaction with co-workers (Barratt, 2004; DeYoung et al., 2014; Yang, 2007). This leads to the prediction that employees who exhibit higher openness will initiate to collaborate with other co-workers to work together as a team in order to tackle off-season market challenges.

Hypothesis 3a: Collaborative culture is positively related to openness in response to off-season.

Contrary to the relationship between collaborative culture and openness, individuals' behavioral and attitudinal resistance resulting from rigidity and emotional reaction may make them passive even in a supportive atmosphere. Collaborative culture emphasizes that organizational success is accomplished through employees' close relationship and mutualism; however, this requires interactive personal characteristics of employees and actions designed to maintain cooperative work environment. On the other hand, resistance leads to fear, anxiety, and being extremely cautious (Piderit, 2000); hence, cognitive rigidity as well as emotional reactions are largely exhibited as an opposition to change or response to new methods. Studies indicate that employees' resistance to change inhibit them from interacting with other co-workers (Canning & Found, 2015; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Jasti & Kodali, 2016). From

the perspectives of the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, employee resistance arises from avoidance-prevention motivation become incompatible with collaborative organizational culture and it influences response to off-season market. Thus, this study expects that:

Hypothesis 3b: Collaborative culture is negatively related to resistance in response to off-season.

3.3.5 Innovative culture and employee innovative behavior

Innovative culture is oriented to create a conducive work environment, which favors new thinking and methods. Thus, innovative culture has received considerable attention in hospitality to achieve market success as well as to ensure survivability of the business. According to Ashkanasy et al. (2000), innovative culture encourages employees to take risks with the aim of achieving a competitive edge in the market. Seasonal variation brings fluctuation in hotel market; this urges an organization to pursue updated marketing strategies to alleviate market decline during off-season. Hon and Lui (2016) noted that “firms in the hotel industry rely on innovative services to fill empty hotel rooms during low season and to maintain a good relationship with customers” (p. 865). This underpins the necessity of employee innovative behavior to safeguard innovative culture and to alleviate market sustainability across seasons. In the context of the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, the relationship between innovative culture and employee innovative performance lies at the root of positive behavioral activation that leads employees to achieve organizational success (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). Employees who engage in an innovative culture demonstrate a positive stimulus and show a passion for attracting and persuading guests by applying different marketing techniques in time of off-season. Several studies confirmed that innovative culture is crucial in an attempt to encourage innovative behavior since it motivates and makes

employees confident in their effort to create and implement marketing ideas and tactics during off-season (Eskiler et al., 2016; Malaviya & Wadhwa, 2005; Naqshbandi et al., 2015). For a comprehensive understanding, such relationship can be confirmed with empirical evidence from a less developed setting like Africa. Consequently, this study expects that innovative culture enhances employees' innovative behavior in response to off-season.

Hypothesis 4a: Innovative culture is positively related to employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

3.3.6 Traditional culture and employee innovative behavior

In traditional culture domain, employee innovative behavior has been led by tradition and customary practices established on past belief, norms, and customs. Traditional culture has paid much attention to conserve existing beliefs and practices and has striven to hold onto old beliefs and working procedures with relatively less room for new thinking and applications (Farh et al., 1997; Leong & Chang, 2003). In traditional culture, employees who intend to create and implement new ideas are seen as offenders to the organization's structure and management system. Given the notion of acceptance of traditional culture toward organizational mores, employees' intention to achieve new and alternative mechanisms are mostly hindered by the formalized, strict rules and regulations. In the context of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory, the relationship between employee innovative behavior and traditional culture arise from employees' intention to create and implement new and alternative ways of doing. Employees' innovative behavior experience difficulties with the absence of suitable environments which facilitate risk-taking, autonomy, and flexibility. Employee innovative performance is opposite to traditional culture since it exhibits strict relationship guided by formalized work structure. In traditional culture, employees' innovative behavior is seen as a working culture leads to unnecessary exploitation of resource for uncertain

outcomes. Hence, it is considered as an undesirable situation that adversely affects the flow of old customary practices. Consistent with this, previous research found that traditional culture could hamper creativity and innovation (Hon & Leung, 2011; Qin, Li, & Yu, 2015; Zhang, Long, Wu, & Huang, 2015). Thus, employees' responses to off-season was highly influenced by cautious, strict, and well-formalized organizational culture. This made employees to feel insecure in their attempt to create and implement new methods owing to fear of failure, making mistakes or misleading organizational chain of command. As a result, employee innovative behavior could be obstructed by traditional hotel culture in their effort to create and implement marketing ideas, procedure and strategies to offset off-season market. This leads to the prediction that:

Hypothesis 4b: Traditional culture is negatively related to employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

3.3.7 Collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior

The literature on collaborative culture has largely paid attention to the process, attainment and outcome toward coordination in an organization. Several organizations attempt to employ collaboration as a culture to maintain supportive environment and to realize common understanding toward organizational goal and objective (Ricci & Wiese, 2011). Given the importance of interaction among stakeholders, collaborative culture is essential not only in building and maintaining relationships among employees but also in influencing supplier-customer relationship. Employee innovative behavior contributes to organizational success through generation and implementation of new ideas, procedures or ways of doing (Dorenbosch, Engen, & Verhagen, 2005; Janssen, 2000; West, 2002). In line with this, the relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative activities emerged from supportive behavior of employees as well as organization's support to such collaboration. In accordance with the relationship between the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories

(Elliot, 2006; Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Higgins, 1998), employees' approach to motivation and promotion decision-making processes energizes them to maintain interaction with co-workers. In a collaborative culture, employees are motivated to solve problems together or the collaborative structure may lead them to work together as a team to achieve organizational goals. As noted by Adler and Chen (2011), indicated that both creativity and collaboration are needed when situations become uncertain, and tasks remain complex. Given off-season market challenges and its subsequent impact on market turbulence, it is important for innovation performance to align with hotel's supportive culture. Supporting this view, studies argued that there is a positive relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior (Barczak et al., 2010; Sukmawati, 2016). Thus, this study predicts that:

Hypothesis 4c: Collaborative culture is positively related to employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

3.3.8 Situation-based response and innovative behavior

Individual behavior determines how employees react to organizations' system, goals, and procedures, since people's personal intention may differ from what organizations seek for, but employees' behavior influences organizations readiness or intention to respond to difficult situations. Regarding employee behavior, openness and resistance influence employees' psychological inclination and adaptation toward change. In earlier times, Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) asserted that employees' reaction is subverted by anxiety, depression, openness or resistance which in turn affect change and success in the organization. Therefore, examining individual behavior in response to situation has theoretical and pragmatic significance. As a situation-based response, employees' openness or resistance engender the disposition of thinking and action to pursue alternative procedures at workplace and indicates their readiness or unwillingness toward organizational change. Openness, for example, implies that employees can volunteer to participate in change agent mechanisms since they have a high sense of power

which tends them to actively contribute to organizations. Previous studies conceptualize openness as a ‘support for change’ (Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994, p. 60); thus, it is perceived as a necessary condition to achieve planned change. Based on a longitudinal study on UK-based organizations, Axtell et al. (2002) noted that exposure to change demonstrates employees’ level of openness to change. Consequently, their result indicates that the higher the exposure, the greater improvement in openness to change situations. In the context of promotion-prevention foci strategies, Vaughn, Baumann, and Klemann (2008) found that people with higher openness are inclined to promotion focus, and they are initiated to follow promotion-related goals while people with lower openness are more likely to pursue prevention-goals.

In the relationship between openness and innovative behavior, openness is more reactive to creativity and innovation, and it is a ‘catalyst that leads to creative expression and exploration’ (King, Walker, & Broyles, 1996, pp. 190). Supporting this position, previous studies argued that openness encourages development of new ideas and attract innovative performance (Hult, et al., 2004; Jun & Park, 2014; O’Cass & Ngo, 2007; Roper, Vahter, & Love, 2013). By integrating approach-avoidance and promotion-prevention motivation and goal-orientation respectively, this study expects that employee openness will encourage innovative behavior in searching new and alternative market procedures to curb off-season.

Hypothesis 5a: Employee openness is positively related to innovative behavior in response to off-season.

Unlike openness, employee resistance inhibits innovative behavior since it leads employees to restrict themselves to usual working procedure rather than looking for new methods and mechanisms. Scholars have argued that resistance against innovation stems from several backgrounds such as intention or behavior (Kleijnen et al., 2009), integration of attitude

and manners (Bagozzi & Lee, 1999; Ellen et al., 1991) or it is rooted in a complex set of human feelings associated to emotions and cognitions (Oreg, 2003). According to Zwick (2002), innovation characteristics and organizational rules ascertain the occurrence of resistance against innovation, especially if the innovation focuses on employee-related issues like human capital development instead of emphasizing products and services quality. As noted by Madrid-Guijarro, Garcia, and Van Auken (2009), firm size determines the level of resistance, in which resistance is seen as the main hindrance of innovation irrespective of firm size. Organizations mostly perceive innovation as a means to change the status quo in terms of market, product or service, distribution or it can even be a means of survival on the market. Although customer demand and competition influence innovation, employees' resistance to change affects innovation. Creative ideas mostly experience skepticism and resistance because they require considerable efforts to realize frameworks of practices (Janssen, Van de Vliert, & West, 2004). Hence, employees may resist the process of pro-change settings. Resistance has been seen as an obstruction to new technology, product, service, and market, which in turn hinders change and innovative behavior (Kumar & Raghavendran, 2015; Lundy & Morin, 2013). Drawing on the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, this study expects that employees' resistance to change will be negatively related to innovative behavior in response to off-season. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5b: Employee resistance to change is negatively related to innovative behavior in response to off-season.

3.3.9 The mediating effect of employee openness

Innovative culture is a business strategy that organizations utilize to accomplish success by employing new ideas and working procedures. Hence, innovative organizational culture creates a conducive environment that helps to encourage new thinking and ways of work application. Such working culture empowers employees to experience and adopt new

knowledge, skill or working procedure even in times of market turbulence, risk and uncertain situations (Kofter, 2007). With response to organizational innovative culture, employees exhibit openness to experience several alternative market mechanisms to curb off-season market decline. From the perspectives of the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, employee openness, triggered by approach motivation and promotion foci, is believed to create new ideas and different working mechanisms. Previous studies describe openness as intellect, culture, imagination, and creative mentality performed to attract new learning and experiences (Dollinger, Urban, & James, 2004). Individuals with openness characteristics are receptive to new experience, making them distinct from others in their intention to explore and adapt new environment (Woo et al., 2014).

Despite employees' intention to create their own cultural environment, they do still follow their own personal-led positive or negative motives and responses toward their environment. In the context of the approach-avoidance motivation and regulatory focus theories, an innovative organizational culture offers a favorable environment which energizes employees' intention to generate and implement ideas and methods. In the case of response to off-season, innovative organizational culture seeks employees' novel thinking and demonstrate new types of performance to offset seasonal variation. Thus, such culture encourages a higher degree of openness to explore new and alternative mechanisms to maintain employees' confidence, ability, and vitality to assess different approach. Supporting this view, previous studies found that a higher degree of employee openness encourages creativity and innovative behavior (Dollinger et al., 2004; Xu, Jiang, & Walsh, 2014). In accordance with approach motivation and promotion foci process, innovative culture reinforces employees with a higher level of openness, and such openness leads them to adopt a promotion focus strategy with a sense of excitement and pleasure to respond to off-season. Thus, an innovative culture enhances

employee innovative behavior via the employee openness regulatory process. Hence, this study expects:

Hypothesis 6a: Openness mediates the relationship between innovative culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

A traditional organizational culture is established on a fixed set of beliefs, norms, and traditions based on old practices and working procedures (Farh et al., 1997; Farh et al., 2007; Schwartz, 1992). High power distance, vertical chain of command, higher degree of bureaucracy, and formalized set of rules and regulations are some of the main features of a traditional culture. Hence, such traditional work culture has little room for openness to experience alternative working procedures. Previous studies have argued that traditional culture is negatively related to employee creativity (Hon Bloom, & Crant, 2014) because a traditional culture restrains employees from moving further and instead compels them to follow conventional forms of performance. Consistently, previous studies have asserted the negative relationship between employee openness and traditional culture (Gao & Shi, 2010; Ma, Qi, & Wang, 2008).

Since a traditional culture attempts to follow old practices and leaves little room for new ideas and procedures, it contradicts with employees' openness triggered by devotion and an eagerness to explore new working procedures. Such incongruence between a traditional culture and employee openness will influence employees' innovative behavior. In the context of the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, derived from aspiration, devotion, and eagerness for exploration, employees openness strengthen the need to experience different marketing techniques while traditional culture caused by avoidance motivation hinders employees' openness to pursue innovative approach in response to off-season. Thus, this study

expects that openness mediates the negative relationship between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

Hypothesis 6b: Openness mediates the relationship between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

A collaborative organizational culture encourages mutual interaction and cooperation among employees, and it permits members of an organization to work together with common understanding and goal (Barczak et al., 2010). Supporting this thought, studies found that employees' openness triggered by curiosity and eagerness could elevate organization's endeavor to enhance supportive work culture (Barratt, 2004). Moreover, studies have found positive attributes of employees' openness; some of which include knowledge sharing (Cabrera, Collins, & Salgado, 2006), verbal intelligence (DeYoung et al., 2014), social responsibility (Bellou, Stylos, & Rahimi, 2018), cultural adaptation (Kenesei & Stier, 2017), reduction of job burnout (Kim, Shin, & Umbreit, 2007), and reduction of turnover. Openness also promotes forward thinking and energizes intentions to experience several working mechanisms through mutual interaction and togetherness with other members in an organization. In accordance with the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, approach motivation and promotion strategies nurture the likelihood of openness to search for alternative working mechanisms by even taking risks motivated by a collaborative culture. Hence, this study expects that employee openness mediates the positive relationship between a collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

Hypothesis 6c: Openness mediates the relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

3.3.10 The mediating effect of employee resistance

Human resistance behavior is seen as situational, psychological, and dispositional traits against change, alteration, progress, and development. Unlike innovative and collaborative cultures, employees' resistance is compatible with a traditional organizational culture since it prioritizes safety and cautious attitude toward risks and uncertainties. According to Schwartz (1992), a traditional culture is associated with values and norms that demonstrate commitment and respect and it exhibits an inherited recognition of old beliefs and practices. A traditional culture is founded on formalized work structure filled with strong vertical chain of command, rigidity, and supervisor-subordinate relationship. Organizations that pursue traditional culture shows adherence to rules, regulations, and terms and conditions adopted from the past; hence, employees may be forced to protect firm's tradition and preserve the well-adopted working procedures and organizational rules (Farh et al., 1997; Leong & Chang, 2003).

From the perspective of the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, employees' resistance behavior can be pressurized by avoidance stimuli and arousal which leads them to risk-aversion and makes them afraid of uncertainty (Cornwell & Higgins, 2015; Elliot & Covington, 2001). In this way, such resistance behavior is closely related to traditional culture and favor past thinking and practice; however, both of them disfavor generation and application of new ideas. In traditional culture, employees are required to follow formalized and structured guideline, and they become compelled to be followers rather than bystanders. Thus, employees' resistant behavior suits traditional culture, resulting in risk aversion and inhibiting idea generation and implementation (Ford et al., 2008; Hon et al., 2014). Likewise, organization's system developed from traditional culture and resistance limits employees' intention to pursue new working approaches. Instead, the traditional culture reinforces resistant behavior to follow new ways with respect to vertical chain of command and hierarchical organizational structure. Hence, in the case of response to off-season, traditional hotel culture

inhibits innovative conduct approaches via employees' avoidance and prevention-led resistance.

Hypothesis 7a: Resistance mediates the relationship between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

Resistance arises from psychological, situational, and dispositional traits that lead individuals to oppose change and progressive actions, thereby preventing employees from creating and implementing new ideas (Hon et al., 2014). Conversely, since innovation is realized change and creativity (Dobni, 2008), innovative organizational culture necessitates the exploration of new methods, even in times of risky situations. Although innovative culture promotes innovative behavior, resistance refrain individuals from introducing and applying ideas and alternative mechanisms. By considering failure and negative outcomes, Kauppila, Rajala, and Jyrämä (2010) noted that salespersons became reluctant to sell new products. In line with this, previous studies found that employees' resistance to change is negatively related to an innovative environment stemming from risk aversion and resistive behavior (Heidenreich & Kraemer, 2016; Kumar & Raghavendran, 2015; Lundy & Morin, 2013).

Regarding response to seasonality, employees may become hesitant to follow new and alternative mechanisms or they may even oppose organizational support for innovative performance in addressing different selling methods or processes to curb off-season. Drawing on the approach-avoidance motivation and regulatory focus theories, employees' resistance, driven by avoidance motivation and prevention strategy, will become incongruent with innovative organizational culture. Rather, they will perform less in terms of idea generation and implementation. Hence, this study examines the mediating effect of employee resistance on the association between innovative culture and employees' innovative behavior in response to off-season. Consequently, this study has the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 7b: Resistance mediates the relationship between innovative culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

A collaborative organizational culture is principally established on a set of bottom-up organizational procedure by ensuring mutual interaction among employees at workplace. Collaborative culture primarily intends to promote sharing of ideas and cooperation, and it facilitates relationships and community belonging among members of the organization (Flores, 2004). Employee resistance, however, obstructs a collaborative organizational culture because such resistance exhibits unwillingness to perform in a participatory work environment. Instead, employees with a higher degree of resistance seek to execute routine tasks with well-adopted work procedure, exhibit reticence and rigidity stemming from cognition and emotional reactions as opposed to engaging in idea generation and implementation (Hon et al., 2014).

From the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theory perspectives, employees' resistance behavior originates from avoidance-prevention reaction to situations; consequently, employees pay attention to self-protection by pursuing supervisors' trickle-down approaches. Organizational behavior research noted that resistance could hamper cooperative environment in the organization and negatively affect employee creativity (Heidenreich & Kraemer, 2016). In this context, resistance hinders not only adaptation to cooperative environment but also inhibits employees' collaborative effort to generate market during off-season. Although it is believed that employee innovative performance can be developed through collaboration (Emden, Calantone, & Droge, 2006), their resistance behavior might inhibit such cooperation regarding knowledge and skills exchange. Thus, this study predicts that:

Hypothesis 7c: Resistance mediates the relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior, in response to off-season.

3.4 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the theoretical and conceptual framework, research model and hypothetical relationships. It had four sections: 1) Approach-avoidance, 2) Regulatory focus theory, 3) Approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories in hospitality and tourism, and 4) Hypothetical relationships among constructs. The conceptual development of the study combined two theories: the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories. The approach-avoidance theory refers to positive and negative stimuli arouse biologically to distinct motivational and achievement orientation. Numerous scholars have used such theories to examine issues such as motivation, response, activation, achievement, and temperament. Second, the chapter discussed the regulatory focus theory which illustrates how peoples' regulatory foci lead them to utilize different mechanisms to solve problems. Such strategies can be categorized into two: promotion and prevention. Promotion refers to aspiration or eagerness targeted to achieve goals whereas prevention refers to failure directed to avoid negative outcomes. Numerous scholars have employed such theories from different theoretical angles like persuasion, experience, engagement, goal orientation, emotion at work, response to feedback, success, and failure. This study adopts the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories to examine the impact organizational cultures has on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season by considering employee openness and resistance caused by approach-promotion and avoidance-prevention respectively.

The third section presented a review of studies using the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories in the domain of hospitality and tourism. Although hospitality and tourism studies have employed the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, such theories have seldom been utilized in tourism and hospitality research, as compared to research in management and psychology. The review revealed the lack of research in developing

economies. Hence, this study builds on the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories by drawing on them to investigate response to seasonality in a context underexplored in the literature. Finally, the chapter presented the research model and hypothetical relationships among major constructs such as innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational cultures, employee openness, resistance, and innovative behavior.

CHAPTER FOUR - RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter presents the methodological procedures of the study. Section 4.2 presents the research design, which answers the research questions and the overall research processes. Section 4.3 discusses the purpose of the study, conceptual model, and relationship among variables. Section 4.4 presents unit of analysis and time of horizon, and section 4.5 discusses the survey setting, target population, and sample which describe the profile of respondents. These sections discuss what is to be studied and how it is studied, and the intended time designed for data collection. Section 4.6 presents about questionnaire administration, pilot test, and data collection procedure. Section 4.7 presents the conceptualization and operationalization of constructs, including the measurement scales adopted. Section 4.8 discusses about control variables. Section 4.9 illustrates the data analysis, including techniques, instruments, and justifications for the data analysis method. Generally, the chapter discusses issues such as research design, approach, and the purpose of the study, research setting, and target population, unit of analysis, sampling, conceptualization, and operationalization of variables.

4.2 Research design and approach

This research aims to investigate employees' innovative behavior in response to off-season. Drawing on the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, the research model exhibits how employees' innovative behavior relates to organizational cultures in response to off-season. Methodological rigor is one of the main requirements of any research to properly answer and achieve research questions and objectives respectively (Creswell, 2002, 2009; Judd, McClelland, & Ryan, 2011). From the positivist paradigm point of view, truth is an objective reality, requiring neutral observation and investigation, and it is largely realized via

quantitative methodology, whereas scholars who pursue qualitative research methods and methodology argue that truth results from a variety of assumptions such as experience, interaction, and involvement (Guba, 1990). Hence, such researchers follow constructivism, phenomenology and other qualitative approaches to discuss possible ways to examine ontology and epistemology. In such philosophical debates, the researcher and the researched issues should become mutually exclusive and interactive in quantitative and qualitative methods respectively. Such paradigm debate can also be observed in hospitality and tourism academia (Downward & Mearman, 2004).

