THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK MOTIVATION AND WORKER PROFILE IN UK HOSPITALITY WORKERS

Yasuhiro Kotera[1]
Prateek Adhikari[1]
William Van Gordon[1]

University of Derby, Derby, United Kingdom
Emails: Y.Kotera@derby.ac.uk; P.Adhikari@derby.ac.uk; W.VanGordon@derby.ac.uk

_____

Abstract: *While the UK hospitality industry is growing faster than the economy, mental health problems are a serious concern in this worker population. Our previous research identified that work motivation accounted for a significant variance in mental health, however, the relationship between types of work motivation and worker profile has not been explored to date. Therefore, this study aimed to i) identify the primary type of work motivation, and ii) explore relationships between types of work motivation and worker profile in UK hospitality workers. UK hospitality workers (n=103) completed a worker profile questionnaire and work motivation measure. Their internal motivation was significantly higher than external motivation. Male and longer industry experience were associated with amotivation, the lowest type of motivation. A higher position in the organisation was associated with external regulation, the second lowest type of motivation. Intervention research for intrinsic motivation, particularly among male experienced workers or managers/owners is warranted. Considering their low wages, the high levels of internal motivation may be explained by the 'psychological justification' strategies. Furthermore, male hospitality workers' high levels of external motivation may highlight the UK's strong masculine culture as described in Hofstede's cultural dimension theory. Likewise, highly positioned workers' high levels of external motivation may relate to the UK's low power distance in the same theory. Cross-cultural comparisons of work motivation and mental health (e.g., with the high feminine Dutch culture and/or the high power distant Malaysian culture) would be an important future direction to help place these findings in a global context.*

Keywords: Internal motivation; External motivation; UK hospitality workers; Worker profile

_____

Introduction
Mental Health of UK Hospitality Workers

The hospitality industry is concerned with the provision of food and accommodation services to customers (Rook, 2011). In the UK, the industry employs more than two million workers, accounting for 7% of the total UK workforce. While awareness of occupational mental health issues is increasing in the UK (Farmer & Stevenson, 2017), workers in the UK hospitality industry appear to be particularly susceptible to mental health issues comparing with other industries (Kotera, Adhikari & Van Gordon, 2017). For example, over 70% of UK hospitality workers are emotionally worn-out due to work, and almost half of the workers included in this figure take absence due to mental distress at some point in their career (Davis, 2015). The 'emotional labor' (Hochschild, 1985) of working in hospitality arises from (i) conflicting job demands: remaining efficient yet having to provide quality customer service (Dann, 1990), (ii) conflicting professionalism: maintaining a professional emotional display while sometimes dealing with thoughtless or rude behaviour on the part of customers (Harris & Reynolds, 2004), and (iii) working long and anti-social hours (Kotera et al., 2017). All of these factors increase the risk for occupational mental health issues (Gilmour & Patten, 2007).

Workers' psychological distress can lead to a wide range of problems including reduced creativity and productivity (Dunnagan, Peterson, & Haynes, 2001) as well as limited work effectiveness (Gilmour & Patten, 2007). Depression inhibits work productivity leading to disability, absenteeism, and premature early retirement (Blackmore et al., 2007). Additionally, a workplace with mentally distressed workers can incur significant turnover of employees along with associated financial costs to the organisation (International Labour Organization, 2010). A high turnover is a salient problem in the UK hospitality industry where the average turnover rate among bar staff is 180%, and more than 30% among managers (Badger & Lashley, 2000). Replacing one member of customer-facing staff costs approximately £1,000 and approximately £5,000 for replacing a hospitality manager (Lashley & Best, 2002).

Worker Profile and Mental Health

Studies highlight relationships between worker profile (e.g., gender, age, experience) and mental health problems (e.g., Jones & Bright, 2001; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For example, female workers tend to report their stress-related health concerns, while male workers tend to report stressful situations (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Furthermore, female workers report more psychological distress than male workers (Jones & Bright, 2001) which might result from women having relatively more demands in the home as well as having less control over work procedures compared to men (Dollard, 2001).

Among other factors in worker profile, the age of workers is also related to mental health (Jones & Bright, 2001). For example, Wall et al. (1997) showed that younger workers can be in better mental health than older workers, and that middle-aged workers report lower levels of enthusiasm and job satisfaction compared to younger and older workers (Wall et al., 1997). This may be explained by job strain; negative anxiety caused by high psychological demands with low decision scope and autonomy (Kambayashi et al., 2013). A study specifically investigating this condition showed that older workers perceive greater job strain than younger workers (Vanagas & Axelsson, 2004).

