Mixed Methods Action Research: Intervention Strategies for Employee Turnover in Ethnic Asian Enterprises in New Zealand

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the University of Liverpool for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

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ABSTRACT

*Mixed Methods Action Research: Intervention Strategies for Employee Turnover in Ethnic Asian Enterprises in New Zealand*

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Excessive employee turnover can pose a threat to a firm’s growth and survival. This is particularly true for small ethnic Asian businesses that rely heavily on human labour input with cultural and language challenges. This paper sets out to develop effective intervening strategies for the high labour turnover found in ABC (pseudonym), a small ethnic Asian company in New Zealand that provides commercial cleaning and shopping trolley collections services. This study used a multistrand mixed method action research (MMAR) approach that leverages discussions, a survey and interviews for data collection in the cycle of action research (AR) proposed by Coghlan and Brannick: ‘constructing’ (Phase 1), ‘planning action’ (Phase 2), ‘taking action’ (Phase 3), and ‘evaluating action’ (Phase 4). This design helps cross-validate the gathered data and enhance the rigour and credibility of the research outcomes.

In Phase 1, having identified excessively high employee turnover as the research problem, the subsequent literature review revealed three candidate intervening variables: leadership styles, job satisfaction and level of ethnic entrepreneurship (co-ethnic community involvement). In Phase 2, data were collected and analyzed using a mixed method to understand the impact of the intervening variables on turnover and identify the areas for improvement when applying the found-to-be effective variables in ABC. The quantitative data was collected from employees of ethnic Asian companies including ABC. The statistical analyses on 222 usable questionnaires suggested that two variables (leadership styles – supportive and participative, and job satisfaction) were found to be the strong predictors of employee withdrawal intention. Interestingly, it was not possible from the data to claim a moderating effect of ethnic entrepreneurship on the relationships between leadership and turnover propensity. The succeeding qualitative study gathered the data from twelve ABC employees via phone. The interview results were largely aligned with the quantitative findings. They confirmed the beneficial effect of supportive and participative leadership styles on job satisfaction, and highlighted the detrimental effect of the directive style. In phase 3, the meta-inferences gained from merging the outcomes of Phase 2 were validated in ABC’s context through the discussions with ABC executives. These yielded three feasible action plans with six strategies to tackle employee turnover under leadership styles and job satisfaction categories: taking leadership training, facilitating effective communication systems (changing the frequencies and mode of the communications), and providing non-monetary rewards (free snacks, job titles, and celebrating personal and work milestones). In phase 4, the suggested action plans are evaluated and consideration is given for future research.
Overall, this MMAR study fulfilled its objective of producing context-specific outcomes to my real work context. At the same time, it has contributed to the body of knowledge by extending the Western and large organisation oriented turnover study, to the small ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand. However, the suggested strategies are not the final solutions to the problem, and measuring their effect remains a task for future research as the second cycle of action research (AR).
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"The LORD bless you and keep you; the LORD make his face shine upon you and be gracious to you; the LORD turn his face toward you and give you peace."  [Numbers 6:24-26 : NIV]

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CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION
1. Introduction

This chapter introduces an overview of the present study. It starts with the context of the research project including the organizational and national background. Following this, it outlines the research problem, research questions and goals. It then briefly discusses action research as the methodological framework of this study. The chapter is finalised by outlining the structure of the thesis.

1.2 Research Background

As a minority migrant and a family member of an ethnic entrepreneur in New Zealand, I have always had a particular interest in raising the competitive advantage of minority immigrant-run firms, especially small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) that provide low-wage and low-skill jobs. This, coupled with my learning as a scholarly practitioner at the Doctor of Business Administration programme (DBA) in the University of Liverpool, sparked my interest in the area of high employee turnover and paved the way for the current study to find relevant as well as rigorous solutions to the problem that has troubled my company for many years.

This action research study is conducted primarily in a small ethnic Asian enterprise setting that provides commercial cleaning and shopping trolley collection services in New Zealand. This target company, ABC Ltd (pseudonym) was originally founded as a commercial cleaning company by two South Korean immigrants in 1997. As first generation immigrants who spoke little English and had limited skills and capital, cleaning was the only available job for them. After working as cleaners for a while, they set up their own cleaning company. Compared to its humble beginning, its sales have been grown considerably, and its work scope has expanded to a shopping trolley collection service which hires more than 30 part time and full time employees. Commercial cleaning and shopping trolley collection services are classified as “Administration and support services” under the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification 2006 according to Statistics New Zealand (2016). It includes building cleaning, pest control, lawn mowing and other support services in relation to property maintenance. The profile of this industry is low. Administration and support services account for four percent of New Zealand industries and hired seven percent of the total workforce or 92,350 people in February 2013 (Statistics New Zealand, 2015).

Typical characteristics of this industry are fierce competition, outsourcing trends and the stigma attached to the jobs. Waldinger, Aldrich, and Ward (1990:27) identified “small capital-to-labour ratios” continuously made the entry barrier lower, which drew many immigrants to choose the same industry. It then becomes a source of price-cutting competition. The trend of outsourcing fuels this already high competition making property service providers operate on a razor thin margin (No vacuum: Cleaning up cleaning contracts, 2008). These symptoms force business owners to find employees at the lowest pay scale to save expenses, which in turn, triggers a high employee turnover problem at the
companies. Let alone these external factors, the ‘3Ds’ - the dirty, dangerous and difficult nature of the work and low career aspiration are other key contributors to the high turnover symptom in ABC. Pushing trolleys or cleaning floors is distant from providing a sense of career fulfilment. These jobs are often described as “dead end jobs” (Kohl & Stephens, 1989:126), which pay a minimum wage, irrespective of length of service with the firm and previous experience, and no prospect of upward mobility or wage increase within the job classification. Thus, employees are ready to leave whenever better opportunities arise. The aforementioned characteristics are the main drivers that lead to the high employee attrition rate of the company. For similar reasons, high employee turnover is also a common and chronic problem in many small ethnic firms that face comparable challenges to ABC.

New Zealand is a multi-ethnic country. It has been actively accepting immigrants to entice better skills and reduce labour shortages. However, many Asian immigrants have chosen to run their own businesses after being denied their professional credentials of their home country, and experiencing language and cultural obstacles in their new host country (Basu & Altinay, 2002; You, 1995; Min, 1984; Lofstrom, 2002). Statistics New Zealand's 2013 data are aligned with the fact that the proportion of South Korean self-employer to employer was 32.5 percent (Statistics NZ, 2014a) and Chinese was 21.6 percent (Statistics NZ, 2014b), compared to New Zealand European which is 18.7 percent (Statistics NZ, 2014a). Asian owned enterprises in New Zealand are characterized by being small or small-to-medium in size and clustered in labour intensive industries such as retail trade, accommodation and food services, support services and manufacturing. According to the 2013 census of New Zealand Statistics, the proportion of Asians who work in these areas is much higher at 28 percent (Koreans, 39 percent) than New Zealand Europeans (15 percent) (Statistics NZ, 2014e, 2014b, 2014e). These characteristics happen because of the decline of interest in these areas by mainstream people (Waldinger, Aldrich, & Ward, 1990) as well as the early stage of the immigrant work force having a lack of English proficiency, low skills and low capital. This pushes them to look for industries with low entry barriers (You, 1995). The data from the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment (MBIE) of New Zealand (2014) is consistent with this argument that turnover rate is usually higher in smaller firms. This is because they have a significant proportion of seasonal and temporary workers due to its labour-intensive nature, as well as lack of internal promotional and career opportunities. Employee turnover is a costly problem for all organizations regardless of type and size (Abdullah et al., 2007; Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010; Gialuisi & Coetzer, 2013; Firth et al., 2004); however, loss of valuable employees could be even more severe for the small ethnic firms that rely heavily on human labour input (Way, 2002). Even though the profile of ethnic businesses is not big in New Zealand, these companies are increasingly accepted as important drivers for economic growth and the economy’s regeneration (Assudani, 2009). In addition, given the facts that migrant inflows to New Zealand are ever increasing and around 97 percent of companies are small enterprises in New Zealand (MBIE, 2014), due attention should be paid to these small ethnic companies. Therefore, it is important to understand the problems that ethnic entrepreneurs face and find solutions because their success is closely related to the success of the New Zealand economy as an economy enabler (MBIE, 2014).
1.3 Statement of the Problem

To identify the problem, I embarked on discussions with the top managers of ABC. After a series of open-ended questions and discussions, the top managers were aware that excessive turnover was a problem; however, they viewed the problem as a natural phenomenon considering the physically hard, manual nature of the work and the stigma attached to it. The work at ABC is “dead end jobs” (Kohl & Stephens, 1989:126). It is physically demanding and pays the minimum wage regardless of the length of tenure at the company, previous work experience, and with no prospect of promotion or pay increase within the job classification. The young employees of ABC hardly regard their job as their career, and the older employees just work there because they cannot find a better alternative due to their old age or lack of skills and English proficiency. Both of these groups tend to leave whenever a better opportunity arises. Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya (1985) supported this phenomenon that workers at the lower end of the pay scale showed higher mobility to even a slightly better work alternative. Given this, it is not surprising to find that management has never attempted to address this problem until discussing this project. They viewed the problem as unavoidable. The perception that no professional management skills were required for this low-skilled job had made them ignore the problem for many years. A relatively successful history of management so far is another factor that made them shy away from investing time and money to address this problem.

To some extent, high turnover in small ethnic businesses is unavoidable and expected. Some scholars even argued that staff turnover could be helpful when new employees can be found and trained quickly at relatively low cost (Dalton & Todor, 1982). It helps save money by reducing wages and fringe benefits for senior employees. Therefore, high employee turnover per se may not be a problem, but an excessive level of employee turnover could be. ABC’s employee turnover rate hovered around 82 percent in 2015, while the industry average stood at 27.4 percent and around 15 percent in small to medium sized companies in 2012 (MBIE, 2014). Frequent staff turnover may be beneficial in terms of hard dollar value as Dalton and Todor (1982) argued. Nevertheless, even with minimal costs for recruiting and training, excessive turnover can be costly if it happens frequently. In addition, the linear hard dollar value calculation missed huge direct and indirect consequences arising from high employee turnover. High employee turnover can increase hiring and training costs, workloads of co-workers left behind, disruption of work routine, demoralization of remaining staff members, and negative public image of the company (Mowday, 1984; Singh & Loncar, 2010; Waldman et al., 2004). In particular, the consequences of losing valuable employees could be damaging to small companies that heavily rely on employees’ contribution to the firm’s knowledge, skills and capabilities. Employees are the main source of a small firm’s growth, competitiveness and responsiveness to external stimulus (Sels et al., 2006; Way, 2002). In this regard, it is important to clarify at this juncture that my research problem is not a high turnover problem, but an excessively high turnover problem. This extreme level of turnover definitely needs to be controlled to stop a major drain on company resources.
As the first step, I have engaged with the top managers of the company. Due to the small size of the company and the family business environment, most of discussions were undertaken in an informal setting. We sometimes have great conversations at the dinner table after the meal, but mostly at our weekly meeting before pay day that falls on every Wednesday. In this meeting, we exchange information and ideas, and keep track of issues and needs. This regular weekly meeting is the perfect opportunity for me to conduct discussions for my research. It did not take long to find employee turnover as the pressing problem at the company. To the question asking the biggest sore spot of the company, Phillip (pseudonym), chief operation manager of ABC, instantly pointed out the problem of frequent staff changes. He expressed it as “driving him insane”. What he meant was the recent two disastrous incidents caused by new hires. They were caught by customers failing to follow the safety rules when driving a trailer for trolley collection. Unfortunately, they did not report this to our management, which escalated into a huge investigation fiasco. For the root cause of the problem, Phillip pointed his fingers at thin margins that drove the company to hire low skilled temporary workers in order to save costs. The frequent changes of trained workers have been causing huge problems at the company. However, he also well understood the need of hiring temporary staff on a minimum wage to cope with low margins. His argument is supported by some researchers like Dalton and Todor (1982) that a certain amount of turnover can be beneficial to a company that cannot afford wage increases or fringe benefits for senior workers especially, to companies that offer low-end jobs that can be easily replaced. Dalton and Todor (1979) think it may be sensible to cope with some level of turnover in these firms. Dalton and Todor (1979) think it may be sensible to cope with some level of turnover in these firms.

The Joseph (Pseudonym), Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the company also agreed with Phillip. In addition to Phillip's point, he presented viewed that physically hard work nature and stigma attached to the jobs together with the low pay, were behind the high turnover problem. He felt that the above two incidents were critical enough to drive the company to a brink of contract termination. He said that his heart was still pounding when he thought about those incidents. As a person assuming a human resources management, he viewed the recent two extreme cases as being only the tip of the iceberg. At the same time, Joseph showed a concern with the direct and indirect costs and time spent in relation to the frequent changes in the workers. He spent more than a third of his working hours in recruiting, training and terminating staff. The paperwork including holiday payments, new tax code loading, police clearance checks etc., was sometimes overwhelming for him.

He knows the high turnover has been the problem, and feels that more reliable human resource management is required. However, he felt that the turnover problem would never get fixed until we give up this business. When asked the main intervention strategy necessary to prevent high turnover, Joseph quickly quipped: “Money!”, then he goes on.

It is almost impossible to stop people from quitting the job in our company. Who on earth, would wish to work in this low-waged job forever? I have a good one (employee) who asked for more money to stay here. Although I know he is
a good one, I rejected his offer. As you know, Rebecca, we cannot afford to pay more than minimum wage to retain the staff with this current razor-thin margin. In addition, our work requires pretty much basic skills. I know it is important to keep good staff members to avoid similar incidents (the two disastrous incidents), but then more money. It’s nonsense to pay huge money for these basic skilled workers I think.

As outlined above, my initial discussions with the top managers were not that successful. I felt stuck at the end of the first few discussion sessions. However, at the end of the six rounds of the discussions, I sensed some changes in their attitudes. To my reiteration for the needs of solving the turnover problem and of finding better, effective and affordable solutions for ABC, Joseph made a short pause, and then nodded commented:

Yes, everybody knows it's a problem, and of course I want to solve it! I am getting sick of the frequent changes of the staff members. I am not sure if we can solve this problem, but maybe trying doesn't harm. It's better than nothing! We won't lose anything anyway.

They seemed to start thinking that more reliable human resource management would be needed although they did not know what steps needed to be taken. I found this was good soil for implementing the action research. The employee turnover rate is generally higher in labour intensive industries in New Zealand (e.g. MBEI, 2014). To some extent, they create high employee turnover on purpose as a cost-cutting strategy (Dalton & Todor, 1982). However, even though the replacement cost is low and hard dollar benefit can be gained from the high staff turnover, an excessively high rate inevitably hurts the bottom line of the company. Furthermore, apart from this direct consequence, the indirect repercussions were immense. The inexperienced workers have been causing serious problems at the company and have become a threatening factor for the survival of ABC by losing its major contracts. In this light, it is pressing for ABC to find ways to tackle the employee separation problem. Based on this finding, this study attempts to develop effective intervention strategies to limit high employee turnover intention in ABC. The problem statement is thus formulated as follows.