In hospitality, the role of qualitative research method is largely limited to the generation of variables to be tested by subsequent quantitative analysis. However, it is clear that both approaches and methods have their limitations. For example, quantitative research faces comments regarding methodological accuracy and the pursued paradigm (i.e. positivism) is unable to answer questions around meanings whereas trustworthiness and substantial justification are questionable in qualitative research. Drawing on the rationale behind research questions and objectives, this study pursues a positivism paradigm and adopts a quantitative methodology to examine hypothetical cause-and-effect relationship among variables. This study adopts a correlational design to predict relationship among constructs, measured by quantifying the size of coefficient and statistical significances.

4.3 Purpose of the study

This study uses the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories to examine the effect of organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season, by considering the mediating effects of employees' situation-based responses (i.e., openness and resistance to change). The study used questionnaire survey comprised of 45-measurement

items to test the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories. A quantitative research method was adopted to analyze the conceptual model and to predict the relationship between innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational culture, openness, resistance, and employee innovative behavior.

4.4 Unit of analysis and time of horizon

Considering the guidance and determining factors of research, unit of analysis is the first and foremost feature of research that enables a researcher to decide on data collection and analysis procedures. Unit of analysis guides every aspect of the study, and it holds implications for sampling, population, data collection, scope, and variables (Sekaran, 2003). It denotes who should be explored and determines the level and size of the subjects range from individual to aggregate level (i.e., country, nation, and organization). In line with this, the unit of analysis for this study covered hotel employees and managers. Concerning the time of horizon, research can be categorized into two: cross-sectional and longitudinal study. Cross-sectional studies rely on data gathering and observation at a single point in time while longitudinal study emphasizes repeated observation carried out through time. Given the nature of the research question, this study adopted a cross-sectional research design, and data were collected via single observation. Although cross-sectional study design is questionable by generalizability, bias, meaningfulness, and inaccurate result, such research design has a snapshot of behavioral observation through cross-sectional analysis (Spector, 2019).

4.5 Survey setting, population, and sample

The survey setting for this study included managers and employees in the hotel industry. Hotel innovation continues to develop, and several inventions have been introduced in the sector, including check-in procedures and the sharing economy. Considering

organizational innovation as a landmark for technological innovation, hotels innovation largely depends on employees' and managers' readiness to be either innovative or supportive of innovative trials. Although the foundation of hotel development in Ethiopia dates back to a century ago, the sector faces market challenges because of several political and socio-economic challenges in addition to internal challenges like service quality and human resource-related issues. More specifically, seasonality caused by weather variation and human-related factors aggravate the challenges of hotels in Ethiopia. Hence, this thesis examines the prominence of employees' innovative behavior in the hotel sector in Ethiopia with respect to response to seasonality. The survey included hotels in four cities in Ethiopia: Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar, Hawassa, and Debrezeit. These places are known to have a large concentration of hotels with diversified employees recruited from different parts of the country.

4.5.1 Sampling design and procedure

The target sample for this study was drawn from hotel managers and employees in Ethiopia because of two reasons: 1) the hotel sector in Ethiopia faces a prolonged off-season that debilitates rate of return and reduces the profit margin (Gobena, & Gudeta, 2013); 2) to provide empirical evidence to the existing research in response to seasonality from developing world context. Since the number of employees and managers is unknown and random selections remain unfeasible, the study adopted non-probability sampling. Although probability sampling is preferable for statistical inference, non-probability sampling is still deemed appropriate for business research (Mazzocchi, 2008). The study utilized convenience sampling based on accessibility, convenience, and willingness of the respondents. Considering the ratio of hotel distributions across regions and selection bias (i.e., surveying more respondents from a particular place), the survey was conducted on hotels located in four places in Ethiopia, namely Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar, Hawassa, and Debrezeit. The survey excludes

international hotels managed by their parent company since the level, importance, and support to enhance innovation varies between international and local hotels stemming from size, organizational structure, approach to innovation, and market uncertainties (Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; Sutthijakra, 2011; Ottenbacher, Shaw, & Lockwood, 2006).

4.5.2 Sample size determination

Large sample size has widely been accepted to minimize sampling error, bias and limit prospective gaps occurred in between sample and true population. For more generalizability and statistical estimation, a large sample size is required and preferable not only to get the desired precision and variability, but also to ensure rigor in methodology (Sekaran, 2003). As Short, Ketchen Jr and Palmer (2002) note, sample size is recommended to represent all populations that are being studied. However, it can be limited to a certain number because of time and budget. As a rule of thumb, Roscoe (1975) asserted that a sample size that is greater and less than 30 and 500 respectively is appropriate for research. According to the central limit theorem, a sample size greater than 30 (including the subsample) can be workable for empirical study (Field, 2013).

Although large sample size is required for SEM (Structural Equation Modeling)-based studies (Hair et al., 1998), there is no clear guideline to determine sample size. Factors related to power of the test of statistics (alpha level) have been indicated to determine significance and probability to reject or not to reject the null hypothesis in fixing the sample size (Anderson, Sweeney, & Williams, 2012). In relation to power statistics and sample size, there is a fact that the larger the sample size, the higher the power of the test statistics. In addition, effect size influences sample size carried out either by literature or logical statements. The relationship between effect size and sample is not reciprocal; hence, the larger the sample size, the smaller

the effect size. Unlike other factors which influence sample size, the power test plays a key role on the sample size of SEM-based research. Also, expected power performance influences the choice of fit indices such as value of indices, the degree of freedom, number and relationship among variables. After extensive reviews of SEM-based studies, Wolf, Harrington, Clark, and Miller (2013) found that sample size ranging from 30 to 460 is appropriate. Sample size with a ratio of 10:1 has been recommended as the rule of thumb for SEM-based research (Hair et al., 1998; Westland, 2010). Chi-square's sensitivity also influences sample size determination. Given the above suggestions, the minimum sample size for this study is based on 1 to 10 ratios, calculated by multiplying the number of constructs by the required sample size for each item (45-measurement items). Based on this calculation, the sample size for this study should be 450 ($45 \times 10 = 450$).

4.6 Questionnaire administration, pilot test, and data collection procedure

The main aim of survey was to obtain first-hand information by collecting primary data that will be used to measure relationships among constructs. To mitigate bias and provide a broad spectrum for academic analysis (Carifio & Perla, 2007), the survey was rated on 7-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree). The study adopted a multi-source data collection method that made it possible for data to be collected from employees and managers in hotel. In the first instance, employees rated organizational culture and their psychological behavior i.e. openness and resistance. Then, for the sake of objectivity, common method bias, and social desirability, supervisors/managers rated employees' innovative behavior. An inconspicuous numerical code was used to match supervisors rating on employees' innovative conduct. For the sake of respondents' convenience, questionnaires were drafted in English and translated into Amharic (the researcher's native language) using back translation (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). Two bilingual professional language experts were

invited to check the translated version in terms of correction in translation, semantic and language equivalence, and to identify inconsistencies. Finally, both the Amharic and English versions were sent to bilingual hotel and tourism scholars to check for deviation of meanings between the two versions. Before proceeding to the main survey, a pilot test was conducted on January 2018 in Addis Ababa. The pilot study aimed to check for clarity, readability, wording, to identify deficiencies in questions between the original and the newly modified questions, layout and design, and to evaluate meanings and subsequent understandings.

Thereafter, a group of 40 employees and 10 managers were invited to evaluate clarity, meaning, wording, readability, and to check for differences between original and modified questions. Several amendments were made after reviewing the initial questionnaires and consulting with research experts. For instance, the experts suggested the inclusion of full-time guest relation and airport agent staff who work mainly in sales and marketing department in the survey since they are responsible for attracting guests to hotels, especially during off-season. Based on the suggestions and comments received from the pilot study, some questions with unclear meanings and wordings were reformulated to suit the study's context, especially on the wordings of items such as 'traditional culture', 'innovative culture', 'collaborative culture', and 'resistance'.

The main survey was conducted from February to June 2018. The researcher approached human resource managers to seek their voluntary participation in the study. The human resource managers distributed the questionnaires to employees and managers having explained to them the purpose of the study. They also noted respondents' voluntary participation. Out of 61 hotels approached for participation, 48 of them accepted the researcher's request. Paper-based questionnaires were distributed to employees and their

supervisor during working hours. To mitigate social desirability issues and to ensure full confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents' profile, the researcher left the data collection sites until respondents completed the survey. Later, the researcher collected the questionnaires put in sealed envelopes from the hotel reception between one to three weeks after distribution. As suggested by hotels to encourage response rate, the researcher stationed at hotel staff entrance to distribute questionnaires with sealed envelopes, so that respondents returned the completed questionnaires to human resource office. A total of 570 and 136 questionnaires were distributed to employees and their supervisors respectively. After checking missing values, incomplete surveys and outliers, 479 paired questionnaires were suitable for data analysis. Thus, the response rate for employees' questionnaire was 84%. Regarding the supervisor sample, out of the 136 questionnaires distributed to managers, 91 were valid for subsequent analysis, representing a response rate of 67%. Items affected by missing values, outliers, and non-responses were deleted during the data screening stage. Neither the human resource managers nor respondents (employees and managers) in the hotels were compensated for their participation, except being given a souvenir gift (traditionally colored pen and pencil).

4.7 Conceptualization and operationalization

Conceptualization and operationalization are useful to provide precise meanings and clarity to measure variables. Conceptualization refers to the process of framing the meaning of specific items and it clarifies clear understanding of items. Conceptualization provides an agreed-upon meaning for a concept and it is readily designed for the purpose of a research. More importantly, conceptualization explains indicators selected to be adopted or adapted to measure variables, although the concept may have different meanings previously. Operationalization, on the other hand, refers to the development of specific research procedures for empirical observation of concepts. Researchers pay attention to the operationalization of

variables in order to identify range of variation, disparities in between variables, and to detect extremes and dimensions among variables. For example, age and income need to be operationalized to identify limits as well as to determine number of attributes. This section describes how the study conceptualizes and operationalizes significant variables such as innovative, collaborative, and traditional culture (predictor variables), employee openness and resistance (mediators), and innovative behavior (outcome variable).

4.7.1 Organizational culture

Culture has widely been linked to organizational study since it determines various aspects of philosophy, practices, and prescribed belief of an organization. Organizational culture influences several aspects of an organization such as cherishes sense of identity, facilitates commitments among members of an organization, and maintains stability of the firm. Several theoretical analyses rooted in the behavioral science paradigm describe the concept of organizational culture as a shared belief, values, norms, and customs firmly shared by members of the organization. Cheung et al. (2012) noted that organizational culture is seen as a sub-culture existed under the influence of the macro-culture. In addition, the type of organizational culture is does not only influence the outcome of an organization, but also determines missions, purpose, and strategy of an organization (Wallach, 1983). For example, innovative culture ensures intention, resource, and follows innovative approaches to address problems (Dobni, 2008; Martins & Terblanche, 2003). Collaborative culture pursues supportive environment, teamwork, communication, work for common goal, and mutualism among colleague (Lopez, Peon, & Ordas, 2004; Nardi & Farrell, 2003). Traditional culture, on the other hand, focuses on retain old tradition, custom, norm, and belief that transferred from the past and currently practiced in organization (Farh et al., 1997; Yang et al., 1989). Against this backdrop, this study

examines the influence of innovative, traditional, and collaborative cultures on innovative behavior in response to seasonality.

- **Innovative culture**

Innovative culture arises from organizational readiness and it helps to create and implement new ideas. Much of the existing literature on innovation emphasized the uni-dimensional or ad-hoc basis. Hence, less attention has been paid to the multi-dimensional point of innovation. Departing from the traditional uni-dimensional aspect of innovation, Škerlavaj et al. (2010) developed five-items to examine the technical and administrative aspects of innovations. By developing 17-items questions, Dobni (2008) examines innovative culture from multi-level innovation aspects such as market orientation, organizational learning, innovation propensity, creativity and empowerment, organizational constituency, value orientation, and implementation. In this study, innovative culture is conceptualized as a perceived culture in which an organization promotes support, encourage, respect, and reward innovative attempts generated and executed by employees. Thus, this study utilized 4-items scale developed by Zhou and George (2001) to measure the perceived innovative culture. Compared to other measurement scales, the 4 items developed by Zhou and George's (2011) were suitable to measure the perceived innovative culture because 1) the scale development follows standard procedures through pursuing consultation and meetings with management, and spent time in the organization, 2) it is based on multi-source sampling which include managers' rating, 3) it focuses on perceptions related to support, encouragement, and recognition to ensure innovative culture in an organization. Generally, the perceived innovative organizational culture encompasses a working culture in which employees can perceive organizational support, initiation and attempt to depart from the status quo and traditional working approach. Thus, various studies (such as Hon & Leung, 2011; McGuirk, Lenihan, &

Hart, 2015) have suggested the need to employ such measurement items to examine the perceived innovative culture. Considering the study's context and comments from the pilot test, items were modified. Sample items included "In our company, innovative behavior is promoted in marketing activities during off-season", and "In our company, leaders respect our creative efforts in response to off-season". A one-way ANOVA result confirmed that there was no significant difference between employees and supervisors rating on the innovative culture ($F = 1.4, p = .18$). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .89.

- **Traditional culture**

Traditional culture is mostly associated with the influence of past practices, tradition, custom, and belief which are useful to at present time (Daskon & Binns, 2009). In the context of organization, traditional culture is seen as undesirable because it obstructs change and progress (Macintyre, 2014). Given the different facet of culture and tradition, this study defines traditional culture as a practice derived from tradition, norm, custom, and belief characterized by high power distance and strict superior-subordinate relationship. Likewise, measurement scale for traditional culture was also derived from such conceptions. Yang, Yu, and Yeh (1989) developed the most widely known measurement scale for traditional culture, and this was later modified by Farh et al. (1997) into a 5-item scale. This study adopted the modified version (5-items questions) to measure the perceived effect of traditional culture on employees' innovative behavior. Covering relationship, power, hierarchy, social and behavioral contexts, such measurement items can provide a comprehensive outlook of traditional culture in organizations setting; for example, ranges from father-son to manager-employee relationship, the item considers superior-subordinate relationship. In addition, this scale covers stringent requirements, restrictions, and pursues past trends to explain the perceived traditional culture in an organization. Thus, the 5-items scale has widely been accepted to measure the perceived

traditional culture (Liu et al., 2010; Spreitzer, Perttula, & Xin, 2005). Modifications were made based on the study's context and comments received from the pilot test. Sample items were "In our hotel, we believed that managers decisions should be obeyed at all-time including off-season" and "In our hotel, we perceived that to pursue seniors' track is the best way to avoid mistakes during off-season". One-way ANOVA results confirmed that there was no significant difference between employees' and managers' perceptions ($F = .88, p = .51$). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .87.

- **Collaborative culture**

Collaborative culture is defined as individuals' supportive interaction that applies to foster empowerment, knowledge, respect, communication, and learning advantages (Pérez-López et al., 2004). In this study, a collaborative culture is defined as a supportive behavior that members of the organization exhibit to share experience in their attempt to respond to off-season. In measuring collaborative culture, Sveiby and Simons (2002) identified collaborative culture from three dimensions (individuals, supervisors, business unit) which were later validated in the tourism context (Yang, 2007). Building on samples gathered from schools, Ross, Hogaboam-Gray, and Gray (2004) developed 7-item questions to measure collaborative culture in the school context. This scale was applied to assess interactive relationship among teachers from their professional experience domain. In his study, Demir (2008) checked internal and external validity of the scale. Further, Pérez-López et al. (2004) developed an 8-item scale, comprising enhancement, respect, risk, and diversity on individuals' supportive interaction. The validity and reliability of this scale has been confirmed (Barczak et al., 2010). To measure the impact of collaborative culture on innovative behavior, this study utilized 4-items developed by Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie's (1997). As it relies on employees and their intention and demonstration in ensuring collaborative culture, the 4-items could assess

the perceived collaborative culture unlike the above-mentioned collaborative culture measurement scales. In addition, the scale follows an appropriate conceptual and empirical assessment in measuring items ranging from motivation and attitude to actions about supportive work culture. Given this, various studies (e.g. Hon & Leung, 2011; Zhou & George, 2001) have suggested the need to use items in order to examine the perceived collaborative or supportive culture in an organization context. Modifications were made considering the study's context and comments received from the pilot test. Sample items were "In our organization, we support each other when another colleague fails in his/her marketing task during off-season," and "In our organization, we share our marketing experience with each other during off-season". A one-way ANOVA result found that there was no significant difference between employees' and supervisors' responses on this construct ($F = 1.6, p = .13$). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .91.

- **Employee openness**

Given its importance to job functioning, a higher level of openness is required at the workplace to promote excellence and to mitigate difficult situations. The term openness is widely recognized as a personality construct that comprises behavioral flexibility, vivid fantasy, unconventional attitudes, artistic sensitivity, intellectual curiosity and depth of feeling (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Judge & Zapata, 2015; Leutner et al., 2014). Woo et al. (2014) has developed 54 items to measure openness, and they identified six dimensions for openness to experiences such as intellectual efficiency, ingenuity, curiosity, aesthetics, tolerance, and depth. Several studies have considered openness as an intention and willingness of employees to change the status quo propelled by personal resilience (Wanberg & Banas, 2000) and a positive attitude to ensure change (Miller et al., 1994). Considering employee openness as a situation-based response, this study used 8-items developed by Miller, Johnson, and Gray

(1994) to measure it as a situation-based response. Since the measurement items are developed based upon field study and can be manipulated information on employees' attitudes, employees' interactions, and needs for social information and change, it is acceptable to measure openness as individuals' response to situations (Wanberg et al., 2000). Modifications were made considering the study's context and comments received from the pilot test. Sample items were "In my workplace, I look forward to changing my role that brought by the implementation of work teams in response to off-season" and "In my workplace, I perceive co-workers' achievements as a positive implication to accomplish my task during off-season". The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .95.

- **Employee resistance**

Resistance is widely known as an opposition to change caused by an individual psychological-led inflection to situations. According to Jaramillo et al. (2012), resistance is an aversion to change. Attitudinal response and behavioral reaction have been mostly used to conceptualize resistance. According to the theory of reasoned action, attitudinal resistance results from behavioral resistance. Earlier, Goldstein (1989) viewed resistance as a "willful opposition." Moreover, Brehm (1966) identified four dimensions of resistance, including reluctance, distrust, scrutiny, and inertia. This study defines resistance as employees' psychological behavior stood against new or alternative working procedures in response to off-season. The study used a 15-item measurement scale originally developed by Oreg (2006). The scale is categorized into three dimensions: a) affective (e.g., "The change made me upset"), b) behavioral (e.g., "I presented my objections regarding the change to management"), and c) cognitive (e.g., "I believed that the change would harm the way things are done in the organization"). These questions were based on previously developed measurement scale designed to measure dispositional resistance behavior (Oreg, 2003). The scale covers a

multidimensional aspect of resistance to change, including affective, behavioural and cognitive resistance, and is based on conceptual and empirical assessments. Thus, several studies (e.g. Chung, Su, & Su, 2012; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Van den Heuvel & Schalk, 2009) have suggested the need to adopt this scale for a comprehensive analysis of resistance to change. Modifications were made in accordance with the study's context and comments received from the pilot test. Sample items were: "I feel stressed having to follow new marketing tactics during off-season" and "I presented my objections toward new ways of marketing strategies that I have to follow during off-season." Second-order confirmatory factor analysis was conducted, and the result indicated that the fit indices for the three first-order factors and one second-order factor met acceptable model fit indices ($\chi^2 = 183.30$, $df = 86$, $TLI = .97$, $CFI = .97$, and $RMSEA = .49$). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .96.

- **Employee innovative behavior**

Creativity and innovation have been used interchangeably with the view that one creates the other. From componential theory of creativity perspectives, Amabile (1996) defined innovation as an implementation of new ideas or procedures that enhance creativity. Similarly, Scott and Bruce (1994) defined innovative behavior as the combination of generation (creativity) and application (innovation) of ideas, and they developed a 6-item scale to measure employee innovative behavior. From the standpoint of interactionist theory of creativity, innovation is defined as an outcome of personal and situational interactions (Woodman et al., 1993). Regarding the measurement of employee innovative activities, some measurement scales have been developed by innovation researchers. For example, drawing on person-environment fit theory and an empirical study based in Dutch industrial organization, Janssen (2000) developed a 6-item questions to assess idea generation, promotion, and implementation. The result indicates that there is a positive relationship between job demand and innovative

behavior, but this relationship is determined by reward and fairness. George and Zhou (2001) found that higher employee commitment could lead to higher creativity even in conditions of job dissatisfaction coupled with co-worker support, positive job feedback, and organizational support. They also developed 13-questions that have been widely adopted by several employee creativity studies. The scale also satisfied the validity and reliability criteria (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009). Building on individual innovation process, Dorenbosch et al. (2005) assess several dimensions of creativity such as creativity-oriented, implementation-oriented work behavior, and innovative behavior in the use of computer technology and financial functioning.