Alongside gender and age, position in the organisation is also related to employees' mental health. More specifically, it is generally understood that compared to workers in a low position,

workers higher up the management chain have more empowerment and control over work, which can lead to greater capacity to moderate stress levels (Burrow, 2000). This relationship can also be observed socio-economically where workers in lower socio-economic groups – who tend to have jobs with less authority and control – can experience increase risk for stress-related mental health problems (Bright, 2001; Dollard, 2001). Conversely, mangers in certain roles, such as those in the hotel industry, have been identified as experiencing more stressors than lower-ranked hourly-paid employees (O'Neil & Davis, 2011). Thus, regardless of the correlational direction, it appears that the impact of one's position on mental health is salient.

Finally, amount of time spent working is also associated with mental health. For example, a study showed that people who work more than 50 hours per week report more stress than those who do not (O'Neil & Davis, 2011). This is consistent with findings from a large-scale (n=2187) longitudinal study conducted in Japan (Kuroda & Yamamoto, 2016). Furthermore, studies demonstrate that working excessively long hours increases the risk of mental illness and suicidal ideations (Bunting 2004; Gershuny 2000; Trades Union Council, 2015).

Impact of Motivation on Mental Health

Work motivation, the mental energy driving workers to initiate work-related activities (Pinder, 1998), is of importance to organisational psychologists because a highly-motivated workforce is deemed to be a critical strategic asset (Kanfer, Chen, & Pritchard, 2008) as well as a competitive advantage (Thapar, 2016). For example, work motivation is negatively related to occupational stress among male automobile workers (Thapar, 2016). Likewise, low work motivation is a key determinant of work-related health problems, that cost the UK economy £6 billion annually (equating to 0.4% of UK GDP in 2012; Centre for Economics and Business Research, 2013).

Self-determination theory (SDT) is one of the most researched theories regarding work motivation. SDT emphasises our inherent inclination to concentrate our mental energy on actualising an integrated sense of self, while recognising external social and cultural expectations (Deci & Ryan, 1985). STD distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic forms of motivation. Intrinsically motivated workers initiate work-related activities because these activities are inherently enjoyable and satisfying, while extrinsically motivated workers engage in work-related activities due to an instrumental reason such as money and/or status (Kotera et al., 2017). As shown in Table 1, Ryan's SDT model (1995) further categorises work motivation into six types, in which amotivation is deemed to be the least autonomous and internalised form of motivation.

Table 1: Different types of work motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Kotera et al., 2017)

	Type	Description	Example comments
1	Amotivation	Workers have no intention to engage in work	'I have no intention to work'
2	External regulation	Workers do an activity only to obtain a reward	'I work only because I get paid'
3	Introjected regulation	Workers are motivated by self-worth and related factors	'I work because I want people to think of me in a certain way'
4	Identified regulation	Workers recognise the value of the activity, and perceive it as their own	'I work because I understand that it is important to me'
5	Integrated regulation	The value of the activity is part of a worker's identity	'I work because it's part of who I am'
6	Intrinsic motivation	Workers find the task inherently enjoyable, challenging, and/or a of self-actualisation	'I work because I enjoy it'

In Table 1, the three less autonomous and internalised forms of motivation (i.e., amotivation, external regulation and introjected regulation) are denoted as *controlled motivation*, while the three more autonomous and internalised forms of motivation (i.e. identified regulation, integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation) constitute *autonomous motivation* (Gagne & Forest, 2011).