What are effective intervening strategies for the high employee turnover intention in ABC and other ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand?

1.4 Action research

For the present study, action research (AR) provides a methodological framework. Unlike positivist research that emphasizes value-free knowledge with generalizable outcomes, the interest of action research lies in producing actionable knowledge to a complex organizational problem (Coghlan & Brannick, 2010; Greenwood & Levin, 2007; Ivankova, 2015). Coghlan and Brannick (2010) stress the importance of extrapolation from the specific situation to the more general situation in action research to ensure rigour. Coghlan and
Brannick (2010) illustrate that there are two parallel cycles of action research – core and thesis action research – operating in any action research project. Perry and Zuber-Skerritt (1992) enunciate that core action research focuses on real problem solving whereas thesis action research emphasizes academic writing. Both action research projects involve a cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting (Perry & Zuber-Skerritt, 1992:201). Coghlan and Brannick (2010:12) call the learning made from these two action research cycles "meta-learning" and stress the importance of developing academic knowledge from a core action research project while solving a real work context problem. Action research takes place in cycles, in which one phase leads to another, and is recurring many times. The end of the cycle generally feeds to the beginning of another cycle (Coghlan & Brannick, 2010; Ivankova, 2015).

As outlined, this study will implement only one cycle; however, it will adopt multiple strands of quantitative and qualitative approaches to add to the rigour and credibility of the study. This type of action research is called multistrand mixed methods action research (multistrand MMAR) according to Ivankova (2015). It will allow me to achieve both core and thesis action research in a reliable manner. Figure 1 shows Coghlan and Brannick's action research cycle that I would like to employ in this study.

**Figure 1 Action research cycle deployed in this research**

Based on Coghlan and Brannick’s AR cycle (2010)

### 1.5 Research Goals and Objectives

The overall goal of this MMAR inquiry is to identify context specific and theoretically robust solutions for the high staff turnover problem found in ABC by following the four phases of the AR cycle.
The goal of Phase 1 (constructing) is to explore the problem and context, and to identify candidate intervening variables to tackle the problem.

The goal of Phase 2 (planning action) is to identify the variables that are effective in tempering high turnover intention and the improvement areas in applying the found-to-be effective variables in ABC.

The goal of Phase 3 (taking action) is to validate the findings of Phase 2 in the context of ABC by hearing the voices of the target company's top managers.

The goal of Phase 4 (evaluating action) is to reflect and evaluate the taken actions. Based on the meta-inference gained at the end of the one cycle of AR, the study’s implications, limitations and future research will be examined.

1.6 Research Questions

This study will be conducted sequentially following the four phases of the AR cycle. The research questions of one phase, are thus built based on the previous phase’s research outcome. Under the overarching question below, this study employs a series of research questions to achieve the objectives over four phases during the course of the study as follows:

The overall research question for this MMAR study is:

What are effective intervening strategies for the high employee turnover intention in ABC and other ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand?

In the constructing stage, Phase 1:

1. What is the most pressing problem for ABC to address?
2. What are the relevant variables to consider to limit the high employee turnover problem in ABC?

The constructing phase informed the three variables relevant to reduce turnover intention: leadership styles, employee job satisfaction and the degree of ethnic Asian entrepreneurship (co-ethnic community involvement of the business owners).

Phase 2 (Action planning), will be carried out using a mixed methods approach to gain cross validated outcomes. The quantitative study will form the first component of Phase 2 and be designed to hear external views on the problem. On the other hand, the qualitative component will shape the second part and be conducted to obtain internal views to complement and corroborate the findings of the quantitative study.

The following questions will guide the quantitative study of Phase 2.
1. What are the most dominant leadership styles displayed by ethnic Asian entrepreneurs in New Zealand, as per the perceptions of their employees?
2. What impact do different types of leadership styles have on employee job satisfaction in ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand?
3. What impact do different types of leadership styles have on employee turnover intention in ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand?
4. What impact does ethnic Asian ethnic entrepreneurs’ level of co-ethnic involvement have on employee turnover intention in ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand?
5. What is the relationship between employee job satisfaction and turnover intention in ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand?

The qualitative component will be carried out posing the following questions.

1. What are the most dominant leadership styles displayed by ABC’s top managers, as per the perceptions of their employees?
2. What is the level of job satisfaction of ABC employees under the different leadership styles of ABC’s top managers and its antecedents?
3. What is the level of turnover intention of ABC employees and its antecedents?

The Phase 3 (taking actions), will be designed to validate the merged outcomes obtained from Phase 2 in ABC’s context. The following research questions will guide Phase 3.

1. What are the recurring and meaningful themes arising from the merged outcomes of the survey and employee interviews?
2. What are the salient gaps and concerns in ABC in developing the found-to-be effective intervening variables from the previous phase?
3. What are affordable and feasible action plans for ABC to implement to intervene in the high turnover problem?

Phase 4 (evaluating actions), will be carried out to assess the taken actions and the implications of the study.

1. What is the overall learning by taking the actions (developing intervention strategies) for ABC?
2. What are the theoretical and practical implications of the study?
3. What are the limitations and future study areas?

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

This research project is comprised of seven chapters. The remainder of the thesis is structured as follows.
Chapter 2 provides a literature review that offers a frame of reference for identifying the factors affecting high employee turnover in small ethnic companies that mostly involved with labour intensive services. The five streams of literature that are considered relevant to this study are explored: employee turnover intention, job satisfaction, leadership styles, Asian culture and ethnic entrepreneurship. Drawing on the findings of the review and the research gaps, a conceptual model and hypotheses for the quantitative part of the research are generated to explain the effect of and relationship between the emerged variables.

Chapter 3 portrays the methodology and design chosen for this research study. It provides a detailed account of the chosen multistrand MMAR methodology including the philosophical stance of the researcher, the rationale for the choice and my endeavours to ensure methodological rigour. Then follows a detailed description of the research design, procedure and methods used for quantitative and qualitative components that spread over the four phases of AR cycle. In addition, my role as the researcher, and ethical considerations are discussed.

Chapter 4 illustrates the results of the quantitative component of Phase 2 (action planning). The quantitative component is deployed by administering a survey of employees of Asian companies in New Zealand. The five hypotheses are tested and analyzed using the quantitative data.

Chapter 5 documents the outcomes of the qualitative component of Phase 2 (action planning). The qualitative study is conducted using semi-structured interviews with ABC’s employees by phone. The key themes arising from the qualitative data are discussed, which help corroborate the quantitative findings and illuminate the areas for improvement in ABC to reduce high employee withdrawal intention.

Chapter 6 includes the research outcomes gained from Phase 3 (action taking) and Phase 4 (action evaluation). Phase 3 is started by merging the outcomes of the mixed studies in Phase 2. The discussions with ABC’s top management based on the congregated outcomes are then conducted to validate the findings. As a result, the feasible intervention strategies for the high turnover problem are developed as actions for the project. Evaluation and reflection on the taken actions (proposed intervention plans) then follow as a wrap-up phase.

Chapter 7 discusses the study's implications and limitations coupled with future study areas.

1.8 Reflection and Concluding Thoughts

This chapter provides a brief overview of this research project. It begins by discussing the research context and background, based on which overarching research objectives are developed. This study aims to develop rigorous and relevant intervening strategies for the
excessively high turnover problem experienced by ABC and other small ethnic companies in New Zealand. High labour turnover is such a common problem in many companies, but particularly prevalent in small ethnic Asian companies. This is because of their unique contextual and job characteristics: clustering around labour intensive services and low wage services, and the high portion of temporary or part-time staff (e.g. Kohl & Stephens, 1989:126; MBIE, 2014). Although high turnover is one of the most common problems, it is also regarded as one of the most intractable problems to tackle (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Before beginning the research, I first applied for an ethics approval, which made me understand key aspects that I should be aware of when collecting data from human participants. After several back-and-forth procedures, I was managed to gain the approval, and finally started the research. The study began posing the following questions: 'What is a sore issue for the company?' 'What are the reasons behind the problem?' 'What are possible and feasible solutions to tackle the issue?' To be able to answer these questions, I first conducted a series of open discussions with the top managers of the target company. Unlike my initial optimistic expectation, I had a rocky start despite unanimous and absolute support from our management. I was greatly embarrassed to hear a joke like cynicism from one of the executives while I was identifying the problem noted in Section 1.3. It stirred the confidence inside me. After the talk with the top manager, I returned to my desk and sat still for some time. My mind was blank. On that night, my reflection note read as follows.

Ah... I am not sure, maybe I chose a wrong topic this time again... Is there really no good solution but paying more money?

The next morning, I woke up in a depressed mood thinking of the last night's sceptical comments made by one of ABC's top managers. I mumbled to myself, "what a wicked problem!" When this mumble hit my ear, I instantly cried. "Wicked? yes, it's wicked!" It reminded me of Grint's (2005:1473) definition of a “wicked problem.” Grint explains that the wicked problem is complex and intractable, and thus, it has no right answer, but only better alternatives. My role as a scholar-practitioner is creating the “space for a problem transition” (Grint, 2005:1491) to make problem more tame-able. With this reflection, I restored my confidence to some extent. The easy options like a pay rise seemed plausible, but they are actually unrealistic and unaffordable for a small company with limited resources like ABC. Moreover, if the answer is easily found, then this problem may not be my attention anyway. To the research problem I have identified, my role as a scholar-practitioner is finding “better alternatives” (Grint, 2005:1473) rather than the right answer by applying the right authority and tools according to the problem and context. Furthermore, identifying the best alternative was not my job only, but ours. However, our executives were not convinced of the possibility of solving the turnover problem at first. They felt higher pay or financial benefits were the only answer to the problem. However, I rejected these easy solutions because they are linear solutions to this complex problem. Moreover, it is not suitable for small companies with limited resources and capital as well. I wanted to have a more innovative, feasible, and longer lasting solution. I reflected as follows on that day.
Yes, money may be one of the biggest motivations to make people happy with the job. However, really? How many people can put up with an unhappy work environment because of money? Especially young people nowadays!

While I was writing this comment, I realised that the real problem was not the high turnover problem, but the management's mindset. A few days later, I braved myself and brought the subject again to the table. Luckily, their responses were more favourable than last time, and further improved as the discussions progressed. In short, the management wanted to solve the problem; however, they felt it was not a fixable problem because it was outside their control. To be exact, they thought it was a natural phenomenon. At the end of our six discussions, I confirmed their willingness to solve this turnover problem and was reassured by their support for finding effective and affordable solutions for ABC. Joseph led the way and encouraged us to work together because there would be nothing to lose by trying it. Indeed, an array of open and informal discussions allowed the management to be aware of the context of the work problem, and to get them to buy-in to the next step of tackling the problem. To be able to gain a direction to solve the problem, I then needed to inspect previous works of employee turnover and possible intervention strategies in a similar context to ABC. In the subsequent chapter, I thus review the findings of, and gaps in, the existing literature on turnover and possible intervening variables to curtail the high turnover problem in the target company.
CHAPTER 2:
LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings gained from reviewing the body of literature pertinent to employee turnover. The literature review revolves around the constructs that are deemed to be relevant to the interests of this research: employee turnover, job satisfaction, leadership styles, National culture and ethnic entrepreneurship. Each construct is inspected around the definition, the major schools of thought and the impact of each construct on staff turnover focusing on the small or labour intensive business context. The lessons learned from extant literature navigate me to discover literature gaps and formulate the conceptual framework of the study as well as the hypotheses. The chapter concludes by discussing how these inform the research design.

2.2 Employee Turnover

2.2.1 Employee Turnover

Employee turnover is defined as "the change of workers around the labour market, between jobs and companies" (Burgess, 1998:55). Employee turnover exists in two different forms: voluntary (Price, 1977 cited in Price & Mueller, 1981:544) and involuntary turnover (Price & Mueller, 1981:544). Voluntary turnover means employees leave the job by choice. This is also explained as an unwanted loss of employees from the employer's perspective (Campion, 1991). On the other hand, involuntary turnover can refer to employees leaving the job, but not by their own will, such as dismissal as a result of downsizing, firing or compulsory retirement resulting from a policy change (Campion, 1991). Some scholars define voluntary turnover as dysfunctional and involuntary turnover as functional (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman 2010). While dysfunctional turnover happens when valued employees leave, functional turnover happens when an unproductive employee departs. The interest of this study lies in voluntary turnover because it impacts the most on the business operation and performance (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010; Abdullah et al., 2007; Gialuisi & Coetzer, 2013).

There is some argument that high employee turnover could be beneficial to a company that offers low skilled jobs and fills the positions relatively quickly (Dalton & Todor, 1982). From letting senior employees leave, the organisation may reduce spending on wages and fringe benefits for these employees; however, the linear financial calculation may not be enough to justify high tangible and intangible costs arising from frequent employee departure. The consequences of losing valuable employees are significant, which is supported by numerous researchers (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010). Apart from the direct cost of recruitment, severance pay and training, indirect costs such as loss of productivity from work disruption and loss of valuable knowledge and expertise are invaluable (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010; Firth et al., 2004). Many scholars argue that these negative consequences lower the productivity and competitiveness of a firm, thereby
hampering the growth and success of a small business (Abdullah et al., 2007; Gialuisi & Coetzer, 2013). It is generally accepted that employee turnover can be harmful for the firm’s growth and competitiveness (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010; Abdullah et al., 2007; Gialuisi & Coetzer, 2013). For this reason, turnover has received much attention by both scholars and practitioners, and has been a popular topic of management studies with prolific conceptual and theoretical models (Boles et al., 2012), which will be discussed in detail in Section 2.2.3. Furthermore, employee turnover has significant implications for people departing from their comfort zone. Let alone the stress and energy in finding a new job, settling into a new work environment after leaving a familiar workplace can be a challenging process for the departing employees professionally and personally (Boswell, Boudreau, & Tichy, 2005). As the above section illustrates, the topic of turnover is not only relevant from an organisational perspective, but also from that of individual employees (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). The following section will further examine factors impacting employees’ withdrawal intention by reviewing both theoretical and empirical studies.