In this study, employee innovative behavior is not only viewed as a multi-stage process that involves generation and application of ideas, but also as a behavioral indicator to examine employees' response to off-season. Hence, Janssen's (2000) 9-items questions (originally developed by Scott and Bruce (1994) were used to measure employee innovative behavior by categorizing employee innovative comportment into three: idea generation, promotion, and realization. The scale has been utilized to measure employee innovative performance in hotel context (Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011). Managers or supervisors rated employee innovative behavior. In accordance with the study's context and comments received from the pilot test, modifications on such items were made. Sample items were: "He/She works to generate a genuine solution to attracting guests during the off-season," and "He/She intends to generate original solutions for problems." The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .91.

4.8 Control variables

Previous studies reveal that demographic variables and personal-related factors play a crucial role on individuals' innovative behavior (Zhou & George, 2001; Zhou & Shalley, 2003). Thus, this study controlled for age, gender, and education level. As suggested by Van

Dam, Oreg, and Schyns (2008), educational level affects individuals' intention whether to accept or reject change. As strong self-efficacy can be the fundamental feature of discovery and exploration of new knowledge, various studies have discussed the prominent role of employees' creative self-efficacy and its effect on innovative performance (Bandura, 1997; Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009). Thus, in this study, creative self-efficacy was controlled by using 3-items developed by Tierney and Farmer (2002). Considering the perceived difficulty of measuring employees' innovative behavior within a shorter period of relationship (Wu & Parker, 2017), employees and supervisors who have been working together for less than a year in a particular hotel were controlled. A dummy variable was used to control age, gender, educational level.

4.9 Data analysis

This thesis uses a quantitative approach to measure and test the research model. For data analysis, CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) and SEM (Structural Equation Modelling) were adopted. CFA was used to assess the degree to which the model provides a good fit for the data (Hair et al., 2010). After CFA, SEM was employed for hypothesis testing. In addition, descriptive statistics analysis was used to provide detail information about respondents and feature of the hotel. The following sections highlight data analysis methods and procedures. AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structure) 6.0 and SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 25 were utilized to measure the model and to assess the descriptive statistics respectively.

4.9.1 Overview of SEM

This section discusses an overview of SEM (Structural Equation Modelling), strength and weakness and its applicability. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) originated from path

modelling analysis techniques invented by the geneticist Sewall Wright (Wright, 1921, as noted in Hox & Bechger, 2007). SEM is a multivariate technique that combines factor analysis and regression (Hox & Bechger, 2007). SEM comprises two procedures: 1) a structural model that shows causal process represented by regression equation, and 2) the model portrayed a clear conceptualization of the theory (Byrne, 2016). Thus, it is applicable to examine different constructs designed for hypothesized model analysis (Hair et al., 2006). SEM includes confirmatory factor analysis, causal modelling, and analysis of variances (Byrne, 2016; Ullman, 1996). It provides a comprehensive analysis that includes multi-statistical techniques, such as factorial, regression, discriminant analysis, a correlational and canonical relationships performed by using graphical path diagram (Hox & Bechger, 2007).

Unlike multiple-regression technique, SEM takes into account error terms (residuals), and it analyzes the extent to which the proposed model is consistent with the observed model and actual data (Byrne, 2013). The desired outcome in SEM equation is to generate a model fit with a relative approximation or minimum amount of residual (error term). Thus, model fit, or goodness of fit implies the extent to which the estimated model predicts the actual or observed input matrix. Goodness-of-fit exhibits the extent to which the model structure is similar with covariance structure of the sample data. The goodness-of-fit indexes evaluate absolute, incremental, and parsimonious fit measurement indices. Absolute fit is used to determine how the entire model predicts the observed covariance matrix, indicated by chi-square, GFI (Goodness-of-fit-model), and RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error Approximation). The chi-square test is employed to evaluate the hypothesized model with observed data. Chi-square with a high value is used to reject the null hypothesis and the model as well, as Hair et al., (1998) note that chi-square is sensitive to sample size. The result of chi-square recommended with values greater than 0.05 or 0.01 indicate that there is no statistical difference between the

actual and predicted input. Nevertheless, Jöreskog and Sörbom (1989) argue that the influence of chi-square could be applicable only for experimental model or models that tried to express the approximate reality.

Other absolute fit measures take into account several model fit indices as a criterion to assess the model fit (Byrne, 2016). These include GFI (Goodness-of-fit index), RMSR (Root Mean Square Residual) and RMSEA (Root Mean Squared Approximation of Error). These fit indices are essential and are used as an informative criterion, which helps to assess how well the model fits with the actual population (< 0.08 indicates acceptable fit) (Byrne, 2013). The incremental fit measure is used to compare the proposed model with a null model, i.e., AGFI (Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index), TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index), NFI (Normed Fit Index), and CFI (Comparative Fit Index) (Aish, 2004). In addition, NNFI measures a parsimony to assess the degree of freedom across the proposed and null model (with an acceptable threshold of 0.90 or greater) (Hoe, 2008). Although fit indices reporting is still debatable, results such as chi-square, CFI, GFI, NFI, RMSEA, TLI, and NNFI are mostly recommended (Byrne, 2016). However, Hair et al. (2006) argue that TLI and NNFI are interchangeable; hence, they suggested that both should be reported. On the other hand, Byrne (1998) contend that NNFI should not be reported because of difficulty in interpretation.

4.9.2 Rationale for choosing SEM

SEM is an extensively used modelling technique in behavioral science (Hox & Bechger, 2007), marketing (Mazzocchi, 2008; Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996), operation management (Shah & Goldstein, 2006) and social sciences (Byrne, 2013). Unlike other multivariate statistical techniques, SEM has tremendous advantages as it examines the mediating effects. SEM helps to examine the theoretical relationship between variables (Crockett, 2012; Quintana

& Maxwell, 1999; Wu & Zumbo, 2008). Considering the research question and objective of the study, this study proposes SEM as an ultimate statistical technique to examine the hypothesized relationship among major constructs. This study pursued Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two steps structural equation modelling analysis. First, measurement model was conducted by executing CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis). CFA assesses how indicators fit to explain underlying latent variables (Herting & Costner, 2000) presented as a prerequisite before hypothesis testing. Maximum likelihood estimation, which is "the most common estimation procedure", was employed to estimate parameters and to minimize the specified fit function (Hair et al., 1998). After conducting CFA, the study used SEM to combine unobserved and latent variables, making it possible to test the estimated cause-and-effect relationship between latent construct (Byrne, 1998). Based on an extensive review of tourism and hospitality research, Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, and Gursoy (2013) suggested that SEM-based research transcends theoretical advancement in tourism and hospitality.

AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) software package version 25 was utilized to measure CFA, test the hypothesis, and to present graphical explanation. First, the research model designed by a covariance structure, which ensures theoretical confirmation, is a viable method to analyze such covariance structure. Supporting this view, Reinartz, Haenlein, and Henseler (2009) noted that "covariance-based SEM should be the method of choice when the focus lies on confirming theoretically assumed relationships" (p. 333). Second, there is a large sample size for this study (500), which is applicable for AMOS's sizeable sample capacity. This is consistent with the idea that sample size with more than 200 observations is deemed appropriate to minimize non-convergence and incorrect solution (Boomsma & Hoogland, 2001). Third, the proposed model comprises six constructs with metric data, making it suitable to utilize AMOS (Afthanorhan, 2013).

4.9.3 Validity and reliability concerns

Validity indicates the extent to which the measurement item is able measure what is supposed to measured. Validity and reliability are mutually exclusive – that is, a measurement may be valid without achieving reliability, and a test can also be reliable without being valid. Validity is important to assess the precision of a structural model. Construct measurements are subjected to convergent, discriminant and nomological validity. Convergent validity is assured with AVE's (Average Variance Extracted) value greater than 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Discriminant validity indicates the non-relationship among latent constructs and is achieved through variety of ways such as 1) when AVE is greater than the squared correlation coefficients of each latent constructs, 2) the lower chi-square value indirectly indicates that discriminant validity is achieved, and 3) the higher the loading of constructs also indirectly pointed out that discriminant validity is assured. Nomological validity refers to the degree of constructs portrayed to measure theoretical predictions and relationships.

Reliability refers to the extent of measurements consistency, and it shows how far measures are free from error. Indicator and composite reliability can be useful to assess reliability (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). Although there is no universally accepted threshold for reliability, the recommended composite reliability values should be between 0.60 and 0.70 for exploratory and between 0.70 and 0.90 for advanced research. As Tavakol and Dennick (2011) recommended that Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.70 indicate composite reliability of the construct, values above 0.70 can be considered as a cut-off point to indicate measurement consistency. To achieve cohort, standard, and credibility, this study considers validity and reliability concerns. Procedural and statistical mechanisms were used to evaluate common method bias and social desirability issues using multi-source data and Harman one-factor test.

For example, supervisors rated employee innovative behavior, could be useful to reduce common method variance and bias arising from social desirability (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

4.9.4 Testing the mediating effects

The mediating effect which is called ‘mediator’ posits the influence of the third variable on the relationship between dependent and independent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The third variable plays a key role so that the predictor variable influences the outcome variable. In addition, the mediating variable describes the reason and way of relationship between the predictor and outcome variable, as Holmbeck (1997) noted that a mediator mostly represents psychological variables that intends to explain individuals’ intrinsic behavior. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), there are 3-criteria that the mediator should fulfil. These include: 1) statistically significant relationship between predictor and outcome variable; 2) the path coefficient for the predictor and mediating variable should be significant; 3) the direct effect between predictor variable and outcome variable should not be significant in the case when the path for the proposed mediator is zero. Baron and Kenny (1986) also proposed the fourth criterion, though it did not cancel out the extent of slight significant effect. Thus, effect sizes and Sobel test were introduced to solve such a problem. The latter is mostly used to estimate indirect effect and its significance. This means if the Sobel test for the indirect effect is significant ($p < 0.05$), there is a greater likelihood of obtaining significant mediation result (Sobel, 1982). In addition, effect size also indicates mediation estimation, as Preacher and Kelley (2011) indicated that there are two ways to describe the indication of effect size toward mediation estimation. These are 1) the residual-based index which measure the amount of variance explained by the mediator and the dependent variable; 2) the second effect size considers the scale variable which measure the indirect effect as the maximum amount of

possible indirect effect that could have been attained. Generally, multiple reporting of effect size is necessary to understand a particular mediating effect.

In SEM-based research, the mediating effect together with a latent predictor and outcome variable and factor analytic techniques in the case of scale development are generally used. Full mediating effect is considered when the direct path between predictor and outcome variable is not significant, and partial mediation is possible when the direct path between predictor and outcome variable remains significant. To test the mediating effect of openness and resistance in the relationship between innovative, collaborative, and traditional culture on employees' innovative behavior, the study adopted the procedures suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). Furthermore, bootstrapping technique with 10000 samples and 99% confidence interval was performed as a post-hoc analysis.

4.10 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the methodological procedures of the thesis. It provided a detailed description of the research design, approach, setting, data collection and procedures, measurement of variables, and data analysis method. The study adopted a quantitative research methodology to examine the predicted relationship between organizational cultures, employees' situation-based response, and innovative behavior. The main aim of this study is to review employee innovative performance in response to off-season. Unlike previous research, this study discussed issues such as seasonality, organizational cultures, and employee innovative behavior from non-western setting, specifically from the developing world context. Employees and supervisors in hotel were the primary targets of the study. The chapter elaborated on issues related to unit of analysis, time of horizon, survey design, sampling, conceptualization, operationalization, and data analysis methods. The study used a cross-

sectional survey analysis that made it possible for data to be collected at a single point in time, thus the analysis relied on single observation.

Based on the study's context, the measurement scale was adopted from previous studies, and some modifications were conducted on the original scale to suit the present study's context. Variables were conceptualized as per the direction of the study. For instance, variables such as innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture were defined based on their influence on employees' innovative behavior. Mediating variables (i.e., openness and resistance) were also explained as a situation-based response that influence employees' response to off-season. The outcome variable (i.e., innovative behavior) was defined as an intention to solve problems. In this way, such conduct is viewed as employees' intention to utilize various mechanisms to tackle off-season. For data analysis, the study used a two-step structural modelling analysis (i.e., measurement model and structural model). In addition, AMOS and SPSS version 25 were utilized for measurement and structural model and descriptive statistics analysis respectively.

CHAPTER FIVE - ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and results of the study. The chapter discusses issues concerning data screening, descriptive statistics, measurement and structural model analysis. The chapter begins by outlining issues of data screening such as handling missing values, outliers, and assessment of normality followed by presenting results of descriptive statistics. Measurement and structural model test analysis are then presented. The measurement model includes the result of confirmatory factor analysis along with factor loadings and model fit indices to contemplate appropriateness of the proposed model, validity and reliability concerns, are explicated. After the result of the measurement model, the chapter presents results derived from the structural model test. The structural model analysis presents findings of the hypothesized relationship among predictor variables (i.e. innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture), mediating variables (i.e. openness and employee resistance to change), and an outcome variable (i.e. employee innovative behavior).

5.2 Data screening

The collected data were first screened manually and incomplete questionnaires with more than 35 questions were discarded. To prevent bias, questionnaires with same answer for all questions were omitted. In addition, the data screening process addressed questionnaires with multiple answers for a single question. Consequently, 26 questionnaires were excluded from the subsequent data analysis. Thereafter, the collected surveys were manually coded into an excel spreadsheet and exported into SPSS for further statistical analysis. Before beginning the statistical analysis, the study examined further assumptions of multivariate data analysis such as missing, outliers, and assumptions of normality.

5.2.1 Handling missing data and outliers

As part of multivariate analysis, SEM-based studies execute a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), requiring a complete dataset with no missing values (Byrne, 2013). Thus, after the above-mentioned preliminary data screening processes, the researcher checked missing values for the collected 479 questionnaires. A total of 82 missing values were found. From these, 53 missing values were found in the demographic section and the remaining 29 were found in other variables (e.g., employees' resistance to change alone had 13 missing values). Due to respondents' sensitivity to disclose personal information, gender, age and income of the respondents resulted in higher missing values – that is, 20 (4%), 16 (3.3%) and 17 (3.5%) respectively. SPSS version 25 was used to test the randomness or non-randomness of missing values. The result indicates that the missing data were randomly distributed among employees in different hotels since the comparison between missing and non-missing values was not significant ($p > 0.05$). Thus, the missing data were considered as MCAR (Missing Completely at Random) because distribution of the missing data did not exhibit a pattern which means missing values of a variable are either unrelated or wholly unsystematic (Allison, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Pallant, 2011).

Various methods have been suggested to handle missing data. For example, MCAR permits a wide range of missing data handling methods; some of which include, expectation maximization (EM) approach, complete case approach, regression imputation, and mean substitution method. Complete case approach is known as list-wise deletion technique (McKnight et al., 2007), which refers to complete missing items with replaceable value, and even it supports data with sizeable procedures. However, this method is not applicable when the number of missing values is high. Regression imputation method can be applied based on calculating the missing values of other variables (Allison, 2003). Expectation maximization (EM) technique, known as 'Maximum Likelihood Expectation-Maximization (EM)

Imputation', refers to imputing the missing data with the most possible values. This method is applicable to generate standard errors with unbiased parameter estimates (Salkind & Rasmussen, 2007). The other method is the mean substitution method which is conducted by replacing the missing data with its intended mean value. Since each of the missing values accounted for less than 1% of the data, this thesis applied mean substitution method to handle MCAR data. For example, missing value for IC1 and TC2 were replaced by mean value of 4.9 and 3.1 respectively. Although mean substitution could be questionable because of occurrence of biases on variance/covariance estimates, the current study had a small percentage of missing data which is less than 10% of the total 479 questionnaires. In addition, missing values occurred in a random fashion with no concentration at a single item (Hair et al., 2006). Hence, the bias caused by mean substitution is minimal and has little effect on the data analysis.

Since outliers are the other main concern in multivariate data analysis process, the study examined the existence of outlier and their influence on the data analysis. Depending on their representative value, outliers can be beneficial at some point, but can also be problematic when they violate with research questions and objectives. Detecting outliers and making decision with regard to their feature may help researchers to alleviate problems during data analysis. Outliers are categorized into three: univariate, bivariate and multivariate outliers (Hair et al., 1998; Mazzocchi, 2008). Univariate outliers refer to identifying outer ranges from each variable. Bivariate outlier is assessed by using a scatter plot to detect outliers in each variable. Compared to univariate and bivariate outliers, identifying multivariate outlier is rigorous and, thus, affects several data screening-related issues such as homoscedasticity, linearity independence of error, and assumptions of normality.

The current study examined univariate and multivariate outliers by checking the standardized thresholds and Mahalanobis D^2 values respectively. In analyzing the univariate outliers, the study pursued the threshold assigned for standard scores within the range of 2.5 for small sample size and 4 for larger sample size (Hair et al., 2006). On this basis, the maximum standardized z-score is 2.9 exhibited only by cognitive resistance item number five (I do not believe that I could personally benefit from the change during off-season). Thus, the result indicates that all standardized z-scores were below 4, suggesting that there is no univariate outlier. With regard to multivariate outlier, Mahalanobis D^2 values is suggested to distinguish multivariate outliers (Hair et al., 2006), making it needful to measure the distance of each data points from its respective centroid. Here, the higher Mahalanobis D^2 value exhibits, the longer its distance with the multidimensional mean, resulting in an outlier. SPSS version 25 was used to identify multivariate outliers, and the statistical significance for chi-square distribution ($1 - \text{CDF.CHISQ}(\text{MAH } D^2, 4)$) was set at a threshold of 0.001. Based on the above procedures, the current study distinguished and removed 16 outliers out of the 495 cases. The final dataset was, thus, 479 cases.

5.2.2 Assessment of normality

Normality is the principal assumption for multivariate analysis. Because of this, it is not uncommon that assessment of normality is seen as a basic task for researchers before further statistical analysis, especially for parametric-based multivariate data analysis techniques such as regression, ANOVA, ANCOVA, MANOVA, and an independent sample T-test (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2006). In SEM-based studies, departure from normality mainly affects the chi-square statistics because of the influence of distributional features of data (Gerbing & Anderson, 1992). In the context of CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis), normality may inflate chi-square results and it causes bias in determining coefficient's significance (Curran, West, &

Finch, 1996). Hence, this thesis checked both univariate and multivariate normality before executing measurement and structural model analysis. To check for univariate normality, the standardized z-score value should be zero for both skewness and kurtosis; however, it is unlikely to obtain a zero value for skewness and kurtosis in real-world setting. Although there is no agreement yet on skewness and kurtosis values, the literature suggests values of 1.5 and 3 for skewness and kurtosis respectively (George & Mallery, 2010; Ryu, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Table 5.1 Descriptive statistics for variables in the survey

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	CR	Kurtosi	CR
IC1	479	1.00	7.00	4.91	1.71	-.705	-6.29	-.32	-1.50
IC2	479	1.00	7.00	4.89	1.68	-.767	-6.85	-.11	-.55
IC3	479	1.00	7.00	4.87	1.71	-.669	-5.97	-.27	-1.25
IC4	479	1.00	7.00	4.84	1.76	-.651	-5.81	-.37	-1.71
TC1	479	1.00	7.00	3.03	1.56	.54	-4.81	-.29	-2.51
TC2	479	1.00	7.00	3.11	1.56	.55	-5.92	-.40	-2.46
TC3	479	1.00	7.00	2.54	1.59	.86	-6.87	-.06	-.76
TC4	479	1.00	7.00	3.16	1.67	.42	-7.33	-.63	-.66
CC1	479	1.00	7.00	4.82	1.62	-.54	4.88	-.55	-1.34
CC2	479	1.00	7.00	5.09	1.61	-.66	4.93	-.54	-1.84
CC3	479	1.00	7.00	4.94	1.66	-.77	7.70	-.16	-.34
CC4	479	1.00	7.00	4.88	1.71	-.82	3.81	-.13	-2.88
OP1	479	1.00	7.00	5.53	1.41	-.97	-8.64	.57	2.48
OP2	479	1.00	7.00	5.56	1.47	-1.13	-10.06	.51	2.22
OP3	479	1.00	7.00	5.46	1.55	-1.33	-11.85	1.32	5.80
OP4	479	1.00	7.00	5.47	1.43	-1.01	-8.97	.60	2.59
OP5	479	1.00	7.00	5.49	1.41	-.98	-8.79	.45	1.96
OP6	479	1.00	7.00	5.43	1.41	-1.12	-9.97	1.08	4.74
OP7	479	1.00	7.00	5.43	1.38	-1.15	-10.27	1.20	5.27
OP8	479	1.00	7.00	5.30	1.45	-.97	-8.68	.64	2.80
AF1	479	1.00	7.00	2.78	1.95	.74	6.62	-.77	-3.46
AF2	479	1.00	7.00	2.31	1.76	1.21	10.76	.23	1.00
AF3	479	1.00	7.00	2.41	1.83	1.16	10.37	.13	.52
AF4	479	1.00	7.00	2.71	1.97	.87	7.75	-.57	-2.58
AF5	479	1.00	7.00	2.54	1.85	1.02	9.08	-.15	-.75
BHR1	479	1.00	7.00	2.38	1.82	1.17	10.46	.09	.38
BHR2	479	1.00	7.00	2.46	1.84	1.12	10.03	.06	.21
BHR3	479	1.00	7.00	2.41	1.74	1.22	10.86	.55	2.41
BHR4	479	1.00	7.00	2.38	1.66	1.13	10.07	.37	1.59
BHR5	479	1.00	7.00	2.29	1.59	1.19	10.60	.54	2.35
COG1	479	1.00	7.00	2.56	1.74	.91	8.07	-.29	-1.35
COG2	479	1.00	7.00	2.31	1.73	1.24	11.05	.48	2.06
COG3	479	1.00	7.00	2.35	1.64	1.21	10.79	.64	2.77
COG4	479	1.00	7.00	2.28	1.41	1.12	9.98	.80	3.48
COG5	479	1.00	7.00	2.41	1.55	1.15	10.32	.79	3.46
EIB1	479	1.00	7.00	5.47	1.39	-.88	-7.86	.34	1.46
EIB2	479	1.00	7.00	5.43	1.41	-1.01	-8.97	.74	3.22
EIB3	479	1.00	7.00	5.41	1.51	-1.09	-9.71	.85	3.72
EIB4	479	1.00	7.00	5.49	1.47	-1.11	-9.95	.87	3.79
EIB5	479	1.00	7.00	5.34	1.46	-.91	-8.12	.41	1.77
EIB6	479	1.00	7.00	5.35	1.45	-.95	-8.53	.55	2.38
EIB7	479	1.00	7.00	5.44	1.41	-1.06	-9.48	1.06	4.63
EIB8	479	1.00	7.00	5.53	1.42	-1.19	-10.62	1.22	5.34
EIB9	479	1.00	7.00	5.45	1.43	-1.04	-9.31	.79	3.46

Note: IC = Innovative culture; TC = Traditional culture; CC = Collaborative culture; OP = Openness; AF = Affective; BHR = Behavioral; COG = Cognitive; EIB = Employee innovative behavior; CR: Critical ratio.