How these types of work motivation are related to other occupational outcomes has been comprehensively reported in the academic literature. For example, autonomous motivation is associated with positive organisational outcomes (Gagne & Forest, 2011) including high-engagement with information searching (Koestner & Losier, 2002), outcome attainment (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999), higher work productivity (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Miller, 2002), well-being (Ilardi, Leone, Kasser, & Ryan, 1993), work-life satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2004), and prosocial behaviour including volunteering (Gagne, 2003). Autonomous motivation can be fostered by competence, autonomy, and relatedness (i.e., known as the three psychological needs), accompanied by a supportive organisational culture (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gagne & Deci, 2005). Controlled motivation, in contrast, relates to negative consequences (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002) such as burnout, as well as physical and mental health problems (Houkes, Jassen, de Jonge, & Bakker, 2003) including depression (Blais, et al., 1993), turnover intentions (Quast & Kleinbeck, 1990), unplanned effort to achieve goals (Koestner, Losier, Vallerand & Carducci, 1996), unstable communication (Koestner & Losier, 2002), and limited performance caused by low attention and memory (Vallerand, 1997). The contrast between the positive outcomes relating to autonomous motivation, and the negative consequences relating to controlled motivation, illustrates the importance of cultivating autonomous motivation in the workplace.

To date, the relationships between these types of work motivation and their impacts on mental health in hospitality workers worldwide have not been thoroughly investigated (Kotera et al., 2017). However, in Northern Cyprus, autonomous motivation was positively related to job satisfaction and organisational attachment, and negatively related to emotional burnout among hotel workers (Karatepe & Uludag, 2007). Among Turkish hotel employees, autonomous

motivation and job resources were also reported to reduce emotional burnout (Babakus, Yavas, & Karatepe, 2008). Additionally, a Nigerian study (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009) reported autonomous motivation was positively related to work performance, and negatively related to burnout, emotional incongruence and turnover intentions.

Although there is a scarcity of research examining the correlates of work motivation in UK hospitality workers, a small number of studies have been conducted. For example, some hospitality workers appear to experience difficulties managing their work motivation (Martin, Mactaggart, & Bowden, 2006) and there exists a significant relationship between work motivation and job performance (Jayaveera, 2015). Furthermore, our previous research identified that work motivation was significantly related to, and a significant explanatory variable for, mental health problems (Kotera et al., 2017). However, to date, no study has investigated the relationship between types of work motivation and worker profile in UK hospitality workers.

Objectives

Given the aforementioned gap in understanding, this study aimed to i) identify the primary type of work motivation in a sample of UK hospitality workers, and ii) explore relationships between worker profile and types of work motivation in the same population group.

Methodology
Design

An observational study design was employed in order to draw inferences from this sample of UK hospitality workers to the general population of this workforce.

Participants

UK hospitality workers were recruited using the authors' professional networks. A total of 116 workers agreed to participate of which 103 (47 male, 56 female) completed a worker profile questionnaire and motivation measure. Participants were included in the study if they were aged 18 years or older and had been working for at least for one year in the UK hospitality industry. Due to the prevalence of part-time work in the UK hospitality industry (People 1st, 2013), both full-time and part-time workers were included (55 full-time, 48 part-time). The age range of participants was 18-55 years (*M*=28.2, *SD*=8.6) with 40% working in a hotel, 36% in a restaurant, and the remaining 24% in other hospitality outlets. The average number of hours worked each week was 46.4 hours for full-time workers (*SD*=8.3) and 20.7 hours for part-time workers (*SD*=6.9). In terms of length of service, 39% of participants had been working in hospitality for more than five years, 33% for two to five years, and the remaining 28% for less than two years. The same participants were also included in a parallel study by the same authors that focussed on mental health-related outcomes (Kotera et al., 2017)

Procedure

Ethical approval was obtained from the authors' University research ethics committee. After providing informed consent, participants were sent links to a worker profile questionnaire as well as the work motivation measure detailed below. Descriptive statistics were yielded, and levels of each type of work motivation were identified. Correlation analyses were then

performed to investigate relationships between work motivation subscales and worker profile. All analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS version 24.0.

Measures

Worker Profile Questionnaire
The worker profile questionnaire was devised by the authors and elicited information relating to (i) gender, (ii) age, (iii) years of experience working in the hospitality industry, (iv) average weekly working hours, (v) work setting (e.g. restaurant or hotel), (vi) position in the organisation, and (vii) geographic location of work.

Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS).
The 18-item Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) self-report instrument is based on SDT theory and assesses levels of different types of work motivation (Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, & Villeneuve, 2009). The 18 items comprise three questions for each of the following six forms of motivation: (i) amotivation, (ii) external regulation, (iii) introjected regulation, (iv) identified regulation, (v) integrated regulation, and (vi) intrinsic motivation. Each item is scored on a seven-point Likert scale (from 1 = 'Does not correspond at all' to 7 = 'Corresponds exactly'). All of the subscales have adequate Cronbach's alphas of between .64 and .83 (Tremblay et al., 2009)

Results
Descriptive Statistics and T-Test

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for worker profile and work motivation. Three scores in WEIMS were identified as outliers using the outlier labelling rule (Hoaglin & Iglewicz, 1987) (i.e., and were thus winsorised)

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of UK hospitality workers' profile and work motivation (n=103)

	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Age	28.18	8.63	1.45	1.72
WE	5.93	5.56	2.02	5.28
WWH	34.81	14.61	0.12	-0.83
IM	17.38	2.86	-1.17	1.19
ITR	17.54	3.22	-1.44	2.00
IDR	17.06	2.93	-1.09	1.09
IJR	17.48	3.02	-1.25	1.48
ER	16.26	2.76	-0.59	0.03
AM	15.75	5.45	-1.24	0.31

WE = Work Experience (years); WWH = Weekly Working Hours; IM = Intrinsic Motivation; ITR = Integrated Regulation; IDR = Identified Regulation; IJR = Introjected Regulation; ER = External Regulation; AM = Amotivation

UK hospitality workers' integrated regulation (ITR) was the highest type of work motivation, while amotivation (AM) was the lowest. Overall, autonomous motivation (IM, ITR, and IDR) was higher than controlled motivation (IJR, ER, and AM). A total score for autonomous motivation and controlled motivation was calculated (i.e., by combining the relevant subscales)

and a t-test was then conducted (see Table 3). As shown in Table 3, UK hospitality workers' level of autonomous motivation was significantly higher than their level of controlled motivation (P<.05).

Table 3: T-test for autonomous motivation and controlled motivation (n=103)

Autonomous motivation		Controlled motivation	
M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**
17.31*	2.64	16.47*	2.97

* There was significant difference between the two.

Correlations

Kendall's tau-b correlations were used to examine relationships between work motivation and worker profile (Table 4).

Table 4: Correlations between worker profile and work motivation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
GN	.19*	.32**	.26**	.24*	.14	-.001	.02	.06	.10	.06	.26**
1. Age	-	.56**	.41**	.47**	.12	-.04	.03	.03	-.08	-.08	-.04
2. WE		-	.60**	.43**	.19*	.06	.13	.16*	.06	.03	.24**
3. WWH			-	.44**	.17*	.15*	.18*	.23**	.10	.03	.15*
4. Posi				-	.06	.08	.05	.02	-.05	-.16*	.06
5. PWC					-	.01	.02	-.02	.05	-.07	-.09
6. IM						-	.46**	.48**	.29**	.22**	.15*
7. ITR							-	.53**	.45**	.25**	.30**
8. IDR								-	.38**	.36**	.30**
9. IJR									-	.19*	.37**
10. ER										-	.19**
11. AM											-

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the.01 level (2-tailed).

WE = Work Experience (years); WWH = Weekly Working Hours; Posi = Position in the Organisation; PWC = Population of the Working City; IM = Intrinsic Motivation; ITR = Integrated Regulation; IDR = Identified Regulation; IJR = Introjected Regulation; ER = External Regulation; AM = Amotivation

There were significant correlations between worker profile and work motivation. These included a significant association between (i) gender and amotivation, (ii) work experience and amotivation, (iii) weekly working hours and all three autonomous motivation measures, and (iv) position in the organisation and external regulation.

Discussion

This study evaluated the levels of different types of work motivation in UK hospitality workers, and then explored the relationship between worker profile and work motivation. The current

sample of UK hospitality workers scored highest on integrated regulation, while amotivation was the lowest scoring of all the six types of work motivation. Autonomous motivation was significantly higher than controlled motivation and correlational analyses identified mild associations between work motivation and worker profile.

The presence of higher levels of autonomous motivation compared to controlled motivation suggests that overall, the present sample of UK hospitality workers are engaged in their services for internal satisfaction rather than external rewards such as money and status. This may be related to the fact that many jobs in the hospitality industry are classified amongst the lowest paid occupations in the UK (Office for National Statistics, 2013). More specifically, findings imply that UK hospitality workers may be doing their job because it is internally satisfying despite the low rate of pay, or they may have employed psychological strategies to develop internal motivation as a means of accepting or justifying the low pay. This is consistent with studies demonstrating that internal motivation can suffer due to external rewards (Carlson et al., 2010). A classic example is a study by Lepper, Greene and Nisbett (1973) where external rewards where shown to significantly reduce children's internal levels of interest. A meta-analytic review of this relationship reported that extrinsic rewards significantly undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). Furthermore, a more recent study involving more than 200,000 US workers reported that externally motivated workers have diminished internal motivation while internally motivated workers have less concern for external rewards (Jik Cho & Perry, 2012). Research relating to service-related work motivation also demonstrates such a trade-off between external and internal motivation (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010; Wright, 2007).