2.2.2 Turnover Intention

The term ‘turnover intention’ refers to an employee’s willingness or desire to leave an organisation in the near future (Takase, 2010:4). Turnover intention has been explained using a range of different terms, such as a withdrawal or quitting propensity, an intention to leave (Dupré & Day, 2007; Firth et al., 2004; Price & Mueller, 1981; Singh & Loncar, 2010). Turnover intention can be regarded as the most crucial and immediate determinant of the actual turnover behaviours of employees (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Many pieces of research support that withdrawal intention is a good barometer to predict employee turnover behaviours (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Nei, Snyder, & Litwiller, 2014; Takase, 2010). Dallessio, Silverman, and Schuck (1986) argue that turnover intention plays a more significant role than the actual turnover for the employers. This is because it provides management with an opportunity to address the problem before the employees leave their occupation or organisation (Jovanovic, 1979). Therefore, an understanding of turnover intention prior to actual departure provides employers with an opportunity to tackle the problem (Dallessio, Silverman, & Schuck, 1986). This shows the need for spending more time on preventing employees from quitting before they leave. Due to this reason, this study adopts turnover intention as a baseline measurement of employees’ turnover behaviours as an essential precursor of actual turnover (Brown & Peterson, 1993). In the next section, I intend to explore major theories underpinning employee turnover intention. It will help possess holistic understanding of various variables that affect employee turnover intention.

2.2.3 Relevant Theories underpinning Employee Turnover Intention

There is an array of turnover theoretical frameworks and approaches that show the various variables that impact employee turnover. The first research into turnover dates back to 1958. Conducted by March and Simon (1958), it offers two distinct determinants of voluntary turnover: the desirability and ease of movement. These two variables have been evolved and
refined as job satisfaction and perceived job alternatives (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). To understand the role of these two variables, March and Simon (1958) investigated a number of precursors to turnover such as age, gender and tenure on perceived ease of movement, or the organization size and job satisfaction on perceived desirability of movement.

Porter and Steers' (1973) met expectation model is one of the most significant turnover models that illustrate the pivotal role of job satisfaction in an employee's decision to leave (Holtom et al., 2008). The model explains that the degree of gap between the expectation and actual outcome gained stimulates an employee’s decision to stay or leave. Porter and Steers (1973:152) suggested general categories of turnover antecedents that affect employee turnover decisions: organization-wide factors (e.g., wage, promotional opportunities), immediate work environment factors (e.g., leadership style and work group size), job-related factors (e.g., task repetitiveness and autonomy), and personal factors (e.g., age and tenure).

While previous turnover models have focused on the two key factors, job satisfaction and job alternatives, Mobley (1977) proposed a turnover model that is structurally similar to March and Simon's turnover model, but more advanced regarding explaining termination decision processes within the cognitive process (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978:411) explained this model using a simplified framework consisting of eight variables such as age, job tenure, employee satisfaction (with work, pay, supervision, promotion, co-workers, and overall), probability of searching an alternative, thinking of withdrawal, the intention to search, the intention to withdraw, and actual withdrawal. Price and Mueller (1981:544) have upgraded Price's (1977 cited in Price & Mueller, 1981) comprehensive turnover model that has inspected the impact of an array of turnover determinants such as pay, communication, routinization, participation, integration, distributive justice, advancement opportunity and so forth. The authors then concluded the four strongest turnover antecedents as an intention to stay, job satisfaction, job opportunity, and general training (Price & Mueller, 1981:559). Their model is presented as below.

Figure 2 Causal Model of Turnover (Price and Muller, 1981:547)
Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya’s (1985) turnover model paved the way for another conceptual advancement from traditional turnover models (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Hulin and his colleagues’ (1985) model explains that employee dissatisfaction leads to psychological and behavioural quitting. Unhappy employees exhibit their dissatisfaction using various ways such as lateness, reducing their contribution or seeking better promotional opportunities apart from actual behavioural withdrawal (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). Actual turnover is one of many ways for employees to deal with their dissatisfaction. They also identified that the effect of employment alternatives and satisfaction could be substantially different from the diverse population (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). For example, marginal and temporary workers are significantly affected by alternative job opportunities, whereas permanent full-time workers are affected by both job alternatives and satisfaction (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). Apart from the job alternatives and satisfaction, they proposed other variables such as luck, inertia, different foci and attitude as a driver of the employee turnover decision, although they did not clarify the interrelations among these variables and employee turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

Another advancement of the turnover model was made by Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) unfolding model of turnover. This model introduced three distinct variables – job dissatisfaction, job search and shocks that intertwine with an employee's termination decision creating five different turnover paths 1, 2, 3, 4a, and 4b. Built on image theory, the model illustrates that employees do not always decide to quit because of job dissatisfaction, but there are many other factors including a distinctive concept: ‘shock’ (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Shock is a 'jarring' event that prompts employees to leave the status quo to find a new job (Lee & Mitchell, 1994:61). Path 1 applies to employees who experience a shock that matches their prior decision frame or plan (or script) such as a planned pregnancy. It then makes them simply respond to the planned shock and leave without searching for a job. Paths 2 and 3 are also initiated by a shock but this shock is caused by image violation, which leads the concerned employees to terminate from a job. Employees in Path 2 quit without having a prior job arrangement, but, on the other hand, those in Path 3 quit only after securing a better job than the current one. Paths 4a and 4b are similar to the traditional turnover process. An employee's decision to leave is triggered by a low level of job satisfaction. While employees in Path 4a depart without having job alternatives, those in Path 4b leave after having the alternatives (Lee & Mitchell, 1994:61). The different decision-making paths of employee’s voluntary turnover in Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) unfolding model are presented in Appendix J. This model shows that voluntary turnover occurs in many forms and not necessarily only because of job dissatisfaction or job alternatives. As this model's name lends, it espouses a new perspective of arriving at voluntary turnover by putting various turnover antecedents and processes in a rational framework together. Lee and Mitchell (1994) grouped various determinates of employee turnover into two broad categories: ‘pull’ and ‘push’ factors or internal and external factors, in their unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover theory. The pull factors refer to external or macro variables that make employees leave the company, and include conditions...
of the labour market and job alternatives. On the other hand, push factors are internal to the employee or are micro variables, and include psychological factors like job perception, attitude and behaviours that drive employees to quit the job. Aside from these two factors, Lee and Mitchell (1994) argued that certain factors are neither a push nor a pull factor in explaining employee turnover. These can be habit, schemas and shocks that are diverse and unexpected random events.

The scope of turnover research has continuously broadened and several scholars have shifted their focus from job satisfaction to new variables such as contextual and personal variables. While the contextual variables cover organization-level variables such as organizational culture and reward systems, personal variables include worker's interaction with their environment such as person-organization fit or stress (Holton, Lee, & Tidd, 2002). For example, O'Reilly III, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) identified that when personal value and organisational value do not match, it will likely cause a quitting. Wright and Cropanzano’s (1998) longitudinal study on 52 social welfare workers demonstrated that emotional exhaustion was related to both performance and employees’ withdrawal intention.

The above examination on an array of theoretical frameworks and approaches on turnover indicates that various variables impact employee turnover intention and its effects differ by different population (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). However, most of these turnover studies have been conducted and evolved in large work contexts in an Anglo Saxon environment (Cardon & Stevens, 2004; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Eady & Nicholls, 2011; Gialuisi & Coetzer, 2013). The context of this study however differs greatly from that in existing literature. The research is conducted in a small ethnic Asian firm in New Zealand that offers labour intensive services and low pay scales, and temporary workers are over-represented. It is, therefore important to understand the context of ABC to be able to understand what causes turnover in the target group of this study. In this regard, I think it would be advantageous to examine major turnover antecedents focusing on the particular research context. It will allow identifying which variables I should pay attention to, to be able to solve the high turnover problem in small Asian companies.

2.2.4 Factors Affecting Turnover in Low-paying Jobs/ Small Companies

In order to cut down employee turnover rate, it is necessary to identify exactly which factors contribute to the high turnover problem for the concerned company. Appelbaum and Schmitt (2009:1907) defined the following occupations as low-paid and low-skill jobs: housekeepers, cleaners, nursing assistants, cashiers and stock or sales clerks, process operatives in meat and confectionary factories and call centres, and sales staff. Ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand tend to fall into these low wage industry groups. New Zealand Statistics (Statistics NZ, 2014e; 2014b; 2014e) shows that many ethnic companies are mainly small in size (MBIE, 2014) and engage in labour intensive industries such as retail trade, administrative service, and accommodation and food industries services (Statistics NZ, 2014e; 2014b; 2014e). The main jobs that ABC provides are commercial cleaning and trolley collection, which fall in the low-pay and low-skill jobs categories as well.
Due to significant interest in employee turnover, it is not hard to find turnover studies on commitment-based employment that have long-term and full-time work arrangements. Moreover, it is also not difficult to find those larger companies that offer low-pay and low-skill services. However, those focusing on small ethnic companies in the low paying industries are scarce despite their huge presence (MBIE, 2014). It is not surprising to find a significant ignorance in both scholars and practitioners alike in these companies given the fact that they were relatively low in profile in the New Zealand economy (MBIE, 2014). In addition, there is no incentive for these low value added small businesses to invest extra money and resources to conduct research to tackle their business problems (e.g., Milman, 2002; Dill, Morgan, & Marshall, 2013). Many of them are at the level of mere survival, rather than of excellence (Pearson, 2017). For this reason, I have focused on studies on low-skill and low-wage workers regardless of the size of the company. The nature and attributes of ABC's services largely coincide with those of low paying jobs. ABC hires overwhelmingly young and short-term workers. The wages of cleaners and pushers belong to the minimum wage threshold that have no fringe benefits or advancement opportunities (e.g., Appelbaum, & Schmitt, 2009; Ellingson, Tews, & Dachner, 2016). In this regard, I do not think it deviates much from the characteristics of ABC, the target company of this research. Based on this investigation, I examine the effect of the following factors on employee turnover in the subsequent section: demographic attributes (age and education levels), employment status (temporary or part-time), pay and rewards, and promotional opportunities focusing on low-pay and low-skill jobs or small companies in the following sections.

(1) Demographic factors (Age and Education levels)

A salient demographic feature of low wage workers is the large proportion of young workers (Ellingson, Tews, & Dachner, 2016). Ellingson, Tews, and Dachner's (2016) study on frontline workers in restaurants in a national chain showed that most workers are aged under 25 and part-time. The U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics’ (2015:1) report is consistent with their finding that minimum wage workers tend to be young comprising almost fifty percent of the minimum wage workers across the U.S in 2014. The effect of demographic variables on turnover has been studied by many scholars. In particular, the relationship between age and voluntary leaving in the literature showed some conflicting results depending on work groups. For example, Cooper and Payne (1965) found a positive relationship between older age and turnover in the blue collar work group in large international companies. Griffith, Hom, & Gaertner’s (2000:473) meta-analysis on turnover articles in the 1990s showed that age of workers had a different effect on executives and non-executive members. For example, a negative relationship exists between age and turnover for non-executive workers, whereas the relationship is positive for executive members. It indicates that older executives with relatively higher financial ability may leave the company early. Conversely, Naylor and Vincent (1959) discovered no relationship between these two variables among female clerical staff members. As outlined, age plays a different role on turnover, which is affected by many other variables such as work groups, job position, and size of the company. It
indicates that age itself may not be sufficient to predict an employee’s decision to leave.

With regard to education level, it is not unexpected to find a higher proportion of lower education workers in industries with dominant numbers of young workers. The low education levels closely interlock with the young age of the employees. The young people are amenable to basic tasks with repetitive and low pay work that does not have promotional opportunities and benefits (Appelbaum, & Schmitt, 2009; Ellingson, Tews, & Dachner, 2016). This is because they do not regard their current work as their full-time career, rather they involve in these works to earn money before they enter school or to gain experience for a better career (Ellingson, Tews, & Dachner, 2016). For its effect on turnover, some researchers showed that employees with higher levels of education quit more than those with lower levels of education (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Stearns and D'arcy's (2008) research on nurse assistants that is regarded as one of the low jobs, also showed that nurse assistants' higher level of education leads to higher probability of turnover intention. This symptom can be explained with the evidence found by Decker, Harris-Kojetin, and Bercovitz's (2009) study on turnover of 2,146 nurse assistances. Their research outcomes showed that highly educated staff experienced more conflict between the actual jobs and their expectation than those with lower education. It thus dropped their satisfaction level and then leads to greater withdrawal intention. However, looking at the immigrant firms’ contexts, the research outcomes are contrasting. Chiswick (1991) found that the higher levels of education in immigrants’ home countries was related to the longer length of tenure of the immigrant employees except the Hispanics group in their survey on 800 immigrant workers in the United States. Chiswick further revealed that verbal and reading comprehension fluency in English increased with the tenure of low-skilled immigrant workers in the United States. Mather et al.’s (2010) finding on the relationship between English fluency and employee turnover on immigrant workers in the nursery industry showed coincidence with the results of Chiswick’s empirical research. Despite much variation remains unexplained, it is clear that demographic and educational factors play their part in turnover. Nonetheless, these discrepancies in these studies show they are not sufficient to be considered as intervening variables to tackle high turnover intention in this study.

(2) Employment status (Temporary or Part-time Status)

Another common characteristic of employees in low paying industries is the significant portion of casual, short-term and part-time workers (Appelbaum, & Schmitt, 2009:1920). Temporary and part-time workers are particularly common in cleaning and housekeeping jobs in the accommodation and food industries (e.g. MBIE, 2014). These job groups are regarded as bottom level occupations in the UK, Germany, the Netherlands, and Demark (Appelbaum, & Schmitt, 2009). New Zealand is no exception. The industry group which ABC belongs to is an 'administrative service industry' that provides one of the highest labour-intensive jobs. It has towering numbers of seasonal or part-time workers that inevitably lead to high employee turnover (MBIE, 2014). Hiring temporary or part-time staff has both positive and negative aspects. On the positive side, they provide the flexibility to cope with slack periods and lower the cost accordingly (Appelbaum, & Schmitt, 2009). On
the negative side, it is the source of high employee turnover, and in turn, it heightens the direct and indirect costs of the firms. In addition, Stearns and DsArcy (2008) assert that temporary employees are generally less committed to their work than those with long-term employment status. The above investigation may partially explain the high employee turnover found in ABC. It revealed the needs for reviewing hiring practices of ABC.