Table 5.1 indicates that the univariate normality of the survey did not show values above 1.5 and below -1.5 for skewness, and below 3 for kurtosis. Based on the above-mentioned rule of thumb values, the study's data did not violate univariate normality. However, the multivariate normality was not met because of certain reasons: 1) as Kline (2005) mention that multivariate non-normality can be mostly occurred in empirical social science studies with higher sample size; 2) based on central limit theorem, larger sample size greater than 300 can be considered as normally distributed even if the population's score is far from normality, given that the parameter estimates and standard errors were unbiased (Field, 2013).

5.3 Profile of the respondents

SPSS version 25 was used to analyze the profile of respondents. Table 5.2 presents the profile of employees (N = 479) which includes demographic information such as age, gender, and education status as well as other information such as income level, position, and experiences.

Table 5.2 Profile of the respondents (n=479)

Demographic Variables	Value	Number of Responses	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	206	43
	Female	253	52.8
	Missing values	20	4.2
Age	18 – 25	133	27.7
	26 – 35	286	59.7
	36 – 45	35	7.3
	> 46	9	1.9
	Missing values	16	3.4
Education	Primary/elementary School	3	0.6
	Secondary/high school	28	5.8
	College/University	397	82.7
	Postgraduate	43	9
	Missing values	8	1.9
City/Town	Addis Ababa	26	54.2
	Bahir Dar	7	14.5
	Hawassa	9	18.8
	Debrezeit	6	12.5
Salary (ETB)	≤ 2000	82	17.1
	2001 – 2999	151	31.5
	3000 – 3999	137	28.6
	4000 – 4999	55	11.5
	≥ 5000 ETB	37	7.8
	Missing values	17	3.5
Position	Sales and marketing	351	73.3
	Airport agent	84	17.5
	Guest relation	40	8.4
	Missing values	4	0.8
Years' work in the current hotel	< 1 year	28	5.8
	1-3 years	307	64.1
	4-7 years	69	14.4
	8 – 10 years	40	8.3
	> 10 years	33	6.9
	Missing values	2	0.5
Overall industry experience	1-3 years	273	56.9
	4-7 years	159	33.1
	8-10 years	30	6.3
	> 10 years	16	3.4
	Missing values	1	0.4

As presented in Table 5.2, 43% and 52.8% of the respondents were male and female, respectively while 4.2% of employees' gender profile were unknown. The ratio of female

recorded higher values since they have been more engaged in sales and market-related positions in hotel. With regard to respondents' age, 27.7% of respondents were aged from 18 to 25. More than half (59.7%) of the respondents' age had fall in between 26 and 35. Employees aged between 36 and 45 accounts 7.3 % of the total respondents; Senior employees whose age greater than 46 occupy 1.9 %, and the remaining 3.13% of employees' age is unknown. The survey result showed that the majority of respondents had attained College/University education (82.7%), including hotel and tourism catering institutions and vocational colleges. And the rest of the respondents' accounts for less than 10% of the data. For instance, postgraduate and secondary/high school level occupy 9% and 5.8% respectively. The remaining 1.6% employees' education status is unknown. Furthermore, information regarding monthly salary exhibits the following: 2001 to 2999 ETB (31.5%), 3000 – 3999 ETB (28.6%), less than 2000 ETB (17.1%), 4000 and 4999 ETB (11.5%), and above 5000 ETB (7.7%).

The result indicates that the main organizational positions assigned employees are sales and marketing (351, 73.3%), airport agent (84, 17.5%), and guest relation (44, 9.2%). In addition, as mentioned in 'controlled variable section', employee-supervisor relationship length was considered to examine employees' innovative behavior. Thus, employees experience in a particular hotel as well as in the industry in general were surveyed. On this basis, the majority of employees (307, 64.1%) have been working in the hotel from 1 to 3 years. The remaining employees had work experience of 4-7 years (69, 14.4%), 8-10 years (40, 8.3%), less than a year (28, 5.8%), and more than 10 years (35, 7.3%). Respondents' overall industry experiences fell under 1-3 years (273, 56.9%), 4-7 years (159, 33.1%), 8-10 years (30, 6.3%), and more than 10 years (17, 3.5%).

5.4 Measurement model

Testing the measurement model is imperative to determine whether the intended constructs could be contemplated to measure. As suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), this thesis followed a two-step strategy, namely measurement and structural model. Before proceeding to test the causal relationship i.e. structural model test, CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) were conducted to assure validation and elegance of the constructs. CFA is an applicable measurement model test for theoretically supported measurement scales, and it is recommended for rigorous psychometric measurement examination (Byrne, 2013; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Several goodness-of-fit indices resulted from CFA could indicate the robustness of a particular measurement model. The goodness-of-fit indices are categorized into three: absolute, incremental, and parsimonious fit indices (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; Mulaik et al., 1989). Absolute fit indices are used to determine the entire model based on sampling and residual approximation by predicting the observed covariance matrix. Some of the main absolute fit indices are chi-square, GFI (Goodness-of-fit-model) and RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error Approximation). The chi-square test is employed to evaluate the hypothesized model with observed data. Hair et al. (1998) noted that chi-square is sensitive to sample size, and the higher Chi-square result leads to a higher chance of rejecting both the null hypothesis and the model. Other absolute fit measures are taken into account as a criterion to assess the model fit (Byrne, 1998), including GFI (Goodness-of-fit index), RMSR (Root Mean Square Residual) and RMSEA (Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation). Relative fit indices are used to compare the proposed model with that of a null model. Some of the main relative fit indices are AGFI (Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index), TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index), NFI (Normed Fit Index), and CFI (Comparative Fit Index). NNFI measures a parsimony to assess the degree of freedom across the proposed and null model. Fit indices such as GFI, TLI, NNFI, and CFI should be above 0.9 to indicate that the observed model fits the actual

population (< 0.08 indicates acceptable fit) (Byrne, 1998, 2013; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The acceptable range for RMSEA is between 0.05 to 0.08, but there is a mediocre and poor fit when falls in between 0.08 and 0.1, respectively (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999; Hair et al., 2009; Hoe, 2008).

Given this percept, this study conducted Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) by using AMOS 25.0 to measure all sample data ($N = 479$) which includes six constructs such as innovative culture, traditional culture, collaborative culture, openness, resistance, and employee innovative behavior. Table 5.3 presents factor loadings and T-values for all constructs. The results indicate that factor loading for all constructs, including first-order factors of ‘employee resistance to change’ namely ‘affective resistance’, ‘behavioral resistance’, and ‘cognitive resistance’, were higher than the cut-off point value of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2006), except the fifth items of traditional culture construct. Moreover, the t-values were above the threshold of 1.96 with 95 % confidence interval. This implies that limits and factors are significantly related (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003), and generally the result suggested that all items could represent their intended constructs and provide a support to ensure validity of the proposed framework.

Table 5.3 Result of confirmatory factor analysis

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor Loadings</i>	<i>T-value</i>	<i>AVE</i>	<i>Composite reliability</i>
Innovative Culture				
In our company, innovative behavior is promoted in marketing activities during off-season	.790	19.75	0.67	0.89
In our company, leaders respect our creative efforts in off-season	.836	NA		
In our company, the reward system encourages us to implement new marketing techniques during off-season	.846	21.74		
Our company recognize employees who utilize new thinking in their marketing tasks during off-season	.818	20.76		
Traditional Culture				
In our hotel, we believed that managers decisions should be obeyed at all-time including off-season times	.812	19.40	0.63	0.87
In our hotel, we perceived that to pursue seniors' track is the best way to avoid mistakes during off-season	.826	NA		
In our hotel, females are viewed as a subordinate	.761	17.94		
In our hotel, seniors could compromise our direction when we are in dispute on off-season marketing tasks	.783	18.58		
Collaborative Culture				
In our organization, we support each other when our colleague fails in his/her marketing task during off-season	.831	23.06	0.72	0.91
In our organization, we encourage each other when someone is under stress in times of off-season	.835	23.27		
In our organization, we share our marketing experience each other during off-season	.872	NA		
In our organization, we communicate each other before practising actions that affect each of us during off-season	.863	24.57		
Openness				
In my workplace, I am ready to put effort for change during off-season	.855	23.65	0.71	0.95
In my work environment, I engage in the proposed change during off-season	.889	25.14		
In my workplace, I look forward to changing my role that brought by the implementation of work teams in response to the off-season	.868	24.27		
In my work environment, I am quite eager to view alternative ways in times of off-season	.855	23.64		
In my workplace, I perceive co-workers' achievements as positive implication to accomplish my task during off-season	.797	21.14		
In my workplace, I believe that it is better to experience new procedures to solve problems during off-season	.832	NA		
In my work environment, I perceive that new practices will improve my usual work procedure in times of off-season	.853	23.40		
In my work environment, I viewed that new methods will positively contribute to my work performance during off-season	.815	21.90		
Employee innovative behavior				

He/She is initiated to generate genuine solution to attract guests during off-season	.721	15.96	0.66	0.91
He/She intends to search out new marketing techniques during off-season	.752	NA		
He/She intends to generate original solutions for problems during off-season	.767	17.10		
He/She is willing to mobilize innovative ideas during off-season	.743	16.48		
He/She is acquiring approval to implement innovative ideas during off-season	.667	14.64		
He/She encourages organizational members to be enthusiastic about innovative ideas during off-season	.647	14.16		
He/She transforms innovative ideas into useful application during off-season	.764	17.01		
He/She is initiated to introduce innovative ideas into the work environment in a systematic way during off-season	.786	17.56		
He/She is ready to evaluate the utility of innovative ideas during off-season	.759	16.88		
Resistance				
Affective	.95	13.72	.90	.96
In my workplace, I am afraid to change my usual work process during off-season	.53	11.01		
In my workplace, I had a bad feeling about change during off-	.76	NA		
In my workplace, I am not quite excited about change during off-season	.58	12.36		
In my work setting, I feel upset if I directed to change my usual marketing practices during off-season	.57	NA		
In my work environment, I stressed to follow new marketing tactics during off-season	.65	14.07		
Behavioral	.98	NA		
In my workplace, I like to obstruct the applicability of the proposed change during off-season	.64	12.60		
In my workplace, I protested against progressive conditions during off-season	.66	NA		
In my work environment, I complained about the change with my colleagues during off-season	.78	14.93		
In my workplace, I presented my objections toward new ways of marketing strategies that I have to follow during off-season	.79	15.22		
In my workplace, I do not participate in talk about the importance of change to others during off-season	.76	14.65		
Cognitive	.94	10.54		
In my work environment, I believed that change would harm the way things are done in the hotel during off-season	.67	11.04		
In my work environment, I thought that it is odd to modify our marketing tactics in response to the off-season	.78	12.04		

In my work environment, I believe that to pursue new ways make my job harder during off-season	.82	12.38		
In my workplace, I did not believe that changing the way of marketing would benefit the hotel during off-season	.55	NA		
In my workplace, I did not believe that I could personally benefit from the change executed during off-season	.67	16.27		

*Not Available

In the present study, the chi-square value shows a higher result which is equal to 1148.2 ($df = 882, p = .000$). However, relative chi-square (chi-square fit index divided by degrees of freedom) is 1.3, indicating that there is less discrepancy between the hypothetical model and the sample data (Calantone, Cavusgil, & Zhao, 2002). Besides, higher χ^2 might be obtainable in a larger sample size or if the observable variables are unequally distributed. In summary, the proposed model exhibited a good fit statistic: $\chi^2 = 1121.22, df = 881, p < .01$, *Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .024, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = .90, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = .98, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .98*.

5.4.1 Validity

Apart from content, face, and nomological validity checked earlier during the model development and pilot test, the model was subjected to construct validity i.e. convergent and discriminant validity. Table 5.3 shows that the proposed six-factor model achieves convergent validity with AVE's (Average Variance Extracted) of greater than 0.5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). This suggests that there is a relationship among measurement indicators in their respective constructs. In addition, the composite reliability of all constructs was greater than 0.7 which recorded strong reliability among constructs. To assess the discriminant validity, the proposed six-factor model was compared with alternative model i.e. one and five-factor model. The five-factor model was tested by combining innovative and collaborative culture into one factor since the size of the correlation is high between the two constructs ($r = .44$), while the other four

constructs remained detached. The model fit indices exhibit an acceptable range for the five-factor model ($\chi^2 = 2238.93$, $df = 889$, $p < .01$, $RMSEA = 0.056$, $GFI = 0.79$, $TLI = 0.89$, $CFI = 0.9$). Although the CFI and RMSEA fell under an acceptable range, the chi-square statistics, TLI, and GFI values resulted in poorer fit. On the other hand, the one factor model was tested by merging all indicators under a single grand latent factor and it yielded a poorer fit as compared to six and five-factor model ($\chi^2 = 10740.5$, $df = 899$, $p < .01$, $RMSEA = 0.15$, $GFI = 0.26$, $TLI = 0.28$, $CFI = 0.26$). After examining one, six, and five-factor models, the hypothesized six-factor model achieved a better fit than other alternative models ($\chi^2 = 1148.2$, $df = 882$, $p < .01$, $RMSEA = 0.025$, $GFI = 0.90$, $TLI = 0.97$, $CFI = 0.98$). The chi-square result for the three models shows a significant difference, and the proposed six-factor model resulted in lower chi-square value than the other alternative models. Considering goodness-of-fit indices as well as the compatible relationship among parameters estimation and theoretical relationships (Hair et al., 2006), the proposed model was accepted as a preferred model for further structural model testing. In addition, as reported in Table 5.4, the square root of AVE was higher than the construct correlations. This suggests that the proposed framework can support the proof for discriminant validity since AVE is greater than the squared correlation (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5.4 Mean, standard deviations and correlations of variables

Variable	Mean	SD	IC	TC	CC	OP	RES	EIB
1. Innovative culture	4.91	1.51	0.5					
2. Traditional culture	2.96	1.36	-.47**	0.4				
3. Collaborative culture	4.93	1.47	.44**	-.29**	0.51			
4. Openness	5.46	1.24	.49**	-.35**	.38**	0.50		
5. Employees resistance to change	2.44	1.22	-.28**	.30**	-.23**	-.38**	0.84	
6. Employee innovative behavior	5.43	1.10	.40**	-.33**	.34**	.43**	-.34**	0.44

Note: 1. Boldfaced diagonal values represent the Square root of AVE; Off-diagonal numbers represent correlation values.

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

Table 5.4 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations of all constructs. As expected, the mediating variables – openness and resistance – have different relationship with predictors (i.e. innovative culture, collaborative culture, and traditional culture) and outcome variable (employee innovative behavior). Table 5.4 presents that employee openness was positively related to innovative culture ($r = .49, p < .01$), collaborative culture ($r = .38, p < .01$), and employee innovative behavior ($r = .43, p < .01$). However, it was negatively related to traditional culture ($r = -.35, p < .01$) and resistance ($r = -.38, p < .01$). Conversely, resistance was positively related to traditional culture ($r = .30, p < .01$) but negatively related to innovative culture ($r = -.28, p < .01$), collaborative culture ($r = -.23, p < .01$), openness ($r = -.38, p < .05$), and employee innovative behavior ($r = -.34, p < .01$). The independent variables also exhibited different association with each other and with an outcome variable. In this regard, innovative culture was positively related to collaborative culture ($r = .44, p < .01$) and employee innovative behavior ($r = .40, p < .01$), but negatively related to traditional culture ($r = -.33, p < .01$) and resistance ($r = -.28, p < .01$). Collaborative culture was positively related to employee innovative behavior ($r = .34, p < .01$), but negatively linked to traditional culture ($r = -.29, p < .01$). As expected, traditional culture was negatively related to employee innovative behavior ($r = -.33, p < .01$).

5.4.2 Common method bias

Procedural and statistical remedies were applied to examine common method bias. Procedurally, multiple data source is one of the advantages of this study, minimizing occurrence of common method variance and response bias. As suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003), first, a survey was conducted using several hotels across four regions famous for hotel development and concentration in the country. Second, the data were collected from two sources: employees and their immediate supervisors. Supervisors rated employees' innovative

behavior confidentially while employees rated other constructs related to their psychological intents and less sensitive to social desirability issues. Although it is difficult and somehow conservative to observe innovative behavior of all employees, supervisors rating is still preferable to employees' self-rating, from the social desirability perspectives (Conway & Lance, 2010). To implement this, the researcher contacted the human resource managers of participated hotels to facilitate supervisor rating and their willingness in advance.

Statistically, evaluation of Harman's one-factor, intra-class correlation coefficient, and confirmatory factor analysis were executed to assess whether common method bias was found in the dataset. First, Harman's (1976) one-factor test was performed after data collection, and the result showed that the maximum variance explained by a single factor is 31.2 % which is below 50% of the total variance explained. Second, the intra-class correlation coefficient of more than 0.7 revealed that the intended constructs exhibited higher interrater reliability, thereby indicating that common method bias is not a problem (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Lastly, as suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986), a single factor confirmatory factor analysis was tested to detect common method variance by assuming same factor loading will be produced if there is a presence of common method variance in the dataset. The single factor model showed a poorer fit ($\chi^2 = 7650.18$, $df = 900$, $GFI = 0.40$, $CFI = 0.50$, $TLI = 0.47$, $RMSEA = 0.12$) with different factor loadings. As a result, the collected data were not influenced by common method bias.

5.5 Structural model assessment

Result derived from structural equation model indicates that the proposed hypothesized model fell under an acceptable range of model fit indices ($\chi^2 = 1150.33$, $p < .001$, $df = 881$, $RMSEA = .024$, $CFI = .98$, $GFI = .90$, $TLI = .98$). Furthermore, as exhibited by Figure 5.1, 5.2,

5.3, and 5.4, hypothesis 1a predicted that innovative culture had positive coefficient and statistically significant relationship with openness ($\beta = .37, p < .01$), and significant so hypothesis 1a was supported. The actual data are also consistent with hypothesis 1b, proposing that innovative culture was negatively related to employees' resistance to change ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$). As shown in Figure 5.1, traditional culture was positively related to employees with resistance behavior ($\beta = .19, p < .01$); hence, hypothesis 2a was confirmed. Traditional culture had a negative coefficient and a statistically significant relationship with employee's openness ($\beta = -.14, p < .01$); thus, hypothesis 2b was supported. The result also confirmed hypothesis 3a which stated that collaborative culture had a positive coefficient and statistically significant relationship with openness ($\beta = .18, p < .01$). Conversely, collaborative culture was negatively related to individuals with resistance behavior ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$); hence, hypothesis 3b was suggested.