These findings could also be due to the fact that to be eligible for the study, the current sample of UK hospitality workers were required to have more than one year of work experience. This is relevant because consistent with findings demonstrating that low pay is related to high turnover (Vermandere, 2013), if an employee is highly motivated externally they may not be committed to working for long periods of time on low wages. In the future, it would be worthwhile exploring specifically what stimulates the internal motivation of UK hospitality workers during daily job activities. Qualitative studies are likely to be the most appropriate means of exploring such a research question.

There are several implications associated with the mild correlations between gender and work motivation, particularly the fact that male workers tended to have higher levels of amotivation compared to female workers. Indeed, this appears to be supportive of the view that the UK has a masculine culture, as described by Hofstede and Minkov's (2010) cultural dimension theory (Kotera et al., 2017). Cultural dimension theory evaluates cultures according to six factors: i) power distance, ii) individualism versus collectivism, iii) uncertainty avoidance, iv) masculinity versus femininity, v) long-term orientation versus short-term orientation, and vi) indulgence versus restraint. A masculine culture values success, and people are ambitious and live in order to work, while a feminine culture values relationships and quality of life, and people are drawn toward doing what they love, rather than climbing up the socioeconomic ladder. In other words, people in a masculine culture are driven by external motivation, while people in a feminine culture are inspired by internal motivation. This relates to the findings of the current study because the UK's level of masculinity is ranked 11th among 76 countries (Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Future research could investigate the relationship between work motivation and masculine/feminine culture. For example, UK workers could be compared with Dutch workers, as the Netherlands has a similar culture and socio-economic status to the UK but with a much lower level of masculinity.

External motivation was significantly related to work experience and position in the organisation. More specifically, the longer participants had worked in the hospitality industry, and the higher their position in the organisation, the more likely they were to have higher levels of external motivation. This gives rise to a concern in terms of the future health and development of the hospitality industry, as experienced managers/owners are the key players in terms of influencing the industry's future. Accordingly, initiatives to improve employee levels of internal motivation are likely to be warranted, as high internal motivation is associated with health and work-related positive outcomes (Gagne & Forest, 2011; Ilardi et al., 1993). An example of such an initiative might be the Disney strategy, a Neuro-Linguistic Programming intervention (Dilts, 1998) deemed to enhance internal motivation by making use of active physical movements and exploring dreams and future plans (Kotera & Sheffield, 2017). This is different from psychological approaches such as cognitive behavioural therapy that arguably rely too heavily on clients applying logical thinking and verbalisation of their delicate feelings (National Health Services, 2016). By accessing the 'dreamer', 'realist', and 'spoiler' aspects of creativity, the Disney strategy could help identify what hospitality managers and owners want internally from their lives and career. Another example is the izakaya (Japanese pub) industry of Japan where it has become common to have a daily staff meeting where employees share their dreams and aspirations (e.g., Teppen, 2012).

Lastly, the strong association between external motivation and position in the organisation may relate to UK's low power distance index according to cultural dimension theory (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). Power distance index measures how much the less powerful members of an organisation accept and/or expect unequal power distribution (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). The UK's power distance is ranked as the 10th lowest among 76 countries (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010), indicating UK employees' intolerance with inequality. Related to this, the pay gap between high paid workers and low paid workers is salient in the UK (Allen, 2017), and the UK hospitality industry is known for its low rates of pay (Office for National Statistics, 2013). These differences could increase the risk of psychological distress (i.e., which is related to external motivation) in UK hospitality workers (Kotera et al., 2017). In the future, it would be valuable to explore this relationship cross-culturally. For example, Malaysia would be an appropriate comparator to distinguish how power distance affects the motivation-position relationship, because Malaysian culture has the highest power distance among 76 countries (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010).