(3) Pay and Rewards, and Promotional Opportunities

In regard to the relationship between higher pay and staff withdrawal intention in low wage industries, it may seem commonsense to think that better wages have a positive effect on lowering quitting intention. The positive impact of higher pay has been attested by many researchers. For example, Choi and Johantgen (2012) found that higher wages and better employee benefits have a positive impact on job satisfaction and a negative one on employee’s turnover intention among nursing assistants. Kathawala, Moore, and Elmuti (1990) discovered in their empirical research on workers in a small automobile plant that pay was the top factor for job satisfaction and motivation for both lower income workers and the higher income workers in the factory. The authors claimed that adequate pay played a pivotal role in making employees more motivated and satisfied. They agreed that money may not be the top priority for employee satisfaction and motivation; however, it should be in line with their expectation to prevent them from departing because the main purpose of having a job is to earn money. Smyth, Qingguo, and Xiaoxu's (2009) research also had the coinciding result that higher income has a negative impact on employee's withdrawal intentions among off-farm migrants in coastal cities in China. A similar outcome was found by Powell, Montgomery, & Cosgrove's (1994) research that higher pay reduces employee withdrawal rate for both high-skilled and low-skilled workers groups in early childhood education. The reason behind this positive effect of higher pay, is employees often viewed higher wages as a barometer of the value of their work (MacDonald, & Merrill, 2002). However, some researchers reveal conflicting opinions on the role of pay. Dockery and Barns (2005) discovered that people in professions like nursing were intrinsically motivated by the idea of helping others and pay has less priority. Seymour and Buscherhof (1991) supported this argument through their research on registered nurses who were willing to give up remuneration in favour of intrinsic rewards like good supervisors, relationship with colleagues, promotion and recognition.

The role of rewards or benefits on employee turnover intention in low wage industries has a similar effect to those of wages. There is much evidence in past studies showing a close negative tie between benefits and employee termination intention. For instance, Morgan, Dill, and Kalleberg’s (2013:802) mixed research supports that offering employee rewards is very important to stop the employees in “bad jobs” from leaving. The employees in 'bad jobs' are highly sensitive to even slightly better options (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Ribas, Dill, & Cohen, 2012). Rosen and colleagues' (2011) survey on nursing assistants in the USA showed a constructive effect of rewards as well. A provision of health insurance played a positive role on lowering the turnover intention as well as the actual turnover rate, but surprisingly, pay does not have any effect on withdrawal turnover.
intentions or actual turnover (Rosen et al., 2011). On the other hand, there are some limited empirical studies showing the opposite outcome. Powell, Montgomery, and Cosgrove (1994) identified that rewards or benefits had little impact on both skilled and non-skilled workers in an early childhood education, while pay was a good predictor of employee turnover intention. Researchers like Deci, Koestner, & Ryan (1999:628) suggested that reward could have a negative effect when the concerned employees take it as a 'controller'. However, when they take it positively, it then creates synergy and produces employee satisfaction. As examined above, there is strong evidence of positive impact of greater pay or rewards on employee job satisfaction and reducing turnover despite the presence of some negative evidence.

For the promotional opportunities, employees regard advancement opportunities as future rewards and the absence of the opportunities may produce detrimental employee behaviours. Seo, Ko, and Price (2004) demonstrated that a promotional chance is a strong predictor for South Korean nurses’ satisfaction. The authors viewed Korea’s strong hierarchical social sentiment that values seniority and hierarchy arising from its Confucianist background, was the reason behind this symptom. On the other hand, Griffith, Hom, Gaertner’s (2000) meta-analysis showed that an upward movement opportunity has low to medium impact on employee’s termination behaviours. As introduced in the previous section, despite some contrasting outcomes, it is generally accepted that opportunities to advance play a crucial role on reducing employee termination intention.

I have so far examined the factors affecting employee's decisions to depart in the context of low-pay and low-skill work focusing on small companies. The wide range of turnover antecedents can be grouped into three according to Khatri and Fern (2001): demographic factors, uncontrollable factors and controllable factors. Khatri and Fern (2001) made this classification in their empirical research on 48 Singaporean companies that engage in labour intensive businesses. In their study, the demographic construct covers age, gender, education, tenure and income level. Uncontrollable factors include perceived alternatives, job opportunity and job hopping. Controllable factors cover job satisfaction (pay, nature of work, supervision), organisational commitment, organisational justice (Khatri & Fern, 2001:57). Among these, putting an emphasis on the controllable variables is appropriate for my action research that seeks a practical solution to the problem. Demographic factors are very difficult for managers to modify or manipulate (Roelen, Koopmans & Groothoff, 2008). Bennett et al., (1993) agreed with this view, explaining that the demographics of the work force are relatively fixed because selecting employees by their race or gender can be discriminative and should be avoided. As for the uncontrollable factors, Khatri and Fern (2001) include job alternatives and job hopping. Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya (1985) found that marginal and temporary workers are greatly affected by job alternatives whereas full-time permanent workers are influenced by both job alternatives and satisfaction. On the other hand, Khatri and Fern's (2001) finding showed job alternatives had the least effect on the employee's decision to quit in the labour-intensive Singaporean companies whereas job hopping was found to have a great impact on employees' leaving. Job hopping can be explained using 'script' that triggers an impulsive withdrawal in Lee and Mitchell’s (1994)
unfolding turnover model. In any case, job alternatives or job hopping are largely outside the control of managers, thus unavoidable (Campion, 1991); and the uncontrollable factors are not the interest of this study. For the controllable factors, Khatri and Fern (2001:57) grouped intangible and psychological factors such as job satisfaction (with pay, work, and supervision), organisational commitment or organisational justice. In the same vein, but narrower in scope, Dotzour and Lengnick-Hall (1992) advise to pay attention on compensation, job satisfaction and supervisory support to reduce employee turnover. These three factors coincide with Khatri and Fern’s antecedents of job satisfaction in controllable factors. Compensation generally involves with some type of monetary reward such as pay-for-performance, fee splitting or profit sharing (Dotzour & Lengnick-Hall, 1992:219-220). Despite its universal like benefits, investing extra monetary benefits to retain employees may not be a sustainable answer for small companies that operate with limited resources and thin margins (Dotzour & Lengnick-Hall, 1992).

This, then, leaves job satisfaction and supervisory behaviour as plausible avenues to explore to tackle employees’ departure from small firms. It is important to inspect more affordable ways of motivating and satisfying the employees, in turn reducing their turnover. I thus further narrowed down candidate-intervening variables such as job satisfaction and supervisory styles. A wealth of studies suggest that job satisfaction (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Lee et al., 1996; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price & Mueller, 1981; Shaw, 1999; Williams & Hazer, 1986) and leadership styles (Beaver, 2003; Eady & Nicholls, 2011; Khatri & Fern, 2001; Perry, 2001) are good predictors of employees’ withdrawal intentions. In this regard, I will inspect the role of job satisfaction and leadership styles on turnover intentions in detail in the following sections.

2.3 Job Satisfaction

2.3.1 Job Satisfaction

Simply put, job satisfaction refers to the degree of satisfaction that employees feel toward their jobs (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006). Considering job satisfaction is personal feeling and attitude toward his or her job, it is inevitably affected by the individual’s own needs, expectations, norms and values. People tend to assess their jobs based upon factors that they think are important. Job satisfaction has been proven to be important for both employees and managers across many organisations and industries by many researchers (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Currivan, 1999; Lund, 2003; Wild, 1970; Vroom, 1962). For employees, job satisfaction has a significant consequence on the well-being of workers. For managers, job satisfaction is an important predictor to understanding employees’ behaviour (Jegadeesan, 2007). Satisfied workers are likely to be loyal to their company (Agho, Price & Mueller,
Given the crucial role of job satisfaction on organisational outcomes, it is worthwhile exploring the effect and factors affecting job satisfaction to get a clearer idea on which antecedents I should focus to address employee turnover in ABC.

### 2.3.2 Impact of Job Satisfaction

Similar to employee turnover, job satisfaction has been a key topic that both practitioners and academics are interested in (Currivan, 1999; Lund, 2003). This is because job satisfaction is closely related to many organisational phenomena including employee turnover (Agho, Price & Mueller, 1992; Chen et al., 2011; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010), organisational commitment and morale (Agho, Price, & Mueller, 1992; Hellman, 1997) and job performance (Battilana et al., 2010).

For its role on organisational outcomes, Sarwat et al.’s (2011) study of educational institutions in Pakistan concluded that satisfied employees get more motivated and generate better performance. Manzoor, Usman, and Naseem’s (2011) research on job satisfaction and job stress among university faculties in Pakistan found that staff with a higher degree of job satisfaction showed a higher degree of commitment. Tsai and Wu (2010) found improved performance among the satisfied hospital nurses in Taiwan. Yang’s (2009) study on sales employees in a large insurance firm in Taiwan also supported that job satisfaction was the significant and positive forecaster of organizational effectiveness and commitment while it reduced voluntary leaving. Brown and Lam’s (2008) meta-analysis also echoed the positive role of job satisfaction on service quality and customer satisfaction in the retail industry. Similar outcomes have been found in Singh and Loncar’s (2010) study on nurses’ turnover on 200 nurses in a unionized hospital that job satisfaction was a more critical factor than pay satisfaction. However, there are a few cases showing no or marginal impact of job satisfaction on organizational behaviour or performance. For example, Mohr and Puck’s (2007) research in Indian international joint ventures showed that job satisfaction had no significant association with a firms’ performance although it had a significant negative relationship with job stress and role conflict. In addition, Daily and Near’s (2000) study on CEO’s job satisfaction and life satisfaction showed no moderation impact on firm performance. Despite these limited negative results, much concrete evidence says loudly that high levels of job satisfaction are positively related to better organizational outcomes (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Firth et al., 2004; Hellman, 1997; Milman, 2002; Wild, 1970).

For the role of job satisfaction on turnover, numerous theoretical studies of turnover show that job satisfaction is a good predictor of turnover intentions (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Lee et al., 1996; Mobley et al., 1979; Mobley, 1977; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price & Mueller, 1981; Shaw, 1999; Williams & Hazer, 1986).
Porter et al. (1974) asserted that most turnover models put their focus on the role of job satisfaction to predict employee turnover. Lee and others (1996) argued that job satisfaction is virtually the most important factor in all turnover theories, and it acts as a predictor to voluntary leaving. The aforementioned theoretical argument has been supported throughout massive empirical studies as well. Ejere (2010) revealed that negative organisational effects such as absenteeism and lateness, and turnover decreased as the level of job satisfaction increased, in their study of public primary schools in Nigeria. McNall, Masuda, and Nicklin (2010) found that an employee’s intention to quit was caused because of lack of job satisfaction in their study on 220 employed working adults. El-Nahas, Abd-El-Salam, & Shawky’s (2013) survey on 455 employees in a big Egyptian company reported the significant and negative relationship between job satisfaction and withdrawal propensity. Their survey outcomes suggest when employees are happy with their job, they are less likely quit. Indeed, a great number of studies have revealed the powerful role of job satisfaction on curbing employee turnover, and the variation is consistently low (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Wild, 1970; Vroom, 1962).

For the factors affecting job satisfaction, different researchers have proposed various theoretical factors that affect employees’ job motivation and satisfaction. For example, theorists like Herzberg suggested two key factors, called motivators and hygiene factors, as the contributing factors to employees’ satisfaction (Chan & Baum, 2007). Herzberg (1968) developed the two-factor theory, or motivator-hygiene theory, based on Maslow’s theory of the hierarchy of needs. While Maslow’s hierarchy of needs focuses on different levels of human needs that lead to motivation and satisfaction, Herzberg’s theory focuses on the factors that lead to job satisfaction and motivation. Herzberg (1968) explained that motivators are satisfiers, which lead people to be satisfied with their job. The motivators are also called intrinsic factors because they are related to people’s psychological needs including a sense of achievement, recognition, intrinsic interest in the job, professional growth, and career aspiration. On the other hand, hygiene factors refer to "dissatisfiers" which lead people to be dissatisfied with their job. They stand for extrinsic factors because they are related to external work factors like supervision, pay, personal life, company policy and systems, interpersonal relationships at work, and work conditions (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009; Chuang, Dellmann-Jenkins, & Yin, 2009). This theory explains that these two factors are distinctly different rather than sitting on one continuum (Herzberg, 1968).

More recent studies on the cause of turnover have also revealed the various determinants of job satisfaction. Ghiselli, La Lopa, and Bai (2001) discovered that the level of respondents’ satisfaction increased as salary increased. Roelen, Koopmans and Groothoff’s (2008) research on job satisfaction, explored a number of different factors including co-workers, task diversity, supervisors, working conditions, workload, work time, work peace, and salary. Among many, they found that work-related factors such as task variety, co-workers, workload, and working conditions played a greater part in job satisfaction. Locke (1976)
explained that these different job facets are complex and interrelated in nature. Thus, researchers need to understand different job aspects to be able to understand job attitude. Franco et al. (2004) stressed the importance of taking into account local culture and socioeconomic contexts in motivational issues in their study of health workers’ motivation in hospitals in Jordan and Georgia. Their empirical tests in Jordan and Georgia that have salient cultural differences and socio-economic levels, measured the impacts of more than twenty motivational determinants. The outcome showed that the key determinants that were regarded as important were very similar in both countries. However, their impact varied between the two countries. For example, nurses and health professional workers in the smaller hospital were more satisfied than those in bigger hospital in Jordan. On the contrary, those in the bigger and more central hospital had a higher degree of satisfaction and commitment than those in the smaller hospital in Georgia. In addition, nurses in Jordan had very low pride and self-efficacy, however those in Georgia had very high pride, self-respect as well intrinsic job interest. These large differences among similar demographic groups in two countries suggested the need for taking into account local culture and context. Westover and Taylor (2010) also revealed from their longitudinal research on job satisfaction in five different countries that job satisfaction determinates, differed from country to country. Westover and Taylor argued that firms should be conscious of the individual differences and challenges in each industry and cultural sensitivity on these issues allows a company to shape a healthy work environment that enhances job satisfaction and reduce an employee’s intention to quit.

Indeed, job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon, which is influenced by various components like pay, working environment, job-related factors, democratic and personal factors and organisational commitment (Lane et al., 2010; Vidal, Valle and Aragón, 2007). However, the overlapped positive impact of job satisfaction suggests that managers may use job satisfaction as the intervening variable to reduce high turnover rate. How to motivate employees and make them satisfied is one of the hot topics for many employers because the survival and success of the company depends on it. Despite its evident advantages, motivating human beings is neither easy nor straightforward as it is affected by many contextual and environment factors. The following section will thus examine the antecedents of job satisfaction from a small and labour-intensive industry perspective to obtain more context-specific answers to the problem.

2.3.3 Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction in Low-paying Jobs/ Small Companies

It is crucial for managers to be aware of what factors motivate their workers to be able to make them satisfied and committed (Krüger & Rootman, 2010). As outlined above, the impact of employee satisfaction is significant to many organisational outcomes. The influence of unsatisfied employees can be damaging and it can threaten the productivity and even the survival of the companies (Manzoor, Usman, & Naseem, 2011; Sarwat et al., 2011; Tsai & Wu, 2010; Yang, 2009). To small or labour-intensive businesses that rely heavily on the performance of their workforce, its effect is even more far reaching (Krüger & Rootman, 2010).
However, motivating people is a complex job and there is no one-size-fits-all factor that makes all employees motivated and satisfied. It thus, was worthwhile exploring the factors affecting job satisfaction and their effect, to get a clearer idea on which antecedents I should focus on to address the employee turnover problem in ABC. The review of previous literature in this section focuses on antecedents of job satisfaction in labour-intensive and low-wage industries regardless of the size of the companies for the reason set out in Section 2.2.4.