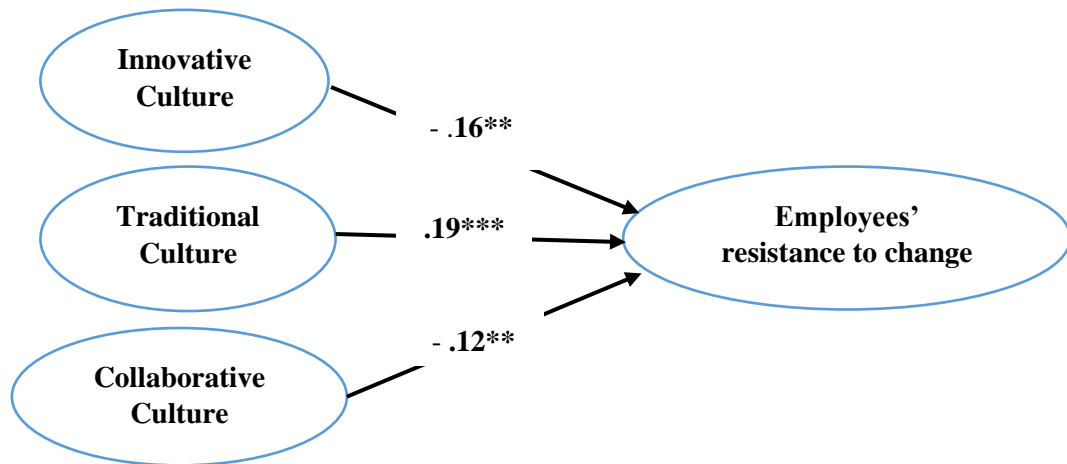


Figure 5.1 Predictor and mediating variables for Employees' Resistance to Change

Note: * $p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$.

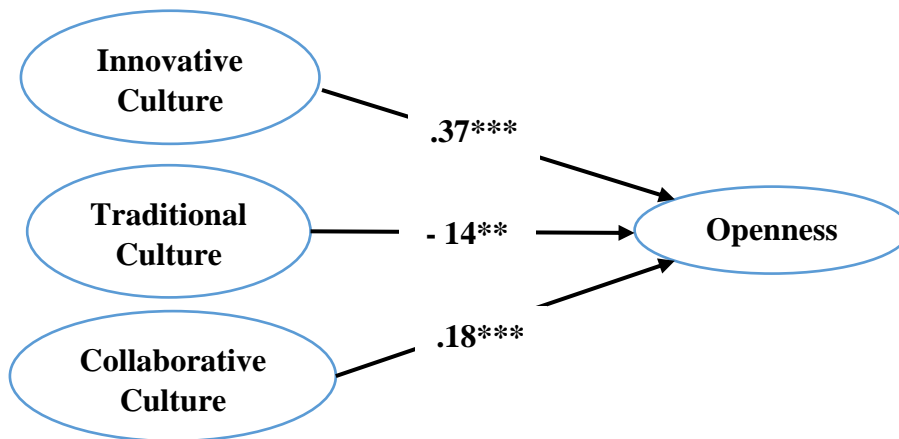


Figure 5.2 Predictor and mediating variables for Openness
 Note: * $p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$

Figure 5.3 shows the direct effect of innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture on employee innovative behavior. As expected, the result supported the predicted positive effects of innovative culture on employee innovative behavior ($\beta = .13, p < .05$); thus, hypothesis 4a was supported. Contrary to this, the finding indicated that traditional culture was negatively related to employee innovative behavior ($\beta = -.10, p < .1$); therefore, hypothesis 4b was confirmed. The finding confirmed the positive relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior ($\beta = .12, p < .05$); hence, hypothesis 4c was supported. Also, Figure 5.4 exhibits that employee's openness was positively related to employee innovative behavior ($\beta = .29, p < .01$); thus, hypothesis 5a was supported. The finding confirmed hypothesis 5b that employee resistance to change is negatively related to innovative behavior ($\beta = -.16, p < .01$).

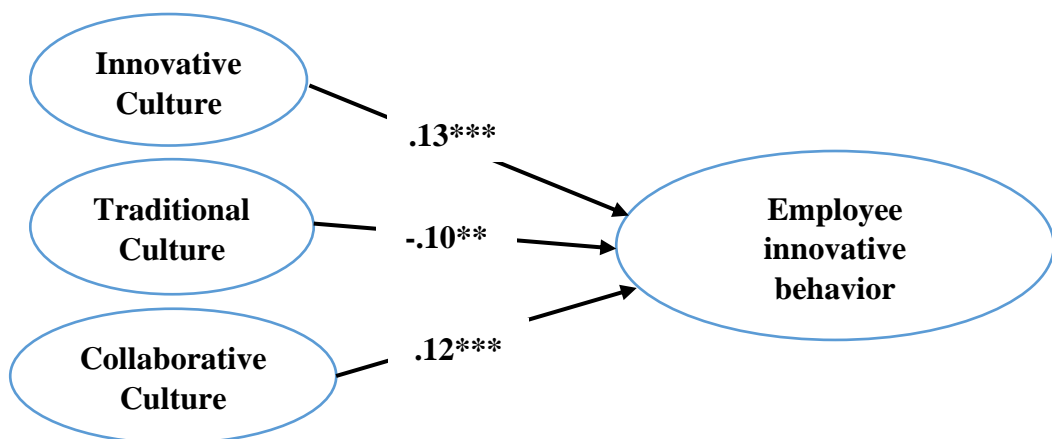


Figure 5.3 Organizational cultures and Employee Innovative Behavior

Note: * $p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$

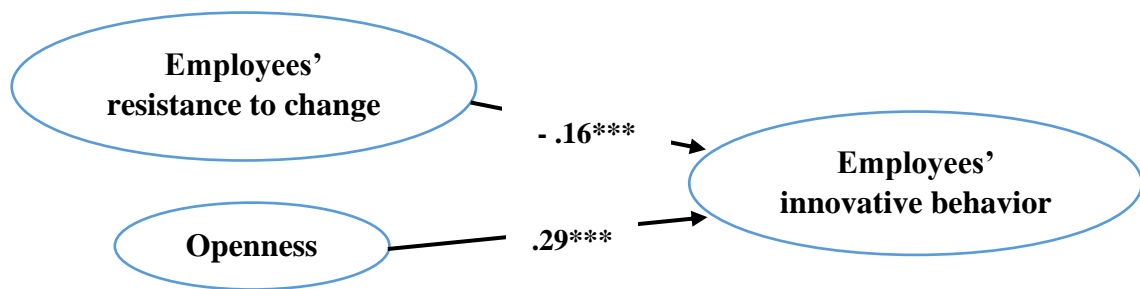


Figure 5.4 Employee Resistance to Change, Openness and Employee Innovative Behavior

Note: * $p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$

5.5.1 Assessment of the mediating effects

A number of studies have utilized Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure to test mediation effects, but further verification for the identified partial or full mediation effect is necessary. Thus, performing bootstrapping is recommended to ensure validity generalization and to generate precise estimation for standard error, correlation coefficient, and confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013; Switzer, Paese, & Drasgow, 1992; Taylor, MacKinnon, & Tein, 2008). Drawing on such approaches, this thesis tested the mediation effect by using Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure followed by bootstrapping method. In accordance with Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures, this thesis pursued a complete mediating relationship by considering: a) a significant coefficient should be attained in the relationship between predictor variables (i.e. innovative, traditional, and collaborative cultures) and outcome variable i.e. employee innovative behavior; b) a significant coefficient should be obtained in the relationship between predictor variables (i.e. innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture) and the proposed mediators (i.e. openness and employees' resistance to change); and c) the direct effect of independent variables (i.e. innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture) on

the outcome variable (employee innovative behavior) should obtain an insignificant result in the improved model (hypothesis 4) with the inclusion of proposed mediating variables.

On a separate note, a partial mediating effect will be achieved if a significant coefficient for the direct effect with mediators is smaller than the model without the mediators. Such propositions were supported by Taylor et al. (2008) when confidence interval was used to test the mediating effect. Consistent with this, hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c were supported – that is, employee openness mediates the relationship between innovative, traditional, and collaborative cultures and employee innovative behavior. The findings confirmed hypotheses 7a, 7b, and 7c that employee resistance to change mediates the impacts of innovative, traditional, and collaborative cultures on employee innovative behavior. Considering the above requirements, Figure 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 exhibits a significant result in the relationship between independent, dependent, and mediating variables, in which criteria (a) and (b) were supported. To further examine criteria (c), Table 5.5 presents an alternative model by including additional direct paths between innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior.

Table 5.5
Summary of model fit indices

Model Test	χ^2	df	CFI	GFI	TLI	RMSEA
1. Independent model	14348.18	946				
2. Measurement model	1121.22	881	.98	.90	.98	.024
3. Hypothesized model (Figure 1)	1150.33	881	.98	.90	.97	.025
4. Alternative model: additional direct paths from innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture to employee innovative behavior	1177.11	885	.97	.89	.97	.027

χ^2 values for the measurement and structural models are significant at $p < .01$.

The result demonstrates that the hypothesized model is better than the alternative model. Hence, X^2 statistics reveals the discrepancy between model 3 (hypothesized) and model

4 (alternative), which was insignificant ($X^2 = 27$, n.s.). However, there is no difference in other model fit indices except *RMSEA* and *GFI*. The result indicates that a significant association was exhibited between predictor variables (innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture) and outcome variable (employee innovative behavior) after inserting mediating variables (openness and employees' resistance to change). Hence, the study found that openness and employee resistance to change partially mediates the effect of innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture on employee innovative behavior. Figure 5.4 indicates the direct relationship between predictor variables (i.e. innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture) and outcome variable (i.e. employee innovative behavior) was significant.

For an auxiliary mediation analysis, as suggested by Taylor's et al. (2008), the researcher performed percentile bootstrapping by utilizing 10000 bootstrap sample with 99% confidence interval to further confirm the mediating effects of openness and employees' resistance to change, and the indirect effect of innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture on employee innovative behavior. Thereafter, Hayes's (2013) procedures were pursued to examine the confidence interval for lower and upper bounds in order to assess whether the indirect effects of openness and resistance were significant.

Table 5.6 Estimated structural model

Hypothesized Paths	Standardized estimates	T-values	
Innovative culture → openness	.37***	6.43	
Innovative culture → employee resistance to change	-.16**	-2.51	
Traditional culture → employee resistance to change	.19***	3.23	
Traditional culture → openness	-.14**	-2.63	
Collaborative culture → openness	.18***	3.68	
Collaborative culture → employee resistance to change	-.12**	-2.22	
Innovative culture → employee innovative behavior	.13**	2.01	
Traditional culture → employee innovative behavior	-.10*	-1.87	
Collaborative culture → employee innovative behavior	.12**	2.35	
Openness → employee innovative behavior	.29***	5.53	
Employee resistance to change → employee innovative behavior	-.16***	-3.39	
Indirect effects	Standardized Estimates	Standardized Error	99% Bias Corrected Confidence Interval
Innovative culture → Openness → employee innovative behavior	.083***	.026	[.040, .145]
Traditional culture → Openness → employee innovative behavior	-.033**	.018	[-.079, -.005]
Collaborative culture → Openness → employee innovative behavior	.039**	.015	[.016, .076]
Innovative culture → employees' resistance to change → employee innovative behavior	.019**	.014	[.000, .053]
Traditional culture → employees' resistance to change → employee innovative behavior	-.025**	.014	[-.057, -.003]
Collaborative culture → employees' resistance to change → employee innovative behavior	.014**	.010	[.000, .040]

Note:

- *“Innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture → Openness → employee innovative behavior” – means the mediating role of openness between innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior.*
- *“Innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture → employees' resistance to change → employee innovative behavior” – means the mediating role of employee resistance to change on the relationship between innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior.*
- *** $p < .01$. ** $p < .05$, * $p < .1$

As shown in Table 5.6, the test result confirmed that openness has a significant and positive mediating effect between innovative and employee innovative behavior (indirect effect = .083, $p < .05$, 99% BCaCI [.040, .150]), and between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior (indirect effect = .039, $p < 0.05$, 99% BCaCI [.016, .076]). As predicted, openness negatively mediates the relationship between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior (indirect effect = -.033, $p < 0.05$, 99% BCaCI [-.079, -.005]). On a separate note, the bootstrap test confirmed the negative and significant mediating role of employees' resistance to change between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior (indirect effect = - 0.025, $p < 0.001$, 99% BCaCI [-.063, -.005]). However, the bootstrap test reveals that employee resistance to change did not mediate the impact of innovative culture on employee innovative behavior (indirect effect = 0.19, $p < 0.05$, 99% BCaCI [.000, .053]), and it also did not mediate the relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior (indirect effect = 0.14, $p < 0.05$, 99% BCaCI [.000, .040]).

5.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on analysis and results of the thesis. The chapter presented multivariate data analysis methods that were used to examine the effect of organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior in their response to off-season in hotel setting. The chapter discussed the data screening, descriptive statistics, measurement model, and structural model analysis. The data screening process was executed incompatible with assumption for multivariate data analysis like handling missing values, normality, and outliers. Thereafter, descriptive statistics were used to present the profile of respondents, including demographic profiles i.e. age, gender, and education status as well as experience, organizational position, and their hotel locations. A two-step structural equation modelling technique was pursued (i.e. confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural model) to examine the proposed

hypothesized model and relationship among constructs. The measurement model executed by CFA indicates that the hypothesized model resulted in good fit, and it proved construct validity concerns (i.e. convergent and discriminant validity). Table 5.7 summarizes the results of the structural equation model analysis, which support the proposed hypotheses.

Table 5.7 Summary of hypotheses testing

Hypothesis	Results
Hypothesis 1a: Innovative culture is positively related to openness in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 1b: Innovative culture is negatively related to resistance in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 2a: Traditional culture is positively related to resistance in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 2b: Traditional culture is negatively related to openness in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 3a: Collaborative culture is positively related to openness in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 3b: Collaborative culture is negatively related to resistance in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 4a: Innovative culture is positively related to employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 4b: Traditional culture is negatively related to employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 4c: Collaborative culture is positively related to employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 5a: Employee openness is positively related to innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 5b: Employee resistance to change is negatively related to innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 6a: the mediating effect of openness in between innovative culture on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 6b: the mediating effect of openness in between traditional culture on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 6c: the mediating effect of openness in between collaborative culture on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 7a: the mediating effect of employee resistance to change in between innovative culture on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Not Supported (by bootstrap test)
Hypothesis 7b: the mediating effect of employee resistance to change in between traditional culture on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Supported
Hypothesis 7c: the mediating effect of employee resistance to change in between collaborative culture on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season	Not Supported (by bootstrap test)

CHAPTER SIX - DISCUSSIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

6.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter focuses on interpretation of the results of the study presented in chapter five. The chapter describes how the objectives and findings of the study are compatible with previous studies. The chapter begins by assessing the overall research model followed by independent explanation of the thesis's objectives. The relationship among constructs such as innovative, traditional, and collaborative cultures (predictor variables), employees' openness and resistance to change (mediating variables), and employee innovative behavior (outcome variable) are explicated. Furthermore, the chapter presents the theoretical and practical contributions of the study. Empirical findings, integration of theories i.e. approach-avoidance and regulatory focus, and the study's framework, are the main theoretical basis of the thesis. The chapter gives practical insights into how hotel managers, owners, and investors as well as policymakers can manage seasonality by considering employee innovative behavior in the context of different types of organizational cultures and employees' personal and psychological intents.

6.2 Assessment of the research model

This study aims to fill research gaps related to little research on seasonality and response to it in developing economies, limited theoretical and conceptual development, and the need to examine innovative behavior from several cultural and service sector settings. Based on a comprehensive literature review and utilizing the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, this study develops a framework to correlate associations among organizational cultures, employees' openness, resistance to change, and innovative behavior.

The study adopted measurement items from previous studies based on validity and reliability assumptions as well as adaptability of items in several cultural contexts.

The results of confirmatory factor and structural model analysis indicated that the model fit supports both measurement and structural model tests. The model fit was also supported by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), validity and reliability since the intended model achieved thresholds for convergent and discriminant validity, and composite reliability. In addition, the model met assumptions for common method bias issues. In general, the CFA's result indicated that the measurement model was compatible with the collated sample data. The structural model test results showed that innovative and collaborative culture were positively related to employee's openness, while traditional culture was found to be negatively associated to employee's openness in response to off-season. Employees' resistance to change appeared to have a negative link with innovative and collaborative cultures. However, resistance to change was found to be positively related to traditional organizational culture. The findings supported the hypothesis that employee openness mediates the impact of innovative, traditional, and collaborative cultures on innovative behavior in response to off-season. On the other hand, employee resistance to change mediates the impact of traditional culture on employee innovative behavior. The bootstrap test did not confirm the mediating role of employee resistance to change on the impact of innovative and collaborative cultures on employee innovative behavior even though the Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure supported such mediating effect.

6.3 Study objective 1: Organizational cultures on employees' openness and resistance to change in response to off-season

The results of this study supported the influence of innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational cultures on employees' situation-based response i.e. openness and

resistance to change. The finding confirmed hypothesis 1a that innovative culture is positively related to employee openness. Previous studies reveal that a management system that promotes proliferation of new and alternative ideas and procedures has high compatibility with individuals' openness. For example, based on public and private organizations in South Korea, Jun and Park (2014) found that employee openness along with expectation and performance could strengthen organizations attempt toward innovation. Similarly, various studies have asserted that innovative organizational culture is congruent with that of employees' openness since such culture is favorable to exercise new ideas and techniques (Brettel & Cleven, 2011; Hult et al., 2004; Jun & Park, 2014; Laursen & Salter, 2014). Other studies based on hotel setting associate employees' openness with a range of positive attributes such as conducive work environment and social responsibility (Bellou, Stylos, & Rahimi, 2018), cultural adaptation (Kenesei & Stier, 2017), and reduction of job burnout (Kim, Shin, & Umbreit, 2007).

Supporting hypothesis 1b, the findings confirmed that innovative organizational culture is negatively related to employee resistance to change. A few studies have argued that employee resistance inhibits organizational innovative culture (Carson & Griffeth, 1990; Madrid-Guijarro et al., 2009; Zwick, 2002). Similarly, in their work on hotels' context in UAE (United Arab Emirates), Beshr and Hossan (2018) argued that employee resistance to change does not correlate with hotel's innovative approach. Supporting this view, empirical studies conducted in hotel context found that employees' resistance to change weaken hotel's attempt toward technological (Okumus, Bilgihan, Ozturk, & Zhao, 2017), e-procurement (Au, Ho, & Law, 2014) adoption and adaptation. This suggests that innovative culture may not be compatible with employees who exhibit higher tendency to resist change. Thus, the finding confirmed that innovative culture is negatively related to employee resistance to change in response to off-season.

Traditional organisational culture is more compatible with resistance to change. Hence the result confirmed hypothesis 2a that traditional culture is positively related to employee resistance to change in response to off season. Employee resistance to change nurtures fear, rigidity, anxiety, accelerates risk aversion, afraid of changes including work environment which promote change (Ford et al., 2008; Piderit, 2000). A number of studies have shown that employees' resistance to change arises not only from inner intention, but also from organizational culture (Ford et al., 2002; Furst & Cable, 2008; Mdletye et al., 2014). Hence, employee resistance to change is not only a psychological intent but can also be stimulated by organizational cultures. Thus, employee resistance to change is agreeable with traditional organizational culture. Organizations that pursued traditional culture generally practice a non-participatory work environment and stagnant bureaucracy (Ding & Akhtar 2001; Wei, Liu, & Herndon, 2011) that promotes restrictive work behaviors. Similarly, in hotel setting, research found that employee resistance to change directs employees to execute a vertical chain of command, and to follow organizational principles and procedures (Hon et al., 2014). Consistent with the findings, the current study also asserts that traditional organizational culture encourages employee resistive behavior in response to off-season.

Unlike employee resistance to change, the finding supported hypothesis 2b that traditional culture is negatively related to employee openness. Previous studies revealed that traditional culture limits employees' participation to voice their views and exchange ideas at the workplace (Gao & Shi, 2010), and it also restricts employees' intention to interact with their co-workers (Ma, Qi & Wang, 2008). Consistent with previous studies, the finding showed a negative relationship between traditional culture and employees' openness. This suggests that traditional culture with its strict supervisor-subordinate relationship, higher level of power

distance and vertical chain of command, hinders employees' openness toward creating and exchanging new and alternative ideas and procedures.

The study's result supports hypothesis 3a that there is positive effect of collaborative culture on employees' openness. A number of organizational behavior studies assert that employees' openness assists organisation's endeavour to create a supportive work culture (Barratt, 2004; Berman, & Korsten, 2014). This indicates that employee's openness is important to enrich connectedness, mutualism, interactivity, and open-mindedness which ensure collaboration at workplace. With respect to social liberalization policies, employees' openness encourages active in social interactions. A study conducted by Yang (2007) on a sample of 1200 hotel employees clearly showed the crucial role of employees' openness to advance organizational collaborative culture and knowledge sharing at workplace. Yang's findings are similar to the results identified in this study and confirm that collaborative organizational culture is positively related to employee openness in response to off-season.

Although collaborative culture is positively associated to employee openness, the finding supports hypothesis 3b that resistance to change is negatively related to collaborative culture. Collaborative culture emphasizes that organizational success is accomplished through employees' close relationship and mutualism, which requires interactive personal characteristics among employees and actions designed to maintain cooperative work environment. In this vein, organization's endeavor to foster cooperative culture encounter resistance, as Davy et al. (1988) suggest that 'the only thing certain about organizational acquisitions (and change) is that nothing is certain' (p. 58). Although cooperation of employees is paramount to the development of cooperative culture, employees can also have a negative effect on cooperative work environment when there are negative reactions to change with little

or no commitment to involve in participatory work environment as well as supportive behavioral collaboration with other co-workers (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Furthermore, research found that employees' opposition to change impedes involvement and cooperation at the workplace (Canning & Found, 2015; Jasti & Kodali, 2016). These findings are similar to the findings of this study, thereby confirming the negative effects of collaborative cultures on employee resistance to change in response to off-season.