There were several limitations to the present study. In particular, participant recruitment was conducted via opportunity sampling, which compromises the generalisability of the study findings. Also, although this study identified the levels of each type of work motivation, what affects them has not yet been investigated. Future studies could investigate the factors that contribute to the different types of work motivation in UK hospitality workers.

Employees in the fast-growing UK hospitality industry suffer from high levels of psychological distress and mental illness. While other studies have investigated the relationship between mental health and work motivation, this is the first study to explore the relationship between work motivation and worker profile in UK hospitality workers. The study showed that internal motivation was higher than external motivation overall, and that external motivation was significantly correlated with gender, work experience, and position in the organisation. Initiatives focussing on augmenting internal motivation of male experienced manager/owners may be an effective step for improving levels of work motivation in the UK hospitality industry.

References

Allen, K. (2017). *FTSE CEOs 'earn 386 times more than workers on national living wage'*. Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com/business/2017/mar/22/uk-ceos-national-living-wage-equality-trust-pay-gap (Accessed: 15 December 2017).

Baard, P. P., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2004). Intrinsic need satisfaction: A motivational basis of performance and well-being in two work settings. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*. *34*(10), 2045–2068.

Babakus, E., Yavas, U., & Karatepe, O. M. (2008). The effects of job demands, job resources and intrinsic motivation on emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions: A study in the Turkish hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, *9*(4), 384–404.

Badger, J., & Lashley, C. (2000). Musical chairs at the old dog and duck. *Hospitality Review*, *2*(4), 56–59.

Blackmore, E. R., Stansfeld, S. A., Weller, I., Munce, S., Zagorski, B. M., & Stewart, D. E. (2007). Major depressive episodes and work stress: Results from a national population survey, *American Journal of Public Health*, *97*(11), 2088–2093.

Blais, M. R., Lachance, L., Vallerand, R. J., Brie`re, N. M., & Riddle, A. S. (1993). The Blais inventory of work motivation [French]. *Revue Que´-be´coise de Psychologie*, *14*, 185–215.

Bright, J. (2001) *Individual difference factors and stress: A case study paper*. Paper presented at the NOHSC Symposium on the OHS Implications of Stress, University of New South Wales.

Bunting, M. (2004). *Willing slaves: How the overwork culture is ruling our lives*. London: Harper Perennial.

Burrow S. (2000). *Stop stress at work: A guide for workers*. Australian Council Trade Unions, Occupation health and safety unit: Melbourne.

Carlson, N., Miller, H., Heth, D., Donahoe, J., & Martin, G. N. (2010). *Psychology: The science of behavior* (7th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.

Centre for Economics and Business Research. (2013, December 9). *The state of workforce wellbeing*. London. Retrieved from https://cebr.com/reports/the-state-of-workforce-wellbeing/ (Accessed: 5 August 2017).

Dann, D. (1990). The nature of managerial work in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *9*(4), 319–334.

Davis, T. (2015). *Hospitality workers among most stressed in Britain*. Retrieved from https://www.hotelowner.co.uk/4862-hospitality-workers-among-most-stressed-in-britain/ (Accessed: 5 August 2017).

Deci, E., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R. (1999). A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation, *Psychological Bulletin, 125*(6), pp. 627-668.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (2000) The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior, *Psychological Inquiry, 11*(4), 227-268.

Dilts, R. (1998). *Modeling with NLP*. Capitola, CA: Meta Publications.

Dollard, M. F. (2001). *Work stress theory and interventions: From evidence to theory*. The National Occupational Health and Safety Commission Symposium on the OHS Implications of Stress, Commonwealth of Australia, 3-57.

Dunnagan, T., Peterson, M., & Haynes, G. (2001). Mental health issues in the workplace: A case for a new managerial approach, *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *43*(12), 1073–1080.

Farmer, P., & Stevenson, D. (2017). *Thriving at work: The Stevenson / Farmer review of mental health and employers*. Retrieved from https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/658145/thriving-at-work-stevenson-farmer-review.pdf?platform=hootsuite (Accessed: 13 December 2017).

Gagne, M. (2003). The role of autonomy support and autonomy orientation in prosocial behavior engagement. *Motivation and Emotion*, *27*(3). 199-223.

Gagne, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*, 331–362.