For the factors affecting job satisfaction of employees in labour intensive or small businesses, Milman (2002) found that hourly employees in small and medium sized firms tend to stay longer when they have a positive experience, consistent working hours, a sense of fulfilment, good feedback from managers and higher job satisfaction. Firth et al.’s (2004) indicated that a high degree of employee job satisfaction reduces their intention to leave among salespeople in a large department store in Australia, which is regarded as a low-end job (Appelbaum, & Schmitt, 2009:1920). Abraham (2007:106) stresses that a poor relationship with a manager is one of the fundamental reasons for people getting dissatisfied in small firms. By contrast, Heinen et al. (2013) found that the effective leader’s support increased nurses’ commitment and satisfaction despite inadequate staffing and high patient acuity in ten European countries. Some cross-cultural research outcomes are also aligned with these findings. Babin and Boles’s (1996) study involving 261 front-line restaurant workers in the US also concluded that employee perception of supervisory support and of co-worker involvement greatly affected overall job satisfaction and work performance.

The aforementioned examination of the determinants of job satisfaction for workers in small or labour intensive services, highlights that effective leadership behaviour plays a primary role in heightening job satisfaction and in lowering quitting intention in the context of the small or labour intensive service industry (Abraham, 2007; Babin & Boles, 1996; Heinen et al., 2013; Kleinman, 2004; Roche, Laschinger, & Duffield, 2015; Scott, Sochalski, & Aiken, 1999). However, in spite of the dominant presence of SMEs and New Zealand’s heavy dependence on these firms (MBIE, 2014), an overwhelming number of business deaths have happened in SMEs (Statistics NZ, 2015). It, therefore, becomes interesting to investigate the extent to which leadership influences employees’ job satisfaction as well as voluntary leaving in the ethnic Asian organisational context. In the next section, this study seeks to deepen the understanding of how leadership plays on job satisfaction and turnover intentions in small-to-medium sized ethnic minority-owned companies.

2.4 Leadership (Top Manager/Owner-manager)

2.4.1 Leadership

Leadership has been another popular topic in organisational studies (Ekaterini, 2010; Wienclaw, 2008). It has drawn enormous attention from many scholars and practitioners
across diverse fields such as management, philosophy, sociology, economics and political science (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978). Despite leadership being one of the most popular topics in management research, there is still no clear and universal definition (Michie & Zumitizavan, 2012). Definitions of leadership vary depending on different perspectives, interests, cultures, social context and times (Heifetz, 1998). Gardner and colleagues (2010:952) resonated that the nature of leadership is “a complex, multi-level and socially constructed process” and it often makes studies in this area difficult. Broadly speaking, however, leadership can be explained as a way of excising power to influence other people (Bryman, 1992).

At this juncture, it is helpful to clarify the terminologies of leader and manager. These terms are often used interchangeably because both roles engage with decision-making and people-managing responsibilities. However, Kotter (1988) views they are two separate concepts and clearly different in nature. He articulates that the role of managers involves providing direction while focusing on compliance and control. Their priority lies in completing tasks and achieving goals. Leaders, in contrast, emphasize on open, collaborative, and participatory actions (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Kotter, 1988). Yukl's (2013) explanation also coincides with Kotter's. A manager's main duties involve generic managerial functions such as market research, budgeting and analysis. They tend to focus on stability and efficiency. However, these skills only are not sufficient to cope with today’s complex and changing business environment. It is crucial to have a leader who can develop a good vision, motivation and collaboration, and can champion organizational changes (Bolman & Deal, 2008). I think that effective leadership can be achieved when these two roles complement and reconcile each other, particularly in a small business environment although some researchers think these two concepts sit at opposite ends of a continuum (e.g., Kotter, 1988, Yukl, 2013). As the term of owner-mangers lends, entrepreneurs in small businesses need to assume both managerial and leadership roles. For the financial and resource constrained company, hiring full staff is not always possible for their business operation. It thus requires owners to manage multiple tasks simultaneously. In this regard, I do not distinguish these two terms in this current research and use them exchangeably.

This study focused on top-level managers of small ethnic Asian companies. The gravity of top managers in small companies is enormous. It is particularly true in Asian companies where strong decision-making power is concentrated on the top managers (Day & Lord, 1988). As the decision makers of the company, top managers tend to employ people who share their values and ideas. This makes them build an organisation that reflects their values, perspectives and attitudes (Smith & Peterson, 1988). Moreover, they bring their norms and beliefs to the company, which impacts not only the organisation culture, but also employee behaviour and performance accordingly (Marquis & Huston 2012). The seminal theory paper of Hambrick and Mason (1984) presented a similar argument that a firm's outcomes are regarded as the reflection of CEO's values, and demographic attributes. In particular, the demographic character of the CEO may act as a proxy for their norms and values as well as their skills and knowledge, which has a close association with the firm's strategies and
performance. As such, entrepreneurial attitudes and competencies are a fundamental nucleus of the successful performance of small companies. In the following section, I thus, further investigate the role of leadership on employees’ behaviours and attitudes in small companies.

2.4.2 Impact of Leadership in Small Companies

A previous large leadership research has suggested that leaders’ behaviours are significantly related to employees’ behaviours and attitudes. Bono and Judge (2003: 554) claim that there is hardly any argument against the close relationship between leadership and follower attitudes, such as job satisfaction, trust and organisational commitment, as well as work performance, at both the individual and organisational level. Aarons (2006) resonates Bono and Judge’s argument that leadership is a major source of innovation, employee behaviour and attitude, service quality and performance. Effective leadership is regarded as a critical element in deciding a business’s success (Bennis, 2003). Abbasi and Hollman (2000) stress the importance of having effective leadership to keep employee turnover low given that employees are a key component of a company's bottom-line and success.

For the impact of leadership on employee turnover in small or labour intensive business settings, the top manager's influence is profound. This is because their informal or flat business structure allows workers to easily identify what is going on in daily business operations, which in turn, makes employees understand their leader’s inability to perform or lead. It consequently affects their behaviour and reactions in following the leaders (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). There are many small business studies pointing up poor leadership practices as a main cause of small business failures (Perry, 2001; Beaver, 2003). Khatri and Fern's study (2001) shows that poor leadership and management practices are the main culprit causing controllable employee turnover. Eady and Nicholls (2011) studied the antecedents of labour turnover in Chinese and Singaporean factories using a mixed methods approach. The outcomes demonstrated that the overlapped key factor for employee turnover was the quality of leadership. Beaver’s (2003) empirical research on 200 bankrupt small businesses in 1980 also supported that a lack of leadership skills contributed to the failure of these companies. Westover and Taylor (2010) in their non-panel longitudinal studies, also support that an organisation should promote productivity and job satisfaction under leaders with efficient, inspiring and enabling behaviours, otherwise the organisation will likely lose talented employees. As noted, there is ample evidence that effective leadership is critical for business success (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004), particularly for small businesses (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010).

This investigation informs me that some leadership behaviours can be used as an intervention for high employee withdrawal propensity. It then raises the question: Which particular leader behaviours are the most effective in tackling high turnover in ethnic Asian companies? In order to answer this question, it is necessary to select the type of leadership styles first to gain a frame of reference in deciding the effective styles.
2.4.3 Selection of Five Major Leadership Styles and Their Impact

The review of literature on leadership has shown the comprehensive range of different leadership styles. In this study, I chose two well-known and well-tested leadership theories in both Western and Eastern contexts in determining the type of leadership styles: Path-goal leadership theory and full range leadership theory. It is because these two instruments have been well validated and tested for reliability in determining the type of leadership styles across various industries in both Western and Eastern contexts (Al-Gattan, 1985; Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; Malik, 2013; Kirkbride, 2006:23). Path-goal theory of leadership is a popular contingency-based model. This theory purports that the optimal leadership styles are contingent upon the interplay between the leadership style and situation. According to this theory, there is no one-size-fits-all leadership style (House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1975; Indvik, 1986). It highlights the importance of selecting and excising effective leadership styles that fit one's particular situation. Due to this flexible approach, this model has been regarded as useful in predicting employees' motivation, satisfactions and performance in the US (Indvik, 1988 cited in Northouse, 2010) as well as in different cultures (Al-Gattan, 1985) and industries (Malik, 2013). I view that the argument of contingency theory offers a suitable theoretical grounding for this study because I am interested in finding the most effective leadership styles that fit in the ethnic Asian business context. On the other hand, full range leadership theory is chosen bearing in mind the importance of embracing a universally validated leadership model (Bass, 1997). This model was developed based on the work of Burns (1978) on transformational and transactional leadership styles. These two styles are the most recognized and researched leadership styles in the world (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003; Kirkbride, 2006:23). Given these two leadership models are well endorsed in both Asian and Western cultures, drawing leadership styles from these two models is deemed to be appropriate. It will allow me to find theoretically solid and culturally relevant leadership styles that help tackle high employee turnover in ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand.

The five leadership styles are extracted from Path-goal theory and full range leadership for this study. The actual leader behaviours selected are directive, supportive, participative, transactional and charismatic leadership styles. The Path-goal theory of leadership is associated with four styles of leadership: directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership (Bass, 1990; House, 1996; Northouse, 2010). Of these, this study employs three leadership styles: directive, supportive and participative leadership. Achievement-oriented leadership was opted out because it largely overlaps with the directive leadership style (e.g., Peretomode, 2012). The full range model offers three leadership styles: transformational (charismatic), transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1985, Bass & Avolio, 2004:104-105, 1997; Yukl, 2013). In particular, the transactional and transformational styles are two flagship leadership behaviours in this theory and have received the most attention of many scholars (e.g., Jung & Avolio, 1999; Sosik, Avolio, & Kahai, 1997; Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994). For the charismatic style, it is the core concept of transformational leadership, which is explained as idealized influence.
and inspirational motivation in the full range model (Bass & Avolio, 2004:104; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bryman, 1992; Gellis, 2001:18; Rowold, 2005). Although Bass (1985) made it clear that charisma was only part of transformational leadership, Bryman (1992:105) asserts that these two terms are very similar and have virtually no difference in reality. The other category of leaders is transactional, where the leader articulates tasks and supervises performance to achieve intended goals by offering a carrot and a stick (Bass, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Yukl, 2013). Dorfman and colleagues (1997:236) argue that these five selected leadership styles are regarded as theoretically important by many scholars as well as being widely used by many managers and management trainers across the world quoting many researchers (e.g., Al-Gattan, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bond & Hwang, 1986; Dorfman, 1996; Misumi & Peterson, 1985b; Laurent & Bradney, 2007; Northouse, 2010). The detailed effects of the chosen leadership styles on job satisfaction and turnover intent are discussed below.

(1) Directive leader: A directive leader articulates the goals, expectations and preferences about the task for subordinates. Leaders help reduce followers’ role ambiguity, provide expectations, clarify rules and policy, and give appropriate recognition and rewards. This leadership style is parallel with Heresy et al.’s telling leadership style (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2008; House & Mitchell, 1975; Northouse, 2010). According to House and Mitchell, subordinates’ satisfaction levels change depending on the degree of structure of the task. Employees are satisfied with the leader’s directive behaviour in an unstructured task, but prefer non-directive behaviour in a structured task. The effect of leader's directiveness has some dividing outcomes across cultures. For example, some studies have shown that a directive leadership style has a positive impact on team productivity and performance (Martin, Liao, & Campbell, 2011; Hwang et al., 2015). On the other hand, an equally large amount of literature bolsters the negative impact of a directive style on different organizational outcomes such as team reflection and cohesiveness (Somech, 2006; Wendt, Euwema, & van Emmerik, 2009). Researchers like Dorfman and others (1997) show the partial culturally contingent aspect of directive styles on different organisational outcomes. This leadership style was positively related to employee's satisfaction with leaders and it reduced role ambiguity in the Taiwan and Mexico respondents (Dorfman et al., 1997). The authors interpreted this symptom from the cultural perspective presenting Hofstede’s (1993) finding on high power distance of these countries. On the other hand, the directive leadership style did not have any impact in South Korea, Japan or the United States. The authors blamed the strong individualistic culture of the U.S for this outcome although failed to explain the reason for South Korea’s result. As such, the evaluation of the directive leader's behaviours varies among leadership studies; however, its inherent negative connotations and views seem hard to avoid (Latham, Erez, & Locke, 1988: 770). This study will thus inspect the impacts of a directive leader on job satisfaction and turnover by testing the hypothesis as well as conducting interviews and discussions in the following action phases.

(2) Supportive Leader: Leaders of this type display supportive behaviours to make the work environment enjoyable. They are approachable and pay extra attention to employees’
needs, feelings and well-being (House & Mitchell, 1975). This leader behaviour coincides with Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson’s (2008) supportive leadership style. Hersey and colleagues delineate that supportive leader behaviours are useful when employees are able but do not have confidence. Thus, the leader’s supportive behaviours help promote employees’ performance. In particular, Lussier and Achua (2007) viewed this leadership style as ideal when the task is simple, work satisfaction is low, and formal leadership authority is weak. Employee’s performance will be increased when the leader’s supportive behaviours are aligned with goal-oriented effort. For the relationship with satisfaction and organizational outcome, supportive leadership behaviour is largely regarded as positive on organizational outcomes across all the cultures (Yukl, 2013). Dixon and Hart's (2010) empirical study on workers in heavy manufacturing factories in the south eastern United States echoes this argument that supportive leader behaviours are the most highly and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Dorfman and colleague's (1997) research outcomes also support a culturally universal aspect of the supportive style that was found to have a positive influence on employee satisfaction and performance in all five researched countries including the individualistic United States and paternalistic Japan, South Korea, Taiwan and Mexico. As discussed, the positive impact of supportive leadership on many organisational outcomes has been generally consistent through large streams of the literature (Dixon & Hart, 2010; Dorfman et al., 1997; Yukl, 2013). It is however, worthwhile to understand that the same holds true in the ethnic Asian work context in New Zealand.