From the perspective of the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, the findings of this study reveal that the influence of organisational innovative and collaborative cultures elevates employees' approach-promotion. Such stimulus and positively led strategies help them to step-up their psychologically-oriented state of mind to generate and exchange new sales and marketing mechanisms in response to off-season. On the other hand, traditional organisational culture drives employees' avoidance motivation and prevention strategy, and this resulted in directing employees to strictly adhere to existing sales and marketing procedure. Consequently, employees' will spend less effort on creativity and change and instead practice traditional organizational cultures such as organization's chain of command, and hierarchy. The results of this study clearly show that employee openness is congruent with innovative and collaborative organizational cultures while employee resistance to change is more compatible with traditional organizational culture.

6.4 Study objective 2: Organizational cultures and employees' innovative behavior in response to off-season

The study tested the relationship between different types of organizational cultures (innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture) on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season. The finding supports hypothesis 4a that innovative culture is positively

related to employee innovative behavior in response to off-season. A number of studies found that innovative organizational culture is conducive to employee innovative behavior (McGourty, Tarshis, & Dominick, 1996; Voudouris et al., 2000; Xerri, 2011). Recent studies in hospitality have discussed the positive influence of several variables and their positive impact on employee innovative behavior such as readiness for change and absorptive capacity (Chang, Way, & Cheng, 2018), knowledge advancement (Edghiem & Mouzughy, 2018), customer participation and interaction (Li & Hsu, 2016; Li & Hsu, 2017), organizational justices (distributive, procedural, and interactional justices) and organizational support (Jiun-Lan & Jeng-Hwan, 2015), empowerment and job standardization (Luoh, Tsaur, & Tang, 2014), including feelings (Slåtten, 2011). Most of these findings are in agreement with the findings of this study.

With regard to hypothesis 4b, the results confirmed the negative relationship between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior. Naranjo-Valencia et al. (2017) indicated that innovative performance could be limited in a traditional firm culture which fosters a culture of hierarchy and clan-based organizational structure. Generally, traditional cultures foster cautious attitude, strict and formalized structure. Thus, such approaches discourage the need to generate and execute ideas. Organizations that pursue a bureaucratic and higher level of hierarchical structure maintain directive leadership, and managers in such firms rigidly enforce laws and rules (Huey & Zaman, 2009), which typically dampen employees' initiative towards idea generation and implementation. As traditional culture mostly protects old practices from newly emerging applications and working styles (Farah et al., 1997; Leong & Chang, 2003), employees become anxious when they face change and creativity. Similarly, previous research illustrates that rigid power structure combined with distance between supervisors and subordinates, inhibits individual creativity and open expression new ideas (Nouri et al., 2015;

Riquelme, 2002). Although little work has been done on traditional culture and its influence in hospitality, few studies assert that traditional hotel culture impedes creativity and innovation among hotel employees (Hon & Leung, 2011; Qin, Li, & Yu, 2015).

In relation to hypothesis 4c, the finding supports the positive relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior. An empirical study by Sukmawati (2016) suggested that innovative culture supplemented by a participatory environment, could assist to heighten employees' performance. This implies that an organization that encourages participation, involvement, and interaction could maintain innovative work environment to employees. Moreover, Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2011) identified several factors that affect employee innovative behavior in hotel, including company-empowerment practices, familiarity with company vision, and employee commitment. Employee innovative behavior is enhanced by collaborative organizational cultures because such environment inspires creativity and cooperation. Thus, the finding confirmed that collaborative culture is positively related to innovative behavior in response to off-season.

Generally, the result of this thesis revealed that innovative and collaborative culture encourages employee innovative behavior because of support of new ideas and need for affiliation respectively. However, because of high need for power and less attention to new and alternative ideas arise by subordinates, traditional organizational culture inhibits employee innovative behavior in response to off-season. In a number of organizational behavior literature, organizational culture is seen as an antecedent for employee innovative behavior (Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2017). However, depending on its nature and context, the outcome of organizational cultures differs in many aspects like innovation, risk-taking, and pro-activeness (Brettel, Chomik, & Flatten, 2015). For instance, Kuo and Tsai (2017) found that the outcome

for employee knowledge sharing varies across bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive organizational cultures. Thus, building on this proposition and drawing on approach-avoidance and promotion-prevention, this study found that employee innovative behavior is varied across different types of organizational cultures i.e. innovative, traditional, and collaborative.

6.5 Study objective 3: Situation-based responses and innovative behavior in response to off-season

Because of the need for survival under unpredictable market environment, organizations are searching for successful management of response to change. As employees are integral to organizational success, their response to situations determine the desired organizational success (Oreg, 2006). Thus, this study examined the root cause of employees' situation-based responses and its effects on innovative behavior in response to off-season. The result supported hypothesis 5a that employee openness is positively related to innovative behavior in response to off-season. Several views have been expressed in the literature with respect to personal characteristics in the organizational culture domain. Some scholars have argued that personal characteristics by themselves are sufficient to maintain creativity without further external influence, including culture (Heine & Buchtel, 2009) while a number of studies have asserted that the nature and extent of culture determines individual creativity and innovation. For example, O'Cass and Ngo (2007) noted that organizational innovative culture can be considered a market-driving phenomenon that inspires openness to experience different marketing strategies and reception to new ideas and working processes. Similarly, based on panel data from 1994 to 2008 from manufacturing firms, Roper et al. (2013) found that openness accelerates innovation by enhancing diffusion of knowledge and competitive advantage. Their finding showed that the social benefit of openness ranges from knowledge dissemination to innovation performance. More importantly, openness can be a potential framework to maintain co-development of innovation since it encourages social benefits and

even promotes private benefits. In addition, several studies confirmed the positive relationship between employee openness and innovative organizational culture (Hult, et al., 2004; Jun & Park, 2014). Based on approach-avoidance and promotion-prevention foci, this study argued that employee openness arising from approach motivation and promotion foci strategy could drive employees' intention and willingness to search for new marketing mechanisms to mitigate off-season.

The finding supports hypothesis 5b that employee resistance to change is negatively associated to innovative behavior in response to off-season. Resistance has been seen as an irrational response to innovation. In some instance, resistance can be considered as a phobia-led irrational emotion. Taking 'technophobia' as an example, this phenomenon (i.e. a person's resistance to utilize technological materials) opposed techno-scientific innovation. Similarly, any new changes and ideas face resistance while innovation always seeks to change the status quo through mitigating resistance reaction toward change-making perspectives. Resistance against innovation could arise from examinations of a new product which involves negative attitude to specific products. Beyond the traditional novelty seeking causes of resistance, Heidenreich and Handrich (2015) noted that resistance against innovation stems from adoption-related behavior. In line with this, employee resistance to change is characterized by negative attitude and psychological obstacle toward generation of new ideas and working procedures (Kleijnen et al., 2009). From the resource-based perspectives, resistance highly influences firms in the developing countries, and even makes firms to question why and when to implement innovation (Fu et al., 2014). Internally, financial, technological, knowledge and skill gaps as well as risk-related barriers impedes organizational intention to foster innovative behavior in response to situations like seasonality. Externally, environmental turbulence, labor market, competition, and fusion in technology, may cause resistance behavior. Given this,

several studies found that resistance is negatively related to innovative behavior (Beshr & Hossan, 2018; Madrid-Guijarro et al., 2009; Okumus et al., 2017; Zwick, 2002;). Drawing on the approach-avoidance motivation and promotion-prevention goal-orientation strategy, resistance to change is seen as a precaution or protection of oneself from making mistakes in the process of searching for alternative market mechanisms to curb off-season. Supporting this view, the result of this thesis found that employee resistance to change is negatively linked to innovative behavior in response to off-season.

6.6 Study objective 3: The mediating roles of employees' openness and resistance to change in response to off-season

The study examined the mediating roles of employee openness and resistance to change on the influences of innovative, collaborative, and traditional cultures on employee innovative behavior. The result confirmed hypothesis 6a that employees' openness positively mediates the impact of innovative culture on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season. Several studies argued that employees' openness is a necessary condition to ensure organizational change (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993; Augustsson et al., 2017; Miller et al., 1994; Seppälä et al., 2012; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Innovative organizational culture assists employees with higher level of openness to experience new ideas and procedures. Hence, they can generate and apply ideas and alternative procedures at the workplace. Innovation requires flexibility to select several alternatives and it transforms problems into an opportunity. To achieve this, hotel's innovative culture necessitates employee openness to accept new working procedures during off-season.

The result confirmed hypothesis 6b that employee openness negatively mediates the relationship between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior. Openness

encourages direct discussion among employees without administration and procedural hierarchy while traditional culture dissuades legitimacy of new working procedures without superiors' recognition (Gao & Shi, 2010; Ma, Qi & Wang, 2008). Thus, because of pressure on employee openness, hotels with traditional culture experience difficulties in promoting innovative behavior in response to off-season. Thus, the finding confirmed the mediating role of employee openness on the negative relationship between traditional culture and innovative behavior in response to off-season.

The finding supported hypothesis 6c that employee openness positively mediates the role of collaborative culture on innovative behavior in response to off-season. As culture is initially defined as a shared values and norms which describe appropriate attitudes among members of an organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1996), collaborative culture nurtures employees' receptive attitude to maintain organizational shared beliefs and values. Organizations should assist employees to cooperate with one another and to develop an interactive environment. To achieve this, organizations must ensure employees' receptiveness towards new ideas and procedures. Previous studies found that collaborative culture is a vital antecedent of innovation which can be achieved at team level (Barczak et al., 2010; DeCusatis, 2008; Hoegl & Gemuenden, 2001). Thus, employee openness energizes the positive impact of collaborative organizational culture on innovative behavior.

With regard to the mediating effect of employee resistance to change, the result proposed hypothesis 7a that employees' resistance to change mediates the role of traditional culture on employee innovative behavior. As organizational traditional culture adheres to bureaucracy, strong organizational norms, and power distance (Hogan & Coote, 2014; Shahzad, Xiu, & Shahbaz, 2017; Zwick, 2002), it compels employees to be rigid, stick to old

working habits, and get used to a vertical chain of command. This enhances employees' resistance to change and reduces the chance of getting new ideas and alternative procedures. Similarly, hotel traditional culture along with employees' resistance restricts intentions to generate, apply, and exchange of ideas among employees to curtail market deficiencies during the off-season.

The results of this thesis confirmed hypothesis 7b that employee resistance to change mediates the relationship between innovative culture and innovative behavior. Balancing organizational and individual need with an ambivalent attitude is one of the main theoretical and practical-related challenge that organizational behavior scholars and practitioners experience (Piderit, 2000). Although intentions to mitigate employees' resistance to change is somehow problematic, studies have noticed that resistance is one of the main bottlenecks for innovation caused by poor communication, current organizational norms and traditions, infirm human resource practices, and absence of commitment and loyalty (Kane, Crawford, & Grant 1999; Osterman, 2000; Zwick, 2002). Supporting this view, a number of studies have mentioned that employees' resistance to change discourages organizational innovativeness because of risk aversion and being afraid of thinking out-of-the-box (Kumar & Raghavendran, 2015; Lundy & Morin, 2013; Madrid-Guijarro et al., 2009). Thus, the result of this thesis reveals that resistance to change negatively limits the strength of hotel's innovative culture toward ensuring innovative behavior in response to off-season.

Surprisingly however, the bootstrap test did not support the mediating role of employee resistance to change on the relationship between innovative culture and employee innovative behavior. Some researchers have scrutinized the multifaceted views on resistance toward organizational change; hence, further thoughts have emerged instead of the conventional

thinking that resistance to change disrupts the intended change advocated by the organization. For example, studies have revealed that resistance is not nature-oriented; rather, individuals are resistant to change and the mechanism that the intended change influence them (Fuegen & Brehm, 2004; Knowles & Linn, 2004). In such instance, innovative organizational culture could prepare in advance to reduce anticipated resistance and negative reactions to change which may resulted in less liability to successfully implement the change. From the viewpoint of social constructionism, change-makers mostly expect the encountered resistance; thus, they may formulate strategies to address resistances and expectations (Dent & Goldberg, 1999a; Ford et al., 2008; Ford, Ford, & McNamara, 2002). In this vein, innovative organizational culture ensures conducive working environment, enabling employees to express their ideas, including opposing views to change. Such work culture reduces the effect of resistance on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

In addition, the result shows that resistance mediates the influence of collaborative culture on innovative behavior, supporting hypothesis 7c. Resistance is a pervasive ideology informed by one's personality and other contextual factors (Mdletye et al., 2014; Young, 2000). Employees may exhibit withdrawal manners arising from their resistance behavior, even in the presence of organizational support towards collaboration (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). Organizational change depends on contextual variables to make the intended change smoother while employee resistance to change is natural and somehow an inelastic feature of human behavior. Hence, the intention to resist originated from personal ideology or preference to prioritize resistance to change. Supporting this position, Furst and Cable (2008) found that resistance to change influences leader-member exchange in an organization, which in turn negatively affects innovative behavior, making employees to be afraid of new ideas and disrupting firm's readiness to change the status quo (Janssen et al., 2004). In line with this,

employees may exhibit unreceptive conduct to such environment and inhibit organizations effort to accommodate creativity and innovation no matter how hotels are inclined to encourage active involvement and create alternative marketing procedures to curtail the impact of off-season. In this study, the bootstrap test did not support the mediating role of employee resistance to change on the impact of collaborative culture on employee innovative behavior. This implies that collaborative culture focuses on generating employees support and mutual interaction, and this assists the organization in lessening resistance. By espousing supportive work culture, employees could be empowered, and they may build trust that in turn could minimize potential resistance (Lewis & Boyer, 2002). Collaborative organizational culture provides room for discussion, debate, expressing complaints, and ideas for improvisation. Such platforms offer an opportunity to accommodate ambivalent attitude and resistance to change. Thus, this study found that collaborative organizational culture provides interactive working environment, enabling employees to express opposing views. This reduces resistance to change on innovative performance in response to off-season.

In accordance with the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, several studies have noted that individuals' approach motivation and promotion foci are closely related to hope and aspiration (Cesario et al., 2004; Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Freitas & Higgins, 2002; Vaughn et al., 2006). This implies that irrespective of market difficulties that hotels encounter in time of off-season, employees with high level of openness show compatibility with innovative and collaborative culture and they become initiated to participate in change-making activities. This suggests that employees' openness helps to curb off-season and subsequent market challenge. Meanwhile, employees' resistance caused by avoidance of risks could make them pursue preventive foci because of the fear of failure and uncertainties. In addition to

employee resistance to change, traditional culture inhibits generation and application of ideas and alternative mechanisms to tackle off-season.

6.7 Contributions of the study

Building on empirical findings and utilization of theories i.e. the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, the research model and tested hypotheses offer a number of theoretical and practical contributions. The thesis strengthens knowledge and practice of seasonality and innovative behavior in hospitality. It can be used as an input for future researchers to investigate organizational, psychological, and socio-contextual factors (e.g., organizational culture, seasonality, openness, resistance, and innovative behavior) in the less-developed countries. More importantly, the findings supplement knowledge on the current thinking about employees' innovative behavior in hotel. The findings of this study provide a range of practical contributions for owners, managers, investors, and hotel practitioners.

6.7.1 Recent theoretical contributions

Seasonality is an inescapable aspect of tourism and hospitality. A number of studies have examined the push-pull factors that generate high-low season demand toward tourism products and services. Besides, a several thought-provoking issues on the cause, impact, and response to seasonality have been discussed in the literature (see Amelung et al., 2007; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). More specifically, coping with inadequacy of markets during off-season is a primary concern to hospitality sector especially at a micro level (Banki et al., 2016) since tackling off-season demands intensive efforts to generate and sustain new and existing market, respectively (Turrión-Prats & Duro, 2017). To achieve off-season market, tourism organizations are expected to launch several products and services. More importantly, they must exhibit a readiness to change the status quo. Although market challenges arising from

seasonality affect tourism organization, little is known about organizational mechanisms to alleviate seasonality at firm level (Connell et al., 2015; Goulding et al., 2005; Koenig & Bischoff, 2010).

The present study investigates two underlying approach-avoidance and regulatory mechanisms – employee openness as an approach-promotion focus, and resistance to change as an avoidance-prevention focus – on the relationships between the three primary types of organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior in response to the off-season in hospitality industry. Furthermore, tourism researchers (Liu & Wall, 2006) have emphasized that inadequate attention has been given to human resource development in the tourism industry, especially in developing countries. In addition, seasonality in tourism has been largely studied from non-western context where economic and climatic variation is different from other developing countries. Hence, there has been calls for theoretical frameworks to comprehend tourism seasonality (Boffa & Succurro, 2012). Furthermore, research is needed to understand theoretical and practical gaps on the feature of seasonality in tourism from non-western world perspectives (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Chen & Pearce, 2012; Koenig & Bischoff, 2005).

In response to the above-mentioned research gap and with an aim to examine the influence of organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season, the theoretical contribution of this study is four-fold. First, this thesis responds to the call for more research regarding response to seasonality at micro-level tourism organization setting (Connell et al., 2015; Goulding, Baum, & Morrison, 2005; Koenig & Bischoff, 2010). The empirical findings, as well as the proposed framework, examine different organizational cultures and their effect on innovative behavior in response to off-season. Since the majority

of innovation studies have been concentrated on manufacturing sector (Gomezelj, 2016; Oke, 2004), and less innovation research has been done in less-developed countries (Carlborg et al., 2014), the findings of this study contribute to an understanding of how innovation is useful in curbing off-season market challenge in the less-developed world context. In relation to this, given the variation of understanding innovation across different cultural spectrum, little is known about the effect of culture on innovation in the developing and non-western countries cultural perspectives (Ahmad, 2012; Beugre & Offodile, 2001; Hon & Leung, 2011). Hence, this empirical study provides further theoretical development and knowledge advancement towards employees' innovative behavior in the hospitality industry of developing countries.

Second, the current thesis incorporated a conceptual model by integrating the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, via employee openness and resistance to change, to explain the relationships between different organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior. Considering limitations in theoretical development on seasonality research in hospitality and tourism (see. Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Senbeto & Hon, 2019), the framework of this study could minimize the gap associated with theoretical and conceptual development in seasonality research in hospitality. The findings proposed a mutual advantage to hospitality and organizational behavior fields of study by associating a conceptual framework of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories to seasonality issues in hotel setting. Thus, this study contributes to theory development (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) by providing a fresh insight into to the tourism seasonality literature and approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories.

The third theoretical implication is that the study offers insights into seasonality in the hospitality setting from the perspective of less-developed countries. Extensive literature review

on seasonality in hospitality and tourism reveals that a considerable research gap exists in understanding the variations of seasonality in hospitality and tourism contexts, and this gap limits the generalizability and representativeness of the extant research on seasonality in such field of study. More so, seasonality studies in tourism and hospitality have concentrated on the developed and western world context, and little is known about seasonality in hotel setting in developing and non-western settings like Africa (Banki et al., 2016). Further, the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories have been applied in the developed countries context (Senbeto & Hon, 2019). Against this backdrop, the findings of this study provide insights into seasonality in hotel setting from developing countries context. Further to this, this study provides new dimensions and widens the scope of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, and it examines culture types, situation-based attitudes, and innovative behavior in less-developed countries.

Fourth, this study adopts a quantitative method based upon primary data to measure variables and tests theories, contributing to methodological rigor, as previous seasonality research mainly focused on qualitative case-based or secondary data analysis with limited approach in theory and conceptual development (see. Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Senbeto & Hon, 2019). The current study sheds light on theories, variables, and concepts brought from management and psychology, enabling further inference towards measuring organizational cultures, innovative behavior, and employees' situation-based attitudes in the context of tourism seasonality. In addition, the study offers empirical evidences about the relationship between employees' innovative behavior and organizational cultures in a different cultural context underexplored in the literature. Answering the call to investigate different segments of organizational cultures (Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2017), the findings of this study highlight several components of organizational cultures (i.e. innovative,

collaborative, and traditional) and their influence on employee innovative behavior. Moreover, the study offers a more complete comprehension of the mediating roles of employee openness and resistance to change on employees' innovative behavior from seasonality context. Generally, this thesis contributes to the literature by developing a conceptual model that considers tourism organizations and their response toward seasonality. With its estimations of the mediating effects of openness and resistance on the relationship between organizational cultures and employee innovative performance, the present study adds empirical evidence to the organizational behavior literature.

6.7.2 Practical contributions

The findings of the present study have a number of practical implications. The results showed that employee innovative behavior is responsive to different organizational cultures and employees' situation-based responses. It was found that innovative culture strengthens employee innovative activities in response to off-season, encouraging openness and idea generation. Collaborative culture contributes positively to employee innovative behavior since it necessitates employees' affiliation enhanced by openness and eagerness to learn something new. Unlike innovative and collaborative organizational culture, stemming from unwillingness to give up old practices, traditional culture restricts employee innovative behavior. Building on such findings, the current study offers practical viewpoints to hotel managers, marketers, owners, investors, and human resource practitioners. Generally, the practical implications of this study address human resource, general management practices, marketing strategies, and hotel management and development concerns in Ethiopia.