Gagne, M., & Forest, J. (2011). *The study of compensation systems through the lens of self-determination theory: Reconciling 35 years of debate*. Retrieved from http://www.cirano.qc.ca/pdf/publication/2011s-54.pdf (Accessed: 5 August 2017).

Gershuny, J. (2000). *Changing times: Work and leisure in postindustrial society*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gilmour, H., & Patten, S. B. (2007). Depression at work. *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, *19*(4), 57

Harris, L. C., & Reynolds, K. L. (2004). Jaycustomer behavior: An exploration of types and motives in the hospitality industry, *Journal of Services Marketing*, 18(5), 339–357.

Hoaglin, D. C., & Iglewicz, B. (1987). Fine-tuning some resistant rules for outlier labeling. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, *82*(400), 1147-1149.

Hochschild, A. R. (1985). *The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling* (8th ed.). Berkeley: University of California Press.

Hofstede, G. H., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind: Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Companies.

Houkes, I., Jassen, P. P. M., de Jonge, J., & Bakker, A. B. (2003). Specific determinants of intrinsic work motivation, emotional exhaustion and turnover intention: A multisample longitudinal study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76*, 427– 450.

Ilardi, B. C., Leone, D., Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1993). Employee and supervisor ratings of motivation: Main effects and discrepancies associated with job satisfaction and adjustment in a factory setting. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 23*, 1789-1805.

International Labour Organization. (2010). *Developments and challenges in the hospitality and tourism sector: Issues paper for discussion at the global dialogue forum on new developments and challenges in the hospitality and tourism sector and their impact on employment, human resources development*. Geneva: Author.

Jayaweera, T. (2015). Impact of work environmental factors on job performance, mediating role of work motivation: A study of hotel sector in England. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *10*(3). 271-278.

Jik Cho, Y., & Perry, J. (2011). Intrinsic motivation and employee attitudes: Role of managerial trustworthiness, goal directedness, and extrinsic reward expectancy, *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 32*(4), pp. 382-406. doi: 10.1177/0734371X11421495.

Jones, F. & Bright, J. (2001). *Stress: Myth, theory and research*. London: Pearson Educational.

Kanfer, R., Chen, G., & Pritchard, R. D. (2008). Work motivation: Forging new perspectives and directions in the post-millennium. In R. Kanfer, G. Chen, & R. D. Pritchard (Eds.), *Work motivation: Past, present, and future* (pp. 601– 631). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Kambayashi, R., Singh, S., & Wakisaka, A. (2013). Sickness on the Job. *Japanese Institute for Labour Policy and Training, 635*, 31-46.

Karatepe, O. M., & Aleshinloye, K. D. (2009). Emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion among hotel employees in Nigeria. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *28*(3), 349–358.

Karatepe, O. M., & Uludag, O. (2007). Conflict, exhaustion, and motivation: A study of frontline employees in Northern Cyprus hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *26*(3), 645–665.

Koestner, R., & Losier, G. F. (2002). Distinguishing three ways of being highly motivated: A closer look at introjection, identification, and intrinsic motivation. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp.101-121). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

Koestner, R., Losier, G. F., Vallerand, R. J., & Carducci, D. (1996). Identified and introjected forms of political internalization: Extending self-determination theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*(5), 1025-1036.

Kotera, Y., Adhikari, P., & Van Gordon, W. (2017). Motivation types and mental health in UK hospitality workers. *Manuscript under review*.

Kotera, Y., & Sheffield, D. (2017). Disney strategy for Japanese university students' career guidance: a mixed methods pilot study, *Journal of the National Institute for Career Education and Counselling*, 38, 52-61.

Kuroda, S., & Yamamoto, I. (2016). *Workers' mental health, long work hours, and workplace management: Evidence from workers' longitudinal data in Japan*, The Research Institute of Economy, Trade and Industry Discussion Paper Series.

Lashley, C., & Best, W. (2002). Employee induction in licensed retail organisations, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *14*(1), 6–13.

Lashley, C., & Rowson, B. (2000). *Wasted Millions: staff turnover in licensed retailing*. Paper presented at the Ninth Annual CHME Research Conference, University of Huddersfield, Huddersfield.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Heidelberg: Springer.

Lepper, M. R., Greene, D., & Nisbett, R. E. (1973). Undermining children's intrinsic interest with extrinsic reward: A test of the "overjustification" hypothesis, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 28*(1), 129-137. doi: 10.1037/h0035519.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (2004). What should we do about motivation theory? Six recommendations for the twenty-first century. *Academy of Management Review*, *29*(3), 388–403.