(3) Participative Leader: Leaders with participative behaviours invite followers to share their opinions and suggestions when making decisions (House & Mitchell, 1975; Northouse, 2010). This type of leadership is recommended when followers do not conform to autocratic leadership, have centralised control internally and the follower has a high level of maturity. It can also be used when both task and employee job satisfaction is low or high (Lussier & Achua, 2007). With regard to the relationship with satisfaction and organizational outcome, participative leadership shows culturally contingent outcomes. Volk and Lucas (1991) conducted the study on 81 registered nurses in private and public hospitals in the United States. The results showed that under participative management styles, organisational performance and employee satisfaction were heightened while employee turnover was reduced. On the other hand, Dorfman and others’ (1997) cross-cultural research found that South Korea was the only Asian country that showed a positive impact of participative leadership on employee job satisfaction. The other two Asian countries, Japan and Taiwan did not show any substantial impact on employee satisfaction. A possible explanation for this is because of South Korea's increasing tendency of emphasizing subordinate consultation (Chen, 2004). On the other hand, the US sample was found to have a positive impact of participative leadership on organizational performance. Dorfman et al. (1997) assumed that the US’s individualistic and egalitarian work climate (Hofstede, 1993) may contribute to this result. As examined, there are diverging opinions on the effect of participative leadership styles across culture. Therefore, this project will attempt to inspect the impact of this leadership behaviour on employee’s job satisfaction and withdrawal intention.
(4) **Transactional Leader:** Transactional leaders motivate followers by setting clear objectives and providing directions and rewards to strengthen their behaviours to accomplish or exceed set goals. Bass (1985) illustrated that transactional leaders expect subordinates to do some work in exchange for a reward, and recognition on completing the tasks assigned. To measure the level of transactional leadership behaviours, three different dimensions are measured in the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass & Avolio (1995): contingent reward for the goals achieved; active management by exception (a leader's proactive role in identifying any variations beyond standards); and passive management by exception (a leader's passive role in focusing on punishing subordinates for non-compliance with the rules and not completing the goal) (Bass & Avolio, 2004:104-105). Transactional leadership is appropriate when the leaders articulate what the subordinates need to do in exchange for a reward (Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1993; Bass & Riggio, 2006); however, the down side is that employee development and performance may be negatively affected when leaders focus on mistakes and punishment. There are varying viewpoints on the impact of transactional leadership. Awamleh and Al-Dmour (2004) found that the transactional leadership style was effective in increasing employee's job satisfaction among bank employees, however, to a lesser degree when compared with transformational leadership. On the other hand, Bryman (1992) criticized that transactional leader behaviours are merely based on exchanges, so they are not effective in motivating employees to go beyond the goal. Some researchers like Dorfman and colleagues (1997) studied the transaction style by separating contingent reward and contingent punishment behaviours. Their study outcomes suggested a positive impact of contingent reward on satisfaction with work or supervision and organizational commitment across all five cultures: Korea, Japan, Taiwan, Mexico and the U.S. Contingent punishment is inversely associated with satisfaction with work or supervisor in all research countries except the US. Interestingly, in the U.S, contingent reward behaviour showed a positive effect on both organizational commitment and satisfaction with job and leaders while reducing role ambiguity. Jung and Avolio’s (1999) study outcomes also show the cultural specific aspect of this style; that individuals are more motivated by transactional leadership in an individualistic environment and by transformational leadership in collectivistic environment. With the findings from the previous literature, it is hard to conclude its clear impact on turnover in the ethnic Asian context. Therefore, the present study will investigate the effect of transactional leadership style on turnover intention in the ethnic Asian context.

(5) **Charismatic Leader:** Charismatic leadership emphasizes leaders’ influential power and persuasive means. House and Toronto University (1976) explained charismatic leadership was characterised by a mix of personal traits, the leader’s behaviours and situational factors. Charismatic leaders possess certain unique personal characteristics such as a strong confidence in self, integrity and values, and a high degree of desire to dominate and influence others (Bryman, 1992). Charismatic leaders make the followers accept their values and beliefs about the benefit of effective performance by presenting role modelling and image building. As a result, subordinates are voluntarily willing to accept the leader’s lofty goal and expectation (Bryman, 1992). Empirical studies on transformational/charismatic leadership have consistently showed its direct and positive connection with follower’s
satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviours and overall organizational performance (Abualrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Bass et al., 2003; Dorfman et al., 1997; Emery & Barker, 2007). Emery and Barker (2007) reported that the use of transformational leadership promoted employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees in both food chains and banking organizations. In particular, this study identified that charismatic attributes had a positive impact on the employee job satisfaction of low paid and high school educated employees of food chains. Conger, Kanungo and Menon’s (2000) survey on managers in a large manufacturing conglomerate also indicated that employees had a higher level of reverence for charismatic leaders, and this leadership style is directly and indirectly related to higher employee satisfaction and trust. Dorfman et al.’s (1997) cross-cultural study also demonstrated the largely positive impact of charismatic leadership on employee job satisfaction and work attitudes across all five researched counties. In South Korea, charismatic leaders have been found to have a positive influence on employee satisfaction with managers, and organizational commitment. In Japan and Taiwan, this leadership acted to reduce followers’ role ambiguity. Dorfman and colleagues concluded that the charismatic style is generally regarded effective in both individualist and collectivist cultures quoting Walumbwa and colleagues’ (2004) work. This study will thus establish if the impact of charismatic leader behaviours on turnover intention is valid for the ethnic Asian business context as well.

Taken together, the literature reviewed suggests that each leadership style has its unique characteristics and its influences on organisational outcomes vary by a range of factors and different contexts. However, the mainstream leadership studies have primarily been done in an Anglo-Saxon centred context (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Eady & Nicholls, 2011; Jaeger, 1984; Wigglesworth, 1987) and have not been studied systematically in a non-Western context (Eady & Nicholls; Huang, 2012:184; House, 2004; Tsui, 2012). The management theories developed from the U.S or Western context are not necessarily shared by management elsewhere. It would be therefore, incorrect to conjecture that the effect of these variables on turnover will hold good in other companies and cultures. This highlights the need for inspecting the national culture of Asian entrepreneurs and their minority ethnic entrepreneur position. Based on the five leadership styles identified in this section, the following section will explore the impact of the cultural characteristics of Asia, including South Korea as a reference group in this study, and the effect of being minority or immigrant entrepreneurs.

2.5 National Culture

2.5.1 Culture

Culture is defined as a belief of people within a society. Culture is not a standalone topic, but it interlocks with social and historical events as an integral part of historical events (Carr, 1961). As a barometer, it guides us to decide between right and wrong, or acceptable and not
acceptable manners in our life. One recent major cross-cultural leadership study, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) research project, defined culture as “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretation or meaning of significant events that result from common experiences of members of a collective and are transmitted across generations” (House & Javidan, 2004:15). The bulk of literature supports that it is important to understand the national culture of entrepreneurs because the leadership styles and the business practices are largely hinged upon business owners’ ethnicity and their national culture (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1993; Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; House, 2004; Lee & Barnett, 1997; Shane, 1992; Ogbonna & Wilkinson, 1990; Shane, Venkataraman, & MacMillan, 1995). Therefore, the next section will examine the impact of national culture on different organisational outcomes in detail.

2.5.2 Impact of National Culture

Every organization is affected by a particular national culture and it is impossible to avoid its influence (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; House, 2004; Lee & Barnett, 1997). Its impact ranges from personal motivation to organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007). Some previous studies have recognised the substantial impact of national cultures on a firm's performance, inventiveness, and creativity (Busse, 2014; Rauch et al., 2013; Shane, 1992). Other research shows the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between leadership styles and employees’ behaviour and organizational outcome (e.g. Ogbonna & Wilkinson, 1990; Ogbonna & Harris, 2002).

There has been much debate around cultural universality versus cultural specificity of effective leadership styles. Some research supports the universality of leadership. For instance, Bass (1990) indicated that transformational and transactional leadership styles could be regarded as a universal paradigm. Dorfman and his colleagues (1997) proposed that leader's supportiveness, contingent reward behaviours and charismatic attributes were regarded as universal through their empirical test in five different cultures. Conversely, considerable streams of cross-cultural research have identified that leadership values differ between cultures (Schwartz, 1994; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996). For example, despite strong endorsement for transformational leadership in many countries (House, 2004), this leadership does not seem to make much impact on organisational performances in some non-Western countries including India, Saudi Arabia and Jordan (Pillai, Scandura & Williams, 1999). Smith and Peterson (1988) supported this argument that certain leadership styles and attitudes are inherently varied by cultural contexts. Chao and Tian (2011) also warned that national culture alone is not sufficient to predict female leadership for members of Rotary Clubs in both Taiwan and the US. Although there are some strong viewpoints on the universality of certain leadership styles (Bass, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Farh, Podsakoff, & Cheng, 1987), it is generally agreed that effective leadership styles are different for each culture due to their beliefs, values and social and historical contexts (Hofstede, 1993; House, 2004; Triandis, 1993a).
I will therefore, explore the characteristics of Asian culture, including South Korean, to understand the unique effect of Asian culture on the business behaviours and leadership attitudes of Asian entrepreneurs in the next section.

2.5.3 Impact of Asian Culture including South Korean

For this study, the criterion of Asians refers to Confucian Asians based on the classifications in the GLOBE project. The Confucian Asian cluster covers South Korea, China, Japan, Taiwan, Singapore and Hong Kong (Gupta & Hanges, 2004:189). Hofstede and Bond (1988) argued that Confucian values are the most salient factor that distinguishes between the West and the East. Confucianism has been a backbone principle of Asian culture for centuries and still has considerable influence on cultural elements (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). Hofstede and Bond’s (1988) analysis of IBM research showed that Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan and South Korea were the highest on the Confucian dynamism scale. From Confucianism viewpoints, the universe is not democratic but hierarchical (Schwarzmantel, 1987). Power is concentrated in one top person, which is essential to maintain social order and build a united state (Ramírez & Rubio, 2000). This centralisation is in stark contrast to Western countries like Australia, Canada and the Netherlands that stress a strong egalitarian relationship (Hague, Harrop, & Breslin, 2001). As an Anglo cluster, New Zealand shows similar attributes to these countries. Team oriented, autonomous and participative leadership styles are valued the most in New Zealand (Hague, Harrop, & Breslin, 2001). Unlike most Westerners, Asians generally, have a strong focus on group membership and accept unequal relations according to the hierarchy. Under the strong influence of Confucianism, people are required to respect the authority of, and obey, senior individuals. In turn, the senior will take responsibility for the well-being of the junior (Jun & Park, 2001; Ramírez & Rubio, 2000). The same rule is applied to the leader-subordinate relationship in Confucian Asians. Subordinates are required to have absolute loyalty and respect for the ruler or head of the organization (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). In return, leaders work for their subordinates’ well-being and development while promoting group harmony, cooperation and the absence of conflict in people relations (Steers, Shin, & Ungson, 1989).

Regarding Asian managers, Hofstede (1993) hypothesized that their behaviours could be characterised by high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance and high collectivism. Hofstede (1993) explained that each country has a unique attribute that no single model can explain. In his original cultural dimension model, Hofstede (1993) developed four dimensions that define national culture: ‘power distance’, ‘uncertainty avoidance’, ‘masculinity-femininity’ and ‘individualism-collectivism’ (Smith & Peterson, 1986). Hofstede later included another dimension of ‘long-term orientation’ to his original model. Although his model has been criticized as a static and generalised cultural difference (Gerhart & Fang, 2005 Gerhart, 2008), it is still widely accepted as a principal cultural model (Fang, 2003; McSweeney, 2002). In line with Hofstede (1993), many researchers agree that Asian countries tend to show collectivism with less individualism and high power distance (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Steers, Shin, & Ungson, 1989; Smith, Dugan, &
Trompenaars, 1996). In a high power distance culture, the ideal leader is a benevolent autocrat while a democratic leader is valued in a low power distance culture. Thus, leaders in high power distance cultures are inclined to use more directive leadership and a less collaborative style (Hofstede & Bond, 1988).

South Korean culture shares largely similar characteristics with other Asian countries because of the strong influence of Confucianism. After going through radical modernization, historical and cultural changes, Confucian values have been transformed into contemporary South Korean culture (Steers, Shin, & Ungson, 1989). Nonetheless, Confucianism still profoundly influences the way people make decisions, exercise power and negotiate at an individual, organisational and societal level in South Korea (Hahm, 2003). Under the strong Confucian influence, South Korean culture is characterized with a high power distance, strong collectivism, and high uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede & Bond, 1988:13). As in other Confucian Asian countries, it is common to find a unequal mentality between superiors and subordinates in the large power distance cultures and subordinates are used to waiting for instructions from their superiors (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). It is the norm to exercise power when necessary and the expectation is to receive compromising responses from subordinates (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Centralised control and a high focus on effectiveness are apparent in business organisational life in South Korea. Korean leaders typically pose a top-down decision-making style and followers do not express opinions actively (Chen, 2004), especially if they are different from those of their supervisors. For example, in a survey on the degree of Korean top managers’ awareness on creating a positive environment for voluntary participation of employees, the executives showed growing awareness for employee participation. However, their followers still seemed reluctant to present different views against their leaders. Interestingly, South Korean employees often, to some extent, prefer paternalistic leadership as identified in China, Japan, India and also Iran. They generally show high confidence in their leaders and low work autonomy (Bae & Chung, 1997).

In terms of entrepreneurship in South Korea, Korean business people exhibit strong entrepreneurship, which is characterised by clear vision and strong action and diligence towards achieving business growth with an aggressive can-do attitude (Dorfman et al., 1997). Chairperson Kim of Daewoo and Chairman Chung of Hyundai can be described as strong and charismatic leaders. In particular, Mr. Chung successfully completed the shipbuilding venture despite experts’ pessimistic view of the prospects for success. This example indicates that charismatic leadership may be important in South Korea (Dorfman et al., 1997). As shown in these individuals, values such as a strong respect for authority and family orientation act positively and help create efficiency-first capitalism and achieve the goal of focusing on collective effort. Cho and Kim (1993) argued that Korea’s economic development would not have been possible without the hierarchical and bureaucratic government. The strong state-led, authoritarian government and entrepreneurial bureaucracy backed by Confucian principles, helped achieve contemporary South Korea’s economic success. On the negative side, family orientation, nepotism, cronyism and an emphasis on
respect for hierarchy could act as detrimental factors in attaining higher management performance and communication (Kim, 2010).

As identified, Confucianism can have both negative and positive aspects on entrepreneurs’ practices in business operation. Thus, it is the leader’s role to make a wise choice in utilising the positive elements. As the preceding examples reflect, Asian supervisors or entrepreneurs exhibit different attitudes and reactions to the same situation that are not shared by managers in Western countries like the US, Canada, New Zealand and Western Europe (Hague, Harrop, & Breslin, 2001). Collectively, the above investigation shows that effective leadership is decided by context and culture. It promotes my understanding of cultural attributes that are shared among ethnic Asian entrepreneurs and heightens the possibility of devising culturally relevant solutions to the high turnover problem identified in my research context.