- **Contributions for human resource management**

Based on the findings, human resource managers need to adopt a management approach in the process of recruitment and selection. It is viable for human resource practitioners to realize employees' inclination and compatibility with hotel's culture during recruitment. For example, employees' who exhibit openness are in accord with innovative and collaborative organizational cultures. Conversely, employees with higher resistance to change prefer hotels that execute traditional organizational culture rather than innovative and collaborative culture. Thus, measuring employees' personal need and psychological behavior are relevant to human resource managers and practitioners in their effort to understand how organizational culture matches with employees' behavior. With the effect of seasonality and the subsequent off-season market challenge, human resource practitioners should pay attention to sales and marketing issues in time of recruitment and selection since marketing tasks with respect to seasonality need to be organized by people who are passionate and have the right attitude. It is also necessary to incentivize employees by creating reward and promotional strategies and assess the hotel's culture and its compatibility with employees' work stress, job satisfaction, and performance.

- **Contributions for general management and marketing practices**

In an effort to curb off-season in hotel, the result highlights the influence of different organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior. Managers should recognize the nature of hotel's culture with respect to their employees' psychological intents when they create marketing strategies to tackle seasonality. Hotels prioritize innovative and collaborative culture to facilitate a conducive work environment regarding idea generation and cooperation. Motivating employees and creating a comfortable atmosphere to express what they think is a better means to embolden inspiration, and this helps to curb seasonality in an innovative way. To achieve this, managers need to be aware of employees' personal and psychological

preferences, especially regarding whether they are open or resistant. Some managers might suppose that it is waste of time to measure employees' feelings without proper observation, experience, and communication. Thus, managers should constantly examine employees' situation-based response by assigning tasks conducted by self-managing and work team (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Although the results of this study reveal the positive relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior, managers should augment innovative performance under a supportive environment by creating a sense of belonging and enhancing mechanisms to address and resolve problems. With regard to traditional culture, the study suggests a contingency approach in leadership behaviors (Huey & Zaman, 2009) when responding to off-season. In some instances, managers need to adopt a flexible approach to adjust marketing mechanisms during off-season.

With regard to facing off-season market challenges, marketers need to regularly adjust their organizational culture to develop employees' participation in idea generation, decision making, and active engagement to attract market during off-season. The findings assist hotels in identifying a suitable organizational culture and employees' psychological behavior to address off-season market challenges. In addition, marketers could consider the current research framework and findings in their business strategy to manage seasonal variation, and to identify guests'/tourists' seasonal variation. In relation to this, the finding show that innovative, collaborative, and open environments have a higher possibility for marketing activities such as promotions, advertisement, and publicity to address off-season market challenges.

- **Contributions for hotel sector in Ethiopia**

As stated in Chapter 1, this study is motivated by the need and context of seasonality and hotels' response to it. This thesis offers views of employees and managers in hotel sector in Ethiopia. Hence, in addition to managers and marketers, the study provides useful insights to owners, investors (both actual and prospective), and policymakers in order to consider seasonality in their business planning and strategy. Thus, policymakers could consider hotel's working culture in creating strategies to tackle seasonality at macro-level. Owners need to assist managers in their attempts to enhance employee innovative behavior as an operative mechanism underlined by human capital strategic plan. The study may be useful to prospective investors as it provides information relevant to upcoming hotel business by emphasizing the need for seasonality to be given serious consideration in the preparation and actualization of hotel investment. Furthermore, the study can be utilized as a blueprint for policymakers to consider organizational behavior and human resource management issues in Ethiopian tourism. In supporting the country's tourism development goal which is based on expanding tourist volume and minimizing challenges, this study underscores the need for policymakers to ponder seasonality in hotel. As studies indicate that African culture supports collaboration by its nature (Dia, 1991; Hofstede, 1991), the findings of this study stress the importance of collaborative culture to ensure innovative performance in the process of responding to seasonality. In addition, because of the growing economy, hotels situated in developing economy could diversify their market by not only depending on tourism driven demand, but also considering non-tourism market demand in time of off-season. Finally, this thesis provides the impetus for further studies on seasonality, organizational behavior, and human resource issues in the hotel industry.

6.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the discussion and implications of the study's findings. It interpreted how the current findings relate with previous studies. First, the chapter assessed the objectives of the study and addressed them: 1) relationship between innovative, traditional, and collaborative cultures and employee openness and resistance to change, 2) the impact of innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior, and 3) the mediating roles of employee openness and resistance to change on the relationship between innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior. The chapter presented the theoretical and practical implications of the study.

To sum up, this empirical study precedes past theories about organizational cultures and innovative behavior by assessing structural linkage among innovative, traditional, and collaborative culture, and employee innovative behavior. It attempted to fill theoretical and practical gaps such as 1) integrating approach-avoidance theory to assess seasonality and organizational response to it, 2) providing empirical evidence to seasonality and organizational behavior research from the developing world context, and 3) it offers conceptual model to envisage different types of organizational cultures, employee psychological intents i.e. openness, resistance to change, and employee innovative performance. The study also provided practical contributions to human resource management, general hotel management, marketing practices, and tourism stakeholders in the context of developing countries.

CHAPTER SEVEN – CONCLUSIONS

7.1. Chapter introduction

This chapter concludes the thesis. It presents a summary of the findings in line with the research objectives. It also highlights the main contributions of the study to theory and practice. Further, the chapter discusses the limitations of the study, makes recommendations for future research and ends with a closing remark.

7.2 Summary of the thesis findings and attainment of research aims

The study set out to examine 1) the relationship between innovative, traditional and collaborative organizational cultures on employees' situation-based response, i.e., openness and resistance, 2) analyze the effect of innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational cultures on employees' innovative behavior, and 3) the mediating effect of openness and resistance on the relationship between innovative, traditional, and collaborative organizational culture and employees' innovative behavior. CFA (confirmatory factor analysis) was conducted to assess the measurement model and check for reliability and validity concerns. SEM (structural equation modelling) was performed to test the proposed 17 hypotheses. Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures were also used to test the mediating effects, and subsequent post-hoc analysis was performed by using 1000 bootstrap samples with 95% confidence interval and 99% percentile (Taylor's et al., 2008). The mediating roles of employee openness and resistance to change were confirmed based on lower and upper confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013).

Based on the above procedures, Hypothesis 1a proposed a positive relationship between innovative culture and employee innovative behavior. The findings indicate that innovative culture positively influences employee innovative behavior in response to off-season.

Hypothesis 1b suggested that innovative culture negatively impacts on employee resistance to change because such culture promotes generation and application of ideas and procedures, which is against employees' resistive behavior. Hypothesis 2a asserted that traditional culture is positively related to employee resistance to change since it inhibits new and alternative mechanisms to curb off-season. Hypothesis 2b suggested that traditional culture is negatively related to openness while hypothesis 3a and 3b proposed that collaborative culture is positively and negatively related to employee openness and resistance to change respectively, in response to off-season. Hypotheses 4a and 4b suggested that innovative and traditional cultures have a positive and negative impact on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season respectively while hypothesis 4c proposed the positive effect of collaborative culture on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season. Hypotheses 5a and 5b suggested that employee openness and resistance to change have a positive and negative relationship with innovative behavior in response to off-season respectively. Hypothesis 6a and 6b reveal that openness mediates the positive and negative effect of innovative and traditional organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season respectively. Hypothesis 6c suggested that openness mediates the positive impact of collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season. Hypothesis 7a proposed that employee resistance to change mediates the positive impact of innovative culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season while hypothesis 7b proposed employee resistance to change mediates the negative relationship between traditional culture and employee innovative behavior in response to off-season. Finally, hypothesis 7c suggested that employee resistance to change positively mediates the relationship between collaborative culture and employee innovative behavior.

The present study attempted to fill theoretical and practical gaps such as 1) integrating approach-avoidance theory to assess seasonality and organizational response to it, 2) providing

empirical evidence to seasonality and organizational behavior research from the developing world context, and 3) offering a conceptual model to envisage different types of organizational cultures, employee psychological intents i.e. openness, resistance to change, and employee innovative behavior. Given the empirical and theoretical gaps, the study provided practical implications to human resource management, general hotel management, marketing practices, and stakeholders in the hotel sector in Ethiopia.

7.3 Summary of research contributions to theory and practice

The literature highlights several research gaps associated with seasonality in hospitality and tourism, organizational culture, innovative behavior and the approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories. For example, in tourism seasonality research, response to seasonal variation at a micro-level context has received relatively less attention compared to studies focus on the cause and impact of seasonality. The thesis offers insights into response to seasonality from a micro-level tourism organization context where little is known about tourism organization response to seasonal variation (Connell et al., 2015; Goulding et al., 2005; Koenig & Bischoff, 2010). In addition, little research has been conducted on seasonality in tourism and hospitality from a less-developed world context since the majority of previous studies that have examined seasonality are based in western and developed countries. Extensive literature review indicates that innovation research in a service setting, particularly in hospitality and tourism, remains in its infancy compared to research in manufacturing industry, and most importantly from a less-developed world setting.

Although there is growing interest to examine culture and its influence on innovative behavior and management practices in non-western context (Ahmad, 2012; Beugre & Offodile, 2001), there is limited evidence to compare the relationship between employees' innovative behavior and organizational cultures in a different cultural context. Organizational culture

determines overall competitiveness of a firm (Barney, 1986) and it influences the interpretations of and reactions among employees who perform innovative behaviors in response to seasonality, but that relationship has received scant attention in the hospitality literature (Hon & Leung, 2011). In addition, theoretical development regarding innovative behavior requires further advancement rather than depend on the over-utilized theories to investigate individual creative and innovative behavior. Furthermore, there is limited theoretical and conceptual development regarding tourism seasonality research as the majority of research has focused on qualitative or quantitative approach based on secondary data and pursued case-based seasonal variation analysis.

To fill the above research gaps, this study examines the impact of organizational cultures on employee innovative behavior in response to off-season by considering the mediating effect of openness and resistance to change. The study provides several contributions to theory. For example, by integrating approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories, the framework of this thesis examines the mediating role of employee openness (approach-promotion) and resistance to change (avoidance-prevention) in the relationship between organizational cultures and innovative behavior. Such theoretical integration is the first attempt in the hospitality research to examine innovative behavior using a different approach. Therefore, this study fills the research gaps associated with the theoretical limitations in seasonality research in tourism and hospitality (Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Senbeto & Hon, 2019). Given the lack of empirical research on seasonality as well as innovative research in hospitality from less developed and non-western world context, the findings of this study sheds light on the features of seasonality, organizational cultures and innovative approach in a context under-researched in the literature. Utilizing approach-avoidance and regulatory focus theories in seasonality research and in a new place perspective, is also contributes to theory development by extending the existing theories. Regarding contribution to methodology, the

study adopts a quantitative approach by measuring variables and testing theories, thereby helping to extend the existing ways of examining seasonality in terms of qualitative case-based and secondary data analysis. This thesis also provides a more comprehensive understanding of organizational cultures, innovative behavior, and employees' situation-based attitudes in response to seasonality by drawing on theories, variables, and concepts sourced from psychology and management.

The practical contributions address human resource management, general management and marketing practices, and hotel sector in Ethiopia. This study suggests that human resource managers need to pay attention to develop innovative and collaborative work culture since such organizational cultures helps to create an open environment and elevates employees' readiness to take risks and strive to tackle seasonality by pursuing alternative working mechanisms during off-season. In addition, managers should pay attention to examine employees' attitudes and develop an understanding of their personal needs and psychological behaviors in line with organizational culture during recruitment and selection. Considering innovative or collaborative organizational culture, hotel marketing practices need to pursue non-peak promotion, packaging product and service, complimentary services, and improving employee-customer interaction in time of off-season as part of an innovative strategy fueled by employee innovative behavior to tackle seasonality. Bearing such strategies in mind, managers or marketing managers should facilitate collaborative or innovative approach with less hierarchical and bureaucratic scheme to offset off-season market challenge. For example, managers or marketing managers need to consider the significance of employees' coordination, mutual trust, experience sharing, and horizontal consultation as part of marketing strategy in time of off-season.

7.4 Limitations and directions for future research

This study has some limitations despite its theoretical and practical implications. The study adopted multi-source sampling that helped to reduce common method bias. However, because of pursuing cross-sectional research design, it is difficult to draw an approximate conclusion based on current causalities. Non-probability sampling (i.e. convenience sampling) is another limitation of this study since it is not an approximate sampling method to epitomize the whole population (Battaglia, 2008). The results of the study may lack generalization power and transferability to the working population given the sampling method, sample size, and the geographical setting used (i.e. a setting where there is an uneven economic development). Thus, future studies could employ longitudinal research design, and they could also examine the evolutionary relationship and developmental patterns among organizational cultures, employees' situation-based responses and innovative behavior. The use of a longitudinal research design would help to replicate the findings of the current study in a wider demographic context. The use of a larger sample size, probability sampling method, and analyzing other developing countries should also be desirable in future studies. Although the study adopted multi-source ratings which included both managers' and employees' responses to limit the deficiencies that can occur using a cross-sectional design, the current research design is not experimental and, thus, cannot fully establish causality on employee openness and resistance to change based on standard manipulation procedure. The study did not consider financial performance of the hotels, the level of competition, and how challenging the employee's supervisor is or other firm or environmental factors which might influence organizational culture and employee innovative behavior.

As Leung and Morris (2015) noted that norms and values can be an antecedent for cultural and behavioral differences, this study did not explore norms and values which

influence organizational cultures. Additionally, the study did not cover other types of organizational culture and their impact on innovative performance. Consequently, future studies could investigate the effect of norms and values on organizational culture patterns. Future studies can also assess other aspects of organizational culture such as group culture, rational culture, and corporate culture in understanding innovation in tourism and hospitality setting. Searching for alternative measurement tools can be useful to widen the impact on organizational culture constructs. Crucially, it would be useful for other studies to assess the role of Ethiopian culture on managing seasonality. Although a one-way ANOVA was used to detect the difference across employees and managers' response toward the perceived organizational culture, the 48 hotels' organizational culture types were not. Hence, future studies could consider nesting organizational cultures by using multilevel model analysis techniques (Raudenbush et al., 2004) to explicitly model both individual and organizational variances on organizational culture variables. Future research could include customers' involvement and their views on employee innovative behavior in particular during off-season as well as service quality in times of market turbulence, and customers' evaluation of how hard employees work to curb seasonality.

This study did not consider how hotels strive to manage peak season. During peak season, hotels need to balance demand in order to avoid burnout, busy working environment among employees, and, possibly, customer satisfaction. Thus, further research will be required to examine how employees can be innovative in managing peak season demand and sustaining existing demand. Given that seasonality is caused by multiple factors such as climate, human activities, event, festivals, and other unforeseen events (Senbeto & Hon, 2019), further studies are needed to provide a comprehensive outlook of how hoteliers respond to a particular cause of seasonality. For example, hoteliers' response to climate-led seasonal variation is important

to enhance theoretical and practical understanding of seasonality in tourism. Further studies are also needed to provide broader perspectives on seasonality in hotel in the areas of market, product, process, and technological innovation. Further, it would be useful to consider a holistic approach to innovation with regard to seasonality. A contingency approach as well as a field experiment could be used to examine the effects of efficacy (Michael, Hou, & Fan, 2011), leadership (Carmeli, Meitar, & Weisberg, 2006; Pieterse et al., 2010), supervisor supportiveness (Janssen, 2005), and job satisfaction (Niu, 2014). Although Wang and Cheng (2010) found that job autonomy depends on the level of innovative performance in the organization, this study did not control for the effect of job autonomy on innovative behavior specifically. Instead, job autonomy was put under the level of strength among innovative, collaborative, and traditional culture. However, for more understanding, future studies may consider job autonomy in examining employee innovative behavior.

Advanced statistical analyzes should also be given further consideration in the methodological processes. Qualitative research is encouraged for more exploration on the context of seasonality at organization level. More importantly, mixed research method is essential (while combining constructivism and positivism or post-positivism paradigms) in order to provide richer insights into the phenomenon of seasonality and response to it. To ensure generalizability, especially in a broader African context, studies need to be replicated in other developing countries or regions as such studies would offer a basis for comparison and help to corroborate or repudiate the findings adduced in this study. It is unimportant to conduct similar studies on another tourism organization segment like tour operation and destination management organizations to reaffirm the findings of this study in a wider tourism and hospitality context. Finally, future studies could explore the macro-level perspectives of

seasonality in the hotel sector from the developing world perspectives by collecting samples drawn from policymakers and managers.

7.5 Concluding remarks

Tourism seasonality literature notes that even though seasonality could enhance sustainability of tourist destinations through providing time for recovery and minimizing overcrowding, seasonal variation brings market variability and it causes over and under-utilization of resources, leading to market decline during off-season (Butler, 2001; Senbeto & Hon, 2019; Vergori, 2017). Compared to research focuses on the cause and impact of tourism seasonality, little is known about how tourism organizations respond to seasonal variations at micro-level (Connell, Page, & Meyer, 2015; Goulding, Baum, & Morrison, 2005; Senbeto & Hon, 2019). Thus, there is a burgeoning interest to tackle seasonality by investing in a range of marketing efforts, with such investment relying on employees' performance and innovation at micro-level tourism organization setting. Most importantly, tourism seasonality research has received little attention from the perspectives of non-western and developing countries context. Given these research gaps and considering factors which determine organizations response to seasonality, an important theoretical and practical challenge for tourism firms is what specific factor can promote or inhibit employee innovative behavior in an attempt to respond to off-season? In this vein, organizational culture determines overall success of a firm and affects employees' innovative behaviors in response to seasonality, but that relationship has received scant attention in the hospitality literature (Hon & Leung, 2011). Consequently, a research question was developed in this study: why do some employees perform innovative behaviors in response to seasonality and why do others resist to being innovative during off-season? Without an understanding of the underlying mechanism between organizational cultures and

employee innovation, tourism organizations' one-size-fits-all approach to the off-season is questionable.

The study developed a framework by integrating theories of approach-avoidance and regulatory focus to examine 1) how different organizational cultures (i.e., innovative, collaborative, and traditional cultures) influence employees' innovative behavior in response to off-season; 2) consider the mediating roles of employee openness (i.e., promotion focus) and resistance to change (i.e., prevention focus) entrenched on approach-promotion and avoidance-prevention processes, in order to build an understanding of the associations between different cultures and employee innovative behaviors; and 3) the majority of tourism seasonality studies have been conducted in the settings of developed countries, whereas this study assists to understand seasonality from developing-countries setting in Ethiopia. The study has several contributions to theory and practice. The existing literature on tourism seasonality focuses primarily on the causes and effects of seasonality and pays little attention to developing an understanding of employees' reactions to off-season markets. Thus, this study moves beyond investigating the causes and impacts of seasonality and identifies employee innovation as an important business strategy for hospitality firms to use to offset seasonal shortages of demand.

Given that theoretical and conceptual developments in tourism seasonality literature are principal limitations faced by scholars (Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Senbeto & Hon, 2019), this study contributes to theory and it helps hotel managers to solve the seasonality issue. It proposes two of approach-avoidance and regulatory processes that mediate those relationships (via employee openness and resistance to change) to explain the relationships between different organizational cultures and employee innovative behavior in response to seasonality by utilizing multisource data from hotel employees and managers. The study examines seasonality in a developing country, thereby extending seasonality research since the majority of existing

work has been restricted to Europe and North America (Banki et al., 2016; Chen & Pearce, 2012; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Although this study contributes to seasonality research as well as to the tourism, hotel and general management and marketing literature, a considerable research gap still exists in terms of generalizability and representativeness of the current studies on seasonality in the hotel context.

7.6 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the conclusion of the thesis. It first summarized the overall research result regarding how the research aims were attained. Next, the chapter discussed the main contribution of the study to theory and practice. Limitations of the study and directions for future research were also provided. Although seasonality is not a new topic in the tourism literature, it has been discussed from a one-size-fits-all approach. Unfortunately, that approach has many limitations in terms of conceptual and theoretical development, especially relating to the question of how tourism organizations can solve the issues of off-season in the competitive hotel market. The final section of this chapter presented concluding remarks, limitations and directions for future research, and highlight the overall findings and contributions of the study. Based on the approach-avoidance motivation and regulatory focus theories, this study examined the influence that the three primary types of organizational culture – innovative, collaborative, and traditional cultures – have on employee innovative behavior via the regulatory mechanisms of employee openness and resistance to change. The findings indicate that high levels of employee openness in conjunction with innovative and collaborative cultures foster innovative behavior and accelerate positive reactions to curb off-season problems. In contrast, employees' resistance to change in conjunction with a traditional culture that is associated with avoidance motives and prevention strategies inhibits innovative behavior in response to off-season. These empirical findings contribute to the industry's knowledge of tourism seasonality and hospitality management in the context of developing countries.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire (English version)

Employees' version

Dear SIR/Madam,

I am pursuing my Ph.D. study on the topic of HR policy and employee motivation. Your participation in the survey is essential to the completion of the study and much appreciated. Your response will remain confidential. For further information, do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Dagnachew Leta Senbeto, Ph.D. Student

School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Tel: + (852)3400 . Email: dagnu.senbeto@

Section I: job-related information

Please (√) the most appropriate number for each statement, with 7 = strongly agree and 1 = strongly disagree.