Martin, A., Mactaggart, D., & Bowden, J. (2006). The barriers to the recruitment and retention of supervisors/managers in the Scottish tourism industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *18*(7), 380–397.

National Health Services. (2016). *Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT)*. Retrieved from http://www.nhs.uk/conditions/Cognitive-behavioural-therapy/Pages/Introduction.aspx (Accessed: 5 August 2017).

Office For National Statistics (2013). *Annual survey of hours and earnings: 2013 provisional results*. Retrieved from http://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/earningsandworkingho urs/bulletins/annualsurveyofhoursandearnings/2013-12-12#earnings-by-occupation (Accessed: 1 October 2016).

O'Neill, J. W., & Davis, K. (2011). Work stress and well-being in the hotel industry, *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30*(2), pp. 385–390. doi: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.07.007

Paton, N. (2007). Early intervention would cut €10bn cost of mental ill-health. *Occupational Health*, *59*(4), 5.

People 1st (2013). *Hospitality and tourism - Creating a sustainable workforce*. Retrieved from http://www.people1st.co.uk/getattachment/Research-policy/Research-reports/Monthly-insights-reports/Reworked-Hospitality-Report-v-4.pdf.aspx (Accessed: 5 August 2017).

Perry, J., Hondeghem, A., & Wise, L. R. (2010). Revisiting the motivational bases of public service: Twenty years of research and an agenda for the future, *Public Administration Review*, *70*(5), pp. 681–690. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6210.2010.02196.x

Pinder, C. (1998). *Work Motivation in Organizational Behavior*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Quast, H., & Kleinbeck, U. (1990). Motivational determinants of absence behavior. In U. Kleinbeck, H. Quast, H. Thierry, & H. Ha¨cker (Eds.), *Work motivation* (pp. 157–167). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Rook, S. (2011). Industry insight - Hospitality. Retrieved from http://www2.open.ac.uk/students/_data/documents/careers/hospitality.pdf (Accessed: 5 August 2017).

Ryan, R. M. (1995). Psychological needs and the facilitation of integrative processes. *Journal of Personality*, *63*, 397-427.

Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: The self-concordance model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76, 482–497.

Teppen. (2012). *Sekaiichi no chourei [The best morning meeting in the world]*. Retrieved from http://teppen.co/tyorei/ (Accessed: 5 August 2017).

Thapar, R. (2016). Work motivation and its outcome correlates in automobile industry, *Amity Business Review, 17*(2), pp. 17-25.

Trades Union Council (2015). *15 per cent increase in people working more than 48 hours a week risks a return to 'Burnout Britain', warns TUC*. Retrieved from https://www.tuc.org.uk/news/15-cent-increase-people-working-more-48-hours-week-risks-return-%E2%80%98burnout-britain%E2%80%99-warns-tuc (Accessed: 5 August 2017).

Tremblay, M. A., Blanchard, C. M., Taylor, S., Pelletier, L. G., & Villeneuve, M. (2009). Work extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scale: Its value for organizational psychology research. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, *41*(4), 213-226.

Vallerand, R. J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 271–360). San Diego, CA: Academic.

Vermandere, C. (2013) *Impact of salary on job satisfaction*. Retrieved from https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/observatories/eurwork/articles/impact-of-salary-on-job-satisfaction (Accessed: 15 December 2017).

Vallerand, R., & Ratelle, C. (2002). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: A hierarchical model. In E. Deci & R. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-determination Research* (pp. 37–64). Suffolk: Boydell & Brewer.

Vanagas, G., & Axelsson, S. (2004). Interaction among general practitioners age and patient load in the prediction of job strain, decision latitude and perception of job demands. A Cross-sectional study, *BMC Public Health, 4*(59). doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-4-59.

Wall, T. D., Bolden, R. I., Borrill, C. S., Carter, A. J., Golya, D. A., Hardy, G. E., … West, M. A. (1997). Minor psychiatric disorder in NHS trust staff: Occupational and gender differences. *The British Journal of Psychiatry, 171*(6), 519–523

Wright, B. (2007). Public service and motivation: Does mission matter?, *Public Administration Review, 67*(1), pp. 54–64. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6210.2006.00696.x