2.6 Ethnic Entrepreneurship (Ethnic Community Involvement)

2.6.1 Ethnic Entrepreneurship

The definition of ethnic entrepreneurs is not easy. Generally speaking, the following three terms are used interchangeably: ethnic entrepreneurs, immigrant entrepreneurs, and minority entrepreneurs (Chaganti & Greene, 2002). Each term has a slightly different meaning. Immigrant entrepreneurs are entrepreneurs who have started a business to survive in a host nation (Chaganti & Greene, 2002). Ethnic entrepreneurs are individuals involved in networks and people relations with those from the same national or migrant background (Waldinger, Aldrich, & Ward, 1990). Minority entrepreneur refers to an entrepreneur who is in a non-major ethnic group that does not belong to the majority population, and generally means non-Caucasian in background (US Department of Commerce, 1997 cited in Chaganti & Greene, 2002). The definition of ethnic entrepreneurs by Yinger (1985) embraces all three meanings: minority entrepreneurs are self-employed business owners who keep a tie to people with the same ethnic heritage and cultural origin. If I borrow the definitions of both Chaganti and Greene (2002) and Yinger (1985), Asian entrepreneurs in this study can fall into the category of ethnic entrepreneurs.

Chaganti and Greene (2002:131) claim that the degree of ethnic entrepreneurship can be decided by the amount of their involvement in the co-ethnic communities. Their empirical research outcomes demonstrate that co-ethnic community involvement is “a better indicator of ethnicity than mere demographic identification” The authors further found that individuals who are in a professional or high-tech business, or those who are highly educated or young, have lower levels of ethnic entrepreneurship attributes given that they have relatively less involvement with their ethnic community. Based on Chaganti and Greene’s (2002) definition of ethnic entrepreneurship, Menzies and others (2007) developed the Index of Ethnic Involvement (IEI), to systemically gauge the degree of influence of
entrepreneur’s ethnicity on doing business. It assesses an ethnic entrepreneur's level of co-ethnic community involvement from personal and business dimensions. It shows the typical characteristics of ethnic enterprises in doing business. For instance, the business domain covers language used at work, human resources management, customers, suppliers and business locations (Chaganti & Greene, 2002; Menzies et al., 2007). An IEI index can be used to forecast the effect of the level of ethnic entrepreneurship on organisational outcomes for the small ethnic business setting (Menzies et al., 2007). Given the level of co-ethnic involvement well reflects the degree of ethnic entrepreneurship, this study will adopt the IEI to assess the effect of ethnic entrepreneurship on turnover intention.

2.6.2 Characteristics and Impact of Ethnic Entrepreneurship

Generally speaking, ethnic Asian entrepreneurs share some attributes noted from Middleman’s minority theory that is characterised by unique clustering on certain economic and social structures in a host country (Bonacich, 1973). Some researchers point out that the denial of their previous vocational credentials and lack of English skills are the major reasons for immigrants to choose to become self-employed (Basu & Altinay, 2002, You, 1995; Min, 1984; Lofstrom, 2002) or make them engage in labour intensive industries that have low entry barriers. To further elaborate, the proportion of South Koreans engaged in business was 33 percent and Chinese was 22 percent while only 19 percent of New Zealand Europeans were engaged in running businesses (Statistics NZ, 2014a, 2014b, 2014e). Moreover, the total percentage of Asians who worked in the retail trade, accommodation and food industries services was approximately 28 percent (Koreans, 39 percent) in 2013, while only 15 percent of New Zealand Europeans were in these areas in the same year (Statistics NZ, 2014e, 2014b, 2014e). As such, much ethnic entrepreneur literature suggests that ethnic entrepreneurs show some unique business behaviours that are not displayed by mainstream business individuals (House, 2004; Holt, 1997).

As for some salient characteristics of ethnic or immigrant entrepreneurs, they often create a strong bond and trust with co-ethnic immigrant groups after being denied entry to the mainstream job market (You, 1995). Light (1972) claims that immigrant or minority entrepreneurs are apt to congregate with others of the same ethnicity and remain in co-ethnic communities for business. More recent ethnic entrepreneurship studies also show a support to this view that co-ethnic networks provide a reliable source of labour, which cannot be offered by cross-ethnic transactions (Sanders, Nee, & Sernau. 2002). They then utilise co-ethnic networks for staff recruitment, supply and finances (Chaganti & Greene, 2002; Menzies et al., 2007; Sanders, Nee & Sernau 2002). The common norms, values and culture among the same ethnicity, foster greater understanding and trust, which make them share their network and work together (Isenberg, 2008). From a different angle but in a similar vein, Holt (1997) suggests that the goal of ethnic entrepreneurs may not always lie in profit-making; rather they often focus on contribution to their co-community and family.

On the other hand, some researchers like Chrisman, Chua, & Steier (2002) claim that the
problems that both minority and mainstream entrepreneurs face are similar and ethnicity or nativity (immigration) have little effect on entrepreneurs’ performances. Despite these contrasting opinions, it seems hard to deny that the unique characteristics for being minority immigrants shape the way of doing business. Many previous studies clearly support that shared values and perceptions among ethnic Asian entrepreneurs engender specific behaviours and make them pose unique business attitudes. Hirschman (1983:197) asserts that ethnicity plays a key role in understanding entrepreneurs' behavioural differences. Overall, the review suggests that the level of ethnic community involvement may influence leadership styles, and in turn the level of employee turnover intention. Therefore, it will be worthwhile to inspect the impact of ethnic entrepreneurship on leadership styles of ethnic Asian entrepreneurs in New Zealand and on organizational outcomes.

2.7 Research gaps to fill

A review of previous studies has revealed the pitfalls and deficiencies in the extant literature in addressing my research problem, excessively high employee turnover in a small ethnic Asian firm setting. This study seeks to bridge the gaps in the current literature by investigating the following three areas.

The first gap is associated with the cultural context of employee turnover. Turnover is a well-researched topic in management literature; however, most of these studies were conducted in a Western organizational context (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Eady & Nicholls, 2011; Jaeger, 1984; Wigglesworth, 1987) and were burgeoning in Asian context (Eady & Nicholls; Huang, 2012:184; House, 2004; Tsui, 2012). Despite a growing body of cross-cultural literature in this area, there are still notably high deficiencies for improving the relevance of Western developed studies to the Asian context (e.g. Huang, 2012:184; Tsui, 2012; Tsui et al., 2004). The context of this research project is a small Asian minority-owned company. Understanding a turnover problem from the ethnic Asian enterprises’ perspective enables production of tailored solutions for those companies with cultural challenges and limited resources (e.g., Huang, 2012). This identified gap will therefore be addressed by extending turnover studies to the ethnic Asian company context in New Zealand.

The second gap is related to the size and industry characteristics of the researched company. Many turnover studies have disproportionately focused on full-time workers in larger firms (Baron & Hannan, 2002; Cardon & Stevens, 2004; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Eady & Nicholls, 2011; Gialuisi & Coetzter, 2013). In particular, the studies on a labour intensive service industry in which small scale businesses with short-term/part-time minimum waged workers are over-represented, are scarce (e.g., Milman, 2002; Dill, Morgan, & Marshall, 2013). Tackling the high employee turnover problem is critical to the survival and competitiveness of smaller businesses given that their success greatly relies on the performance of their human workforce (Sels et al., 2006; Way, 2002). Thus, this study will seek to address this gap by focusing on turnover problem of workers in short-term contractual based in small
sized ethnic Asian firms in New Zealand.

The last gap is related to the focus of Asian entrepreneurial studies. Asian entrepreneurial studies are burgeoning, especially in the Chinese business context. However, most of these studies pay heavy attention to entrepreneurial behaviours such as traits and characteristics of entrepreneurs, the orientation of the business setting, running and closing businesses (e.g., Butler, Ko, & Chamornmarn, 2004). The studies focusing on the effect of the ethnic entrepreneur position on employees’ attitudes and behaviours are not sizable. Considering leadership is a social construction and decided in the eyes of those with whom they work (Bass & Avolio, 2004), understanding its impact from their followers’ perspectives can provide context-sensitive solutions for the turnover problem experienced in ethnic Asian companies. This research, therefore, intends to bridge this knowledge gap by obtaining the perspectives of employees on the selected variables.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

Action research involves innovative, continual and collaborative processes to problem solving (Tripp, 2005). In this regard, an attempt to make a causal explanation with the formulation of hypotheses is somewhat beside the point in action research. It more fits with positivist research that espouses a measurable and verifiable reality (Ponterotto, Mathew, & Raughley, 2013). However, many researchers nowadays have begun to acknowledge the benefit of adding quantitative methods to qualitative oriented action research. For example, Johnson and Turner (2003) suggest that a mixed method action research can heighten transferability of outcomes thanks to its multiple sources of information and viewpoints. Ivankova (2015) contends that a mixed method approach can augment the credibility, reliability and validity of action research. The different perspectives from various sources help achieve rigorous as well as relevant research outcomes. In this light, the quantitative approach in this research is one of my attempts to gain information from multiple sources. It will help me discover which factors I should focus on to reduce the high turnover problem in ABC. Testing hypotheses will then allow me to preview the relationship among the variables. These preliminary findings will then be refined through the filters of the multifold of qualitative approaches and be funnelled down to particular perspectives. The final outcomes will then be integrated and contextualized to solve my real-work problem.

The review of the literature has shown that there are many factors that have direct and indirect effects on employee's withdrawal intention. However, it may not be appropriate to assume the same relationships apply to my research context. In this regard, I encapsulated the salient three variables that appear to affect employee turnover in the ethnic Asian work context in the conceptual framework for the study: five leadership styles, employee job satisfaction and ethnic entrepreneurship (level of co-ethnic community involvement). The following conceptual model suggests that there must be some patterns in the leadership styles of Asian business owner-managers and the level of co-ethnic community involvement that may moderate the relationship between leadership styles and employee’s intention to
leave. It also assumes that certain leadership styles may have an effect on job satisfaction as well as employee withdrawal intention. Moreover, a negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention is assumed in the model. The proposed relationships are depicted in Figure 3. Based on all the assumptions stipulated above, I also developed the five hypotheses for the quantitative section of this study.

Figure 3 Conceptual Framework

A vast body of cross-cultural research has suggested that leadership values and styles differ between cultures (Schwartz, 1994; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996). Smith and Peterson (1988) agreed with this argument that particular leadership styles and attitudes are changed by cultural contexts. When investigating the leadership styles of certain individuals, Asian firms’ unique cultural and social characteristics should also be taken into account. Ethnic minority entrepreneurs exhibit some salient business practices that are not found in mainstream business people (House, 2004; Holt, 1997). This is because their national culture, ethnicity and minority immigrant position impact greatly on their way of doing business, their business focus, recruitment and finance (Chaganti & Greene, 2002; Lofstrom, 2002; Menzies et al., 2007; Min, 1984; You, 1995). This study thus sought to investigate if there are any salient leadership styles that Asian business owners display in the eyes of their employees. I thus propose the following hypothesis:

H1: There is a significant mean difference among the five chosen leadership styles of ethnic Asian entrepreneurs.

The business behaviours of Asian ethnic entrepreneurs are different from those of mainstream and Western countries (House, 2004; Holt, 1997). Their ethnic entrepreneur position makes them select different routes for getting their employees, finance and
suppliers (Chaganti & Greene, 2002; Menzies et al., 2007; Sanders, Nee & Sernau 2002). Holt (1997) also supports this opinion that the business goals of ethnic entrepreneurs sometimes differ from those of mainstream business people. For example, ethnic entrepreneurs often run a business to contribute to their ethnic community or family. To assess the level of influence of ethnic entrepreneurship, Menzies and colleagues (2007) created the Index of Ethnic Involvement (IEI). The IEI index is useful to predict how the level of ethnic entrepreneurship is related to different business outcomes in small ethnic enterprises (Menzies et al., 2007). It thus may be advantageous to inspect if the level of co-ethnic community involvement impacts on employees’ propensity to leave in the ethnic Asian business environment in New Zealand. Therefore, this study conceptualised that the degree of co-ethnic involvement moderate the relationship between the leader's certain leadership styles and the level of employees’ propensity to leave. I thus, propose the second hypothesis as follows:

**H2: Ethnic entrepreneurship moderates the relationship between certain perceived leadership styles and employee turnover intention**

The large theoretical and empirical studies support the negative association between employee job satisfaction and employee turnover (Dickter, Roznowski, & Harrison, 1996; Ejere, 2010; El-Nahas, Abd-El-Salam, & Shawky, 2013; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; Singh & Loncar, 2010; Valentine et al., 2011), and the variation remains low (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Wild, 1970; Vroom, 1962). Chen et al. (2011) reported the negative ties between job satisfaction and employee intention to withdraw based on previous studies conducted in the British Army, the US Army, and a consulting firm. Thus, the following third hypothesis is formulated to test if the inverse relationship between these two variables holds true in the ethnic Asian context in New Zealand:

**H3: There is a significant negative relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee turnover intention.**

Leadership is widely considered important for employees’ job satisfaction across many management studies (Heinen et al., 2013; Roche, Laschinger & Duffield, 2015; Takase, Teraoka, & Kousuke, 2015). This is because leadership acts as a source of employee behaviours, attitude and performance (Aarons, 2006). There is a plethora of cross-cultural studies supporting this argument that supervisory support raises employees’ job satisfaction in Western or Eastern organizational contexts (Abraham, 2007; Babin & Boles, 1996, Bono & Judge, 2003; Firth et al., 2004, Heinen et al., 2013; Scott, Sochalski, & Aiken, 1999; Volk & Lucas, 1991; Westover & Taylor, 2010). Van der Heijden et al.’s (2010) survey on 17,524 registered female nurses in eight European countries showed that lack of direct supervisor support led to a low degree of nurses’ job satisfaction and consequently, contributed to their thoughts of quitting. Thus, the fourth hypothesis is developed to test which of the five leadership behaviours predict employee job satisfaction. In addition, five sub-hypotheses are developed accordingly based on the different influence of the five leadership styles on job satisfaction as described in the previous section, as follows:
H4: There is a significant correlation between the five perceived leadership styles and employee job satisfaction.

H4a: Directive leadership style is negatively related to employee job satisfaction.
H4b: Supportive leadership style is positively related to employee job satisfaction.
H4c: Participative leadership style is positively related to employee job satisfaction.
H4d: Transactional leadership style is negatively related to employee job satisfaction.
H4e: Charismatic leadership style is positively related to employee job satisfaction.