For the following statements, please (√) the most appropriate option		Strongly Agree Strongly disagree						
No.	Statement	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1	In our company, innovative behavior is promoted in marketing activities during off-season							
2	In our company, leaders respect our creative efforts in off-season							
3	In our company, the reward system encourages us to implement new marketing techniques during off-season							
4	Our company recognize employees who utilize new thinking in their marketing tasks during off-season							
5	In our hotel, we believed that managers decisions should be obeyed at all-time including off-season times.							
6	In our hotel, we perceived that to pursue seniors' track is the best way to avoid mistakes during off-season							
7	In our hotel, females are viewed as a subordinate							
8	In our hotel, seniors could compromise our direction when we are in dispute on off-season marketing tasks.							

9	We respect supervisors who are respected by top managers	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	In our organization, we support each other when our colleague fails in his/her marketing task during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	In our organization, we encourage each other when someone is under stress in times of off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	In our organization, we share our marketing experience each other during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	In our organization, we communicate each other before practising actions that affect each of us during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	In my workplace, I am ready to put effort for change during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	In my work environment, I engage in the proposed change	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	In my workplace, I look forward to changing my role that brought by the implementation of work teams in response to the off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	In my work environment, I am quite eager to view alternative ways in times of off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	In my workplace, I perceive co-workers' achievements as positive implication to accomplish my task during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	In my workplace, I believe that it is better to experience new procedures to solve problems during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	In my work environment, I perceive that new practices will improve my usual work procedure in times of off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	In my work environment, I viewed that new methods will positively contribute to my work performance during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
31	In my workplace, I am afraid to change my usual work process during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
32	In my workplace, I had a bad feeling about change	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
33	In my workplace, I am not quite excited about change	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
34	In my work setting, I feel upset if I directed to change my usual marketing practices during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
35	In my work environment, I stressed to follow new marketing tactics during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
36	In my workplace, I like to obstruct the applicability of the proposed change during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
37	In my workplace, I protested against progressive conditions during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
38	In my work environment, I complained about the change with my colleagues during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

39	In my workplace, I presented my objections toward new ways of marketing strategies that I have to follow during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
40	In my workplace, I do not participate in talk about the importance of change to others during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
41	In my work environment, I believed that change would harm the way things are done in the hotel during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
42	In my work environment, I thought that it is odd to modify our marketing tactics in response to the off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
43	In my work environment, I believe that to pursue new ways make my job harder during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
44	In my workplace, I did not believe that changing the way of marketing would benefit the hotel during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
45	In my workplace, I did not believe that I could personally benefit from the change executed during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
46	I have confidence in my ability to solve problems creatively	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
47	I feel that I am good at generating novel ideas	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
48	My supervisor bolsters my confidence in my creative potential	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Demographic information

Please check (✓) only one box in front of the appropriate answer that applies to you.

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age: 18-25 26-35 36-45 46 or more
3. Education: Primary/elementary school Secondary/high school
 College/university Postgraduate
4. Your monthly income: Less than ETB 2,000 ETB 2,000-2,999 ETB 3,000-3,999
 ETB 4,000-4,999 ETB 5,000 or more
5. Job position:
6. Work experience: Less than 1 year 1 – 3 years 4 – 7 years
 8 – 10 years More than 10 years
7. Star of the hotel:

8. How long you work in this organization:

- Less than 1 year 1 – 3 years 4 – 7 years
 8 – 10 years More than 10 years

Thank you very much!

Questionnaire (English version)

Managers' version

Managers

Dear SIR/Madam,

I am pursuing my Ph.D. study on the topic of HR policy and employee motivation. Your participation in the survey is essential to the completion of the study and much appreciated. Your response will remain confidential. For further information, do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Dagnachew Leta Senbeto, Ph.D. Student

School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Tel: + (852)3400 . Email: dagnu.senbeto@

Please (√) the most appropriate number for each statement, with 7 = Strongly Agree and 1 = Strongly Disagree

For the following statements, please (√) the most appropriate option		Strongly Agree Strongly disagree						
		7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1	He/She is initiated to generate genuine solution to attract guests during off- season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	He/She intends to search out new marketing techniques during off-	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	He/She intends to generate original solutions for problems during off- season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	He/She is willing to mobilize innovative ideas during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	He/She is acquiring approval to implement innovative ideas during off- season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	He/She encourages organizational members to be enthusiastic about innovative ideas during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	He/She transforms innovative ideas into useful application during off- season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	He/She is initiated to introduce innovative ideas into the work environment in a systematic way during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	He/She is ready to evaluate the utility of innovative ideas during off- season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

10	In our company, innovative behavior is promoted in marketing activities during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	In our company, leaders respect our creative efforts in off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	In our company, the reward system encourages us to implement new marketing techniques during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	Our company recognize employees who utilize new thinking in their marketing tasks during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	In our hotel, we believed that managers decisions should be obeyed at all-time including off-season times.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	In our hotel, we perceived that to pursue seniors' track is the best way to avoid mistakes during off-season	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	In our hotel, females are viewed as a subordinate	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	In our hotel, seniors could compromise our direction when we are in dispute on off-season marketing tasks.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	We respect supervisors who are respected by top managers.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	In our organization, we support each other when our colleague fails in his/her marketing task during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	In our organization, we encourage each other when someone is under stress in times of off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	In our organization, we share our marketing experience each other during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	In our organization, we communicate each other before practising actions that affect each of us during off-season.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Demographic information

Please check (√) only one box in front of the appropriate answer that applies to you.

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age: 18-25 26-35 36-45 46 or more
3. Education: Primary/Elementary school Secondary/High school
 College/University Postgraduate
4. Job position:
5. Work experience: 1 – 3 years 4 – 7 years

8 – 10

More than 10 years

6. How long you work in this organization:

Less than 1 year

1 – 3 years

4 – 7 years

8 – 10 years

More than 10 years

7. Star of the hotel:

8. Number of staff in your hotel:

9. How many subordinates you are supervising in your team:

10. How frequent you need to communicate with your subordinates

Daily

Twice week

Once a week

Monthly

Thank you very much!

መጠይቅ (የአማርኛ ቅጂ)

እኔ ዳኛቸው ለታ ሰንበቶ የሰስተኛ ዲግሪ ጥናቴን በ ሆቴል ና ቱሪዝም በዋናነት በሆቴል ሰው ሃብት ልማት ላይ በመስራት ላይ የምገኝ ሲሆን ለዚህም ይረዳኝ ዘንድ የሚከተሉትን መጠይቆች ይሞሉልኝ ዘንድ በትህትና እጠይቃለው በጥናቱ ለመሳተፍም በጣም አስፈላጊ ነው። የእርስዎ ምላሽ በሚስጥር የሚቀመጥ ይሆናል። ለተጨማሪ መረጃ፣ እኔን ለማነጋገር አያመንቱ።

በታላቅ ትህትና፣

ዳኛቸው ለታ ሰንበቶ፣ ፒኤች. ተማሪ

የሆቴልና ቱሪዝም ማኔጅመንት ትምህርት ቤት፣ የሆንግ ኮንግ ፖሊ ቴክኒክ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

ስልክ: + (852)3400 . ኢሜይል: dagnu.senbeto@

ክፍል 1: ከሥራ ጋር የተያያዘ መረጃ ለእያንዳንዱ መግለጫ በጣም ትክክለኛ ቁጥር (✓) 7 = ከፍተኛ ስምምነት እና 1 = እጅግ አልስማማም።

ለሚከተሉት ዓረፍተ ነገሮች እባክዎ (✓) በጣም አግባብ የሆነው አማራጭ		በጣም እስማማለው			በጣም አልስማማም			
1	በሆቴልችን ውስጥ የፈጠራ ባህሪ ይበረታታል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	በሆቴልችን ውስጥ የፈጠራ ችሎታዎችን የመሥራት ችሎታችንን በአመራሮቹ ላይ የተከበረ ነው	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	በሆቴልችን ውስጥ አዳዲስ የግብይት ዘዴዎችን መፍጠር እና መተግበር ያበረታታል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	በሆቴልችን ውስጥ በገጣይ እና በግብይት ሥራቸው አዲስ የሆኑትን በይፋ እናውቃቸዋለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	በ ሆቴልችን ውስጥ፣ የአዛዦችን እና የአሳዳጊዎችን ውሳኔ በሁሉም ጊዜ እንጠብቃለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	በሆቴልችን ውስጥ አዛውንቶችን መከተል በሽያጭ እና ግብይት ላይ ስህተት እንዳይከሰት ለመከላከል ከሁሉ የተሻለ መንገድ እንደሆነ ተገንዝበናል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	በሆቴል ውስጥ ሴቶች እሥር ተደርገው ይታያሉ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	በኛ ሆቴል፣ ስራ አስኪያጆች በተጨማሪም መመሪያዎቻችንን ይመራሉ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	በከፍተኛ ኃላፊዎች ለሚመሰገኑ አለቆቻችን የተለየ አክብሮት አለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	በሆቴልችን ውስጥ እርስ በርስ መደጋገፍ እና ሌላው ቀርቶ የስራ ባልደረባዎቻችንን በሚቀጥለው ጊዜ ውስጥ በሚሰሩበት ጊዜ ለገበያ ማቅረብ አለባቸው	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	በ ሆቴልችን ውስጥ፣ አንድ ሰው ውጥረት በሚከተልበት ጊዜ እናበረታታለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	በ ሆቴልችን ውስጥ ለፈፀሙት ወቅት ምላሽ እንዲሰጡ እናጋራቸዋለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	በ ሆቴልችን ውስጥ እያንዳንዳችንን የሚነካውን እርምጃ ከመጀመራችን በፊት በተደጋጋሚ እናሳውቃለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

14	በሥራ ቦታዬ, እኔ ክፍት እና ለለውጥ ጥረቶች ዝግጁ ነኝ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	በስራ ቦታዬ, በተግባር ቡድኖች ትግበራ በኩል ያመጣሁትን ሚና ለመቀየር እጠባበቃለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	በስራ ቦታዬ, አዲስ እና አማራጭ መንገዶችን ለማየት በጣም ጉጉት አለኝ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	በሥራ ቦታዬ, የስራ ፈጣሪዎቼን ስራዎች ለመፈጸም እንደ አዎንታዊ መተሳሰር እንደሆኑ ተረድቼያለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	በሥራ ቦታ, ችግሮችን ለመፍታት አዳዲስ የአሰራር ሂደቶችን መፈለግ የተሻለ እንደሆነ አምናለው	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	በስራ ቦታዬ ውስጥ, አዲስ ልምዶች በተለመደው የእኔ የሥራ ሂደት እንደሚሻሻሉ አምናለው	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	በስራ ቦታዬ ውስጥ, አዳዲስ ዘዴዎች ለስራዬ አፈጻጸም አስተዋፅኦ እንደሚያደርጉ አምናለው	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	በሥራ ቦታዬ, መደበኛ የሥራዬን ለውጥን ለመለወጥ እፈራለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	በሥራ ቦታዬ ስለለውጥ መጥፎ አመለካከት አለኝ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
23	በሥራ ቦታዬ, ስለ ለውጥ በጣም ደስ አይለኝም	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
24	በስራ ቦታዬ ውስጥ, የተለመዱ ልምዶቼን መለወጥ ካለብኝ ጥሩ ስሜት አይሰማኝም	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
25	በስራ ቦታዬ ውስጥ, በጣም አነስተኛ በሆኑ ወቅቶች አዳዲስ የግብይት ዘዴዎችን መከተል ያስጨንቀኛል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
26	በስራ ቦታዬ, የታቀደው ለውጡን ተግባራዊነት መከልከል እፈልጋለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
27	በሥራ ቦታዬ, ደረጃ በደረጃ ሁኔታዎች ላይ እጠራጠራለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
28	በስራ ቦታዬ, ከሥራ ባልደረቦቼ ጋር ስለነበረው ለውጥ አማርሬ እገልጽ ነበር	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
29	በሥራ ቦታዬ, ሊከተሏቸው የሚገቡ አዳዲስ የግብይት ስልቶችን ተቃውሞዬን አቀርባለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
30	በስራ ቦታዬ ላይ, የሌሎችን አስፈላጊነት ለውጦችን የመናገር አስፈላጊነት በጭራሽ አላሳተፍም	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
31	በስራ ቦታዬ ውስጥ, ነገሮች በድርጅቱ ውስጥ የሚሰሩባቸውን ነገሮች የሚጎዱ መሆኑን አስተውያለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
32	በስራ ቦታዬ, የግብይት ዘዴዎችን ማሻሻል አስቸጋሪ ነው ብዬ አስባለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
33	በስራ ቦታዬ, አዳዲስ መንገዶችን መፈለግ ሥራዬን የበለጠ አስቸጋሪ እንደሚያደርግ አምናለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
34	በሥራ ቦታዬ, የገበያ መስመሮችን መቀየር ከፍተኛ ጥቅም ያመጣል ብዬ አላምንም	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
35	በሥራ ቦታዬ, ለውጦች በግለሰብ ደረጃ ሊጠቅሙን ይችላል ብዬ አላስብም	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
36	በሥራ ቦታዬ, መደበኛውን የአሠራር ስልት ለመለወጥ እፈራለሁ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
37	የችግሮችን መፍትሔ ለመፍጠር በራስ መተማመን አለኝ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
38	አዳዲስ ጽንሰ-ሐሳቦችን በማውጣት ጥሩ እንደሆንኩ ይሰማኛል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
39	የሥራ ተቆጣጣሪዬ ችሎታዬ ላይ ያለኝን እምነት ያጠናክረኛል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

ስነ ሕዝባዊ መረጃ

እባክዎን (✓) ለእርስዎ በተገቢው መልስ ላይ በተገቢው መልስ በኩል አንድ ሳጥን ብቻ ይፈትሹ.

1. **ጾታ:** ወ ሴ
2. **ዕድሜ:** 18-25 26-35 36-45 46 or more
3. **ትምህርት:** አንደኛ ደረጃ ኮሌጅ / ዩኒቨርሲቲ
 ሁለተኛ ደረጃ ድህረ ምረቃ

4. ወርሃዊ ገቢ: ከ 2,000 ያነሰ ከ 2,000-2,999
- ከ 3,000-3,999 ከ 4,000-4,999 ከ 5,000 ና ከዛ በላይ

5. የሥራ መደብ:

6. የሥራ አመት በዓመት 1 – 3 ዓመት ዓመት
- 8 – 10 ዓመት ዓመት

7. የሆቴሉ ኮከብ: አንደኛ ደረጃ ሁለተኛ ደረጃ
- ሶስተኛ ደረጃ አራተኛ ደረጃ

በጣም አመሰግናለሁ!

መጠይቅ (የአማርኛ ቅጂ)

እኔ ዳኛቸው ለታ ሰንበቶ የሶስተኛ ዲግሪ ጥናቴን በ ሆቴል ና ቱሪዝም በዋናነት በሆቴል ሰው ሃብት ልማት ላይ በመስራት ላይ የምገኝ ሲሆን ለዚህም ይረዳኝ ዘንድ የሚከተሉትን መጠይቆች ይሞሉልኝ ዘንድ በትህትና እጠይቃለው በጥናቱ ለመሳተፍዎ በጣም አስፈላጊ ነው። የእርስዎ ምላሽ በሚስጥር የሚቀመጥ ይሆናል። ለተጨማሪ መረጃ፣ እኔን ለማነጋገር አያመንቱ።

በታላቅ ትህትና፣

ዳኛቸው ለታ ሰንበቶ፣ ፕሌቶ. ተማሪ

የሆቴልና ቱሪዝም ማኔጅመንት ትምህርት ቤት፣ የሆንግ ኮንግ ፖሊ ቴክኒክ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

ስልክ: + (852)3400 . ኢሜይል: dagnu.senbeto@

ክፍል 1: ከሥራ ጋር የተያያዘ መረጃ ለእያንዳንዱ መግለጫ በጣም ትክክለኛ ቁጥር (v) 7 = ከፍተኛ ስምምነት እና 1 = እጅግ አልስማማም።

	ለሚከተሉት ዓረፍተ ነገሮች እባክዎ (✓) በጣም አግባብ የሆነው አማራጭ	በጣም እስማማለው ← → በጣም አልስማማም						
		7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1	እንግዶችን ለመሳብ ትክክለኛውን መፍትሄ ለማቅረብ ይነሳሳል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	እሱ / እርሷ አዲስ የግብይት ቴክኒኮችን ይፈልጋል ወይም ትፈልጋለች	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	ለችግሮች የመጀመሪያውን መፍትሄ ለማቅረብ ያቅዳል (ች)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	እሱ / እርሷ አዲስ የፈጠራ ሀሳቦችን ለማሰባሰብ ፈቃደኛ ነው (ች)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	እሱ / እርሷ አዲስ የፈጠራ ሀሳቦችን ተቀብላለች	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	እሱ / እርሷ ለ አዲስ አስተሳሰቦች አድናቆት እንዲኖራቸው ያበረታታል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	እሱ / እሷ አዲስ የፈጠራ ሀሳቦችን ወደ ጠቃሚ መተግበሪያ ይቀይራል (ች)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	እሱ / እሷ በስራ ቦታ ውስጥ ፈጠራዊ ሀሳቦችን ስልታዊ በሆነ መንገድ ለማስተዋወቅ ተነሳሽነት ነው (ች)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	እሱ / እርሷ አዲስ የፈጠራ ሀሳቦችን ጥቅም ለመገምገም ዝግጁ ነው (ች)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	በሆቴልችን ውስጥ የፈጠራ ባህሪ ይበረታታል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	በሆቴልችን ውስጥ የፈጠራ ችሎታዎችን የመሥራት ችሎታችን በአመራሮቹ ላይ የተከበረ ነው	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

12	በሆቴሎችን ውስጥ አዳዲስ የግብይት ዘዴዎችን መፍጠር እና መተግበር ያበረታታል	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	በሆቴሎችን ውስጥ በንግድ እና በግብይት ሥራቸው አዲስ የሆኑትን በይፋ እናውቃቸዋለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	በከፍተኛ ኃላፊዎች ለሚመሰገኑ አለቆቻችን የተለየ አክብሮት አለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	በሆቴሎችን ውስጥ የአዛዦችን እና የአሳዳጊዎችን ውሳኔ በሁሉም ጊዜ እንጠብቃለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	በሆቴሎችን ውስጥ አዛውንቶችን መከተል በሽያጭ እና ግብይት ላይ ስህተት እንዳይከሰት	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	በሆቴል ውስጥ ሴቶች እሥር ተደርገው ይታያሉ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	በኛ ሆቴል ስራ አስኪያጆች በተጨማሪም መመሪያዎቻችንን ይመራሉ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	በሆቴሎችን ውስጥ እርስ በርስ መደጋገፍ እና ሌላው ቀርቶ የስራ ባልደረግዎቻችን በሚቀጥለው ጊዜ ውስጥ በሚሰሩበት ጊዜ ለገበያ ማቅረብ አለባቸው	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	በሆቴሎችን ውስጥ አንድ ሰው ውጥረት በሚከተልበት ጊዜ እናበረታታለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	በሆቴሎችን ውስጥ ለፈጸሙት ወቅት ምላሽ እንዲሰጡ እናጋራቸዋለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	በሆቴሎችን ውስጥ እያንዳንዳችንን የሚነካውን እርምጃ ከመጀመራችን በፊት በተደጋጋሚ እናሳውቃለን	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

ስነ ሕዝባዊ መረጃ:

አባክዎን (✓) ለእርስዎ በተገቢው መልስ ላይ በተገቢው መልስ በኩል አንድ ሳጥን ብቻ ይፈትሹ.

- 4. **ፆታ:** ወ ሴ
- 5. **ዕድሜ:** 18-25 26-35 36-45 46 or more
- 6. **ትምህርት:** አንደኛ ደረጃ ኮሌጅ / ዩኒቨርሲቲ
 ሁለተኛ ደረጃ ድህረ ምረቃ

- 4. **ወርሃዊ ገቢ:** ከ 2,000 ያነሰ ከ 2,000-2,999
 ከ 3,000-3,999 ከ 4,000-4,999 ከ 5,000 ና ከዛ በላይ

- 5. **የሥራ አመት በዓመት** 1 – 3 ዓመት ዓመት
 8 – 10 ዓመት ዓመት

- 6. **የሆቴሉ ኮከብ:** አንደኛ ደረጃ ሁለተኛ ደረጃ
 ሶስተኛ ደረጃ አራተኛ ደረጃ

7. የሥራ መደብ:

8. በሆቴልዎ ውስጥ ያሉ ሠራተኞች ቁጥር:

9. በቡድንዎ ውስጥ ክትትል የሚያደርጉት ስንት ቁጥሮች ናቸው፡

10. ከ ሠራተኞች ጋር ለመነጋገር በየስንት ጊዜው ትወያያላችሁ

በየቀኑ

ሁለት ሳምንት

በሳምንት አንድ ጊዜ

አንዴ በሁለት ሳምንት ውስጥ

በጣም አመሰግናለሁ!