Campion (1991) describes voluntary turnover as avoidable if the company intervenes to make a change, in which leaders identify, manipulate and manage controllable variables. It eventually will lead to the success of the business (Bluedorn, 1982; Terborg & Lee, 1984). Thus, leadership is often suggested as a good indicator of the organization’s effectiveness (Mullins & Devendorf, 2007; Murphy & Johnson, 2011). There is plenty of theoretical and empirical evidence that effective leadership is important for reducing turnover intention (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Eady & Nicholls, 2011; Kleinman, 2004; Scott, Sochalski, & Aiken, 1999; Van der Heijden et al., 2010; Volk & Lucas, 1991; Westover & Taylor, 2010). Therefore, the fifth hypothesis is developed to identify which of the five leadership behaviours are key predictors of employee’s withdrawal intention in ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand. Based on the dissimilar influence of the five leadership styles on employee's turnover intention as reported in the previous section, the following five sub-hypotheses are developed:

H5: There is a significant correlation among the five perceived leadership styles and employee turnover intention.

H5a: Directive leadership style is positively related to turnover intention.
H5b: Supportive leadership style is negatively related to turnover intention.
H5c: Participative leadership style is negatively related to turnover intention.
H5d: Transactional leadership style is positively related to turnover intention
H5e: Charismatic leadership style is negatively related to turnover intention.

2.9 Reflection and Concluding Thoughts

This chapter presents the findings of the literature review from which the conceptual model is developed. Before engaging in the literature review, I thought it was the easiest part of my research and I felt competent in this area. However, it did not take long for me to find this assumption was wrong. It was actually a lot harder than I was used to when doing assignments for the doctoral programme.

First, a major difficulty I have experienced was making concise points and putting them in a cohesive summary structure. Synthesizing and integrating a number of perspectives required
of me not only a great amount of time, but a focus. I needed to summarise and narrow down discursive arguments into a few key thoughts to draw meaningful variables to tackle my research problem. Action research's emergent inquiry process made this process even harder. It required me to continuously inspect existing knowledge as the emergent concept arose. During this process, I was often lost and exhausted. However, while looking back at these moments, they were the valuable moments that drove me to reflect. Next was a plagiarism issue. I had to be extra careful to avoid any possible consequence of dropping a reference by mistake. To prevent this, I do not even remember how many times I have read and checked my writing line-by-line.

The review of the literature has certainly been a painstaking process, however, I learned a lot. I have gained a comprehensive understanding of my research topic and become familiar with its major points. Throughout this process, I ultimately arrived at the three variables that appeared relevant to curtail the high turnover problem for the target company: leadership styles, job satisfaction and the level of ethnic community involvement (ethnic entrepreneurship). Drawing on these variables, I was able to sketch the conceptual backbone of this research project as well as the hypotheses for the quantitative portion of this study. Consequently, I am informed on how to carry out the research. I intend to test the hypotheses using a quantitative approach, which will then be corroborated using a qualitative approach. In the sequent chapter, I will discuss the research methods and design adopted for this research study.
CHAPTER 3:
METHODOLOGY & RESEARCH DESIGN
3.1 Introduction

Deciding on a methodology is a vital element for a research project because the entire research processes and outcomes rest on it. The methodology is inherently decided by a researcher's worldview and the assumptions that the researcher brings to the project (Burgoyne & Cooper, 1975; Cassell & Johnson, 2006). This chapter starts by discussing my philosophical positions, rationale for using the chosen methodology, as well as the endeavours to ensure the methodological rigour of this MMAR study. Subsequently, it presents an overview of the research design and a full description of the methods used for the quantitative and qualitative studies in this project. It includes selection of the research participants process, the chosen instruments and the strategies for data collection and analysis. Finally, my role as the scholarly practitioner, along with research permissions and ethical considerations are discussed.

3.2 Philosophical Position

The philosophical perspectives that a researcher brings to a research project decide the entire direction and outcomes of the research (Burgoyne & Cooper, 1975; Cassell & Johnson, 2006). A researcher's ontological and epistemological assumptions are regarded as two pillar positions that influence the creation of new knowledge (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). While ontology is a philosophical position of seeing the nature of reality, epistemology is an attitude of researching the world (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2012). A researcher's ontology position falls somewhere on a continuum of objectivist to subjectivist or realist to relativist (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Realist or objectivist ontological assumption contends that there is a reality independent of an individual's understanding whether we can actually understand it or not. On the other hand, a relativist or subjectivist ontology assumes that the social and natural reality is an outcome of the human cognitive process or social construction resulting from interactions with people, cultures and experience (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Epistemology on the other hand, addresses how we come to know about the reality, focusing on questions about the reality and knowledge (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Although the terms used to explain epistemological stances vary, the main epistemological positions are often divided between positivism and social constructionism (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012), or positivism and interpretivism (Shah & Corley, 2006).

My ontological assumption however, is not rested in the above two basic philosophical tenets, objectivist and subjectivist, but rather in a totally different domain: “revelation” (Glasersfeld, 1995:5). This typology was introduced by a radical constructivist, Ernst von Glasersfeld in his book of “Radical constructivism” in explaining the ontological positions of George Berkeley who is one of the most famous British empiricists, together with Locke and Hume (Glasersfeld, 1995:31). As a believing Christian, Berkeley views that the ultimate and absolute knowledge resides in God who knows everything all the time. For him, understanding God’s permanence belongs to the realm of metaphysics, not in the domain of
human study. For his way of inquiring about the world, he believed that we gain knowledge about reality through our experience and perception, which is given by God who allowed us to have it. To Berkeley, the existence of an idea is not independent from it being perceived. His famous, and often regarded ontological statement, “esse est percipi” [To be is to be perceived] testifies to his strong constructivist epistemological position (Glasersfeld, 1995: 4). Berkeley is regarded as one of the creators of the constructivist approach together with Vico (Glasersfeld, 1995:49). Overall, Glasersfeld (1995) interprets Berkeley’s position of seeing the world as 'revelation' ontology and his tendency of inquiring of the truth as constructivist epistemology. In his book, Glasersfeld (1995:5) wrote Berkeley’s ontological position as follows.

His ontology is a different matter. He was a believing Christian (so much so that he became a bishop) and he therefore based his ontology on revelation, not on rational knowledge. To make it jibe with this theory of knowing, he added a mystical detail: because God perceives all things all the time, their permanence is assured. But this permanence belongs to the domain of metaphysics, not to the study of rational human knowledge.

Glasersfeld (1995:5) then goes on to explain Berkeley's epistemological stance as follows.

He is, in fact, defining the way he, Berkeley, wants to use the words esse (to be), 'to exist', and 'existence', when he is concerned with human knowledge. He also asserts that, for him, the term 'existence' has no intelligible meaning beyond the domain of experience.

My philosophical positions coincide with Berkeley's: revelation ontology and constructivist epistemology. As a Christian, I also believe in the existence of the only 'absolute truth', the God and their permanence. As Berkeley, I view that we can obtain knowledge of the “experiential world” through our cognition and this is possible only when God lets us feel and perceive. I view that our cognition is an active means of "organizing reality", rather than "discovering ontological reality" as Berkeley argued (Glasersfeld, 1995: 18). This position of researching the world shares the basic tenet of constructivist or social constructionist epistemology (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Spender, 2008). The term constructivism is often called constructionism, although the focuses of these two philosophical stances differ to some extent (Spender, 2008). Piaget's theory of constructivism claims that knowledge creation and meaning making is based upon an individual's experiences in the individual mind. It puts more weight on the imaginative self as an active actor, rather than a passive observer (Spender, 2008:57) On the other hand, Papert’s (social) constructionist views that knowledge creation and meaning making is a product of human relationships grounded in contexts, and it thus resides in discourse or shared social activities (Spender, 2008:56). Despite these differences, both stances underscore meaning-making through social interactions (Derry, 1992; Glasersfeld, 1995). The core assumption of social constructionism is that people construct their own meaning and knowledge through people relationships (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). The social interactions always happen within socio-cultural
contexts and knowledge is determined by the specific context and time (Gergen & Gergen, 2008). Philosophically, the essence of constructionism is hinged with a relativist epistemology that views knowledge as relative to people, time, place, value, and culture (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). This philosophical view is also parallel with that of action research (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). The interest of action research resides in creating knowledge as well as practical solutions (Coghlan, & Brannick, 2010). To achieve this outcome, action research collects multiple viewpoints of knowing by engaging with other stakeholders around the problem (Zuber-Skerrit, & Fletcher, 2007). Action researchers thus highlight the importance of “collaboration and co-operation of the action researchers and members of the organizational system” (Coghlan, & Brannick, 2010:4).

This stance is matched with my tendencies of inquiring the world. I view that knowledge is context specific and jointly constructed and shaped through dialogic interactions with others (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Gergen & Gergen, 2008). In this research project, I have desired to find which variables have the utmost effect on employee’s quitting intention in ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand. Based on this finding, I wish to develop effective intervention strategies that bring a desired change to ABC. To accomplish this research objective, it is essential for me to listen to, engage and work with the stakeholders around the problem including workers and top managers of ABC, as well as employees of other ethnic Asian companies. It informs that a multistrand action research is appropriate to answering my research questions in this study. A multistrand MMAR is designed to search for knowledge through diverse means and people interactions. I have therefore decided to adopt multistrand MMAR design for this research, which is in consonance with this epistemological position, which is discussed in an earlier section.

3.3 Chosen Research Methodology: Multistrand MMAR

In this study, I plan to adopt the MMAR design in Coghlan and Brannick’s (2010) AR cycle of constructing, planning, acting and evaluating, to answer the research questions. A mixed method approach is a favourite technique and many researchers profess its effectiveness and efficiency. Fetters, Curry and Creswell (2013) asserted that a quantitative approach is useful to examine causality among variables, which helps generalize the outcomes. This method allows for relatively quick data collection, and is less time consuming (Amaratunga et al., 2002). On the other hand, qualitative study is useful to explore why or how a phenomenon happens, and to explain the nature of an individual’s feelings and experiences (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). Qualitative data can be used to examine the validity of quantitative findings (O’Cathain, Murphy, & Nicholl, 2010). Thus, a mixed methods design can make study stronger by maximizing the strong points of each method (Chenail, Cooper, & Desir, 2010; Chow & Li, 2010; Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013; Ivankova, 2015; Shah & Corley, 2006). The knowledge produced using a single method is not the same as that using two research methods which examine different aspects of the problem (O’Cathain et al., 2007).
There are four aspects that decide the methodological characteristics of a mixed methods research: the number of quantitative and qualitative approaches (strands); the sequence/timing of each method (sequential/concurrent); the priority given to the research method (weighting) and the integration process (combine, connect and merge) (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Ivankova, 2015; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). A strand refers to an element of a mixed method, which is either quantitative or qualitative research. The sequence or timing stands for the timing of data collection and analysis, which is either sequential or concurrent (Creswell, 2009). If data collection and analysis are sequential, either the qualitative or quantitative phase will come first in the sequence. If concurrent, the qualitative and quantitative phases occur simultaneously. A sequential mixed methods research design can either be explanatory or exploratory in nature (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Priority is described as a relative weighting placed on each method, which can be primarily on a quantitative or a qualitative phase, or equal weighting can be given to both methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

From a methodological perspective of AR, there are some common methodological features that define AR: systematic, cyclical and flexible (Ivankova, 2015). In particular, a cyclical attribute is the most salient feature of AR. There are a number of different cycles of action research. Kurt Lewin, as the father of action research, suggested the first AR model that uses four spiral processes: reflection, plan, action and observation (Ivankova, 2015). Coghlan and Brannick (2010) presented an AR cycle of one pre-step that is concerned with context and purpose, and four main steps of constructing, planning action, implementing action and evaluating action. On the other hand, Stringer (2014:40) proposed much simpler cycles involving look, think and act (Ivankova, 2015:29). Although different action researchers use different cycles, the core nature of the AR cycle remain intact; it follows typical spirals of cycles irrespective of contextual difference and professional or philosophical orientation of a practitioner-researcher (Ivankova, 2015:37). These steps contain identifying the problem, developing action plans and taking and evaluating the action. However, these steps do not always follow a linear progression, but can be repeated and skipped according to the needs of the situation (Ivankova, 2015). This type of structure is possible because of AR’s emergent and flexible nature of knowledge creation (O’Leary, 2004 cited in Ivankova, 2015). In AR, a new idea that was created in one phase can be useful for changing the original plan, which then leads to the next step.

The multistrand MMAR design I will adopt for this research embraces both deductive and inductive methodology, which will be actualized by employing quantitative and qualitative methods respectively. Ivankova (2015) presents four principal types of MMAR design that combines a mixed methods approach in action research: (1) Concurrent Quantitative and Qualitative design (Concurrent Quan+Qual); (2) Sequential Quantitative and Qualitative design (Sequential Quan→Qual); (3) Sequential Qualitative and Quantitative design (Sequential Qual→Quan); (4) Multistrand MMAR study design. These different designs are divided by how the quantitative and qualitative methods are connected. The first three designs show both quantitative and qualitative strands are combined concurrently or
sequentially, while the multiple MMAR demonstrates a multiple of concurrent and/or sequential strands in an AR design (Ivankova, 2015). The information gathered from the deductive approach in my research will help me explore the effect of found variables (employee job satisfaction, leadership styles and ethnic entrepreneurship) on turnover, the inductive process will assist me to establish deeper meanings attached to the findings of the deductive study. Consequently, it will allow me to develop effective action plans to reduce employees’ quitting intentions (Creswell, 2013; Mertler, 2012; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Figure 4 shows how I will utilise the multistrand MMAR in Coghlan and Brannick’s action research cycle.

**Figure 4 Outline of the Multistrand MMAR Design in the AR cycle**

![Diagram of Multistrand MMAR Design](image)

3.4 Rationale for Choosing Multistrand MMAR

The problems we face in the current world are ill-formulated and complex, and have confusing solutions (Churchman, 1967:141). Tranfield and Starkey (1998:347) called this complex organizational context “soft, applied, divergent and rural”. Problem solving in these situations can be problematic with one source or approach (Hassard, 1991). Grint (2005: 1473) asserts that a single focus for practical or academic outcomes inherently poses a risk of misunderstanding and misleading and may not be enough to give us sustainable answers in this capricious and fast-moving world. Herr and Anderson (2005), thus recommend that a practitioner-researcher should strive to assess any possible bias and
Subjectivities to create rigorous study outcomes in action research. Subjectivity is associated with researcher’s biases and is not a foreign subject in qualitative research. In this study, I have implemented various strategies to secure rigour of the study, which are noted in Section 3.5. Of these, combining the data from different sources or triangulation is one of the most repeated strategies that I have utilised in this study, which helps ensure the creditability of this action research (Ivankova, 2015; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Sagor (2000:5) stresses that action researchers should not rely on any single source of data. When both quantitative and qualitative methods are combined in action research, it enhances the credibility, validity and reliability of the study because of the multiple perspectives and information sources (Ivankova, 2015). Also, it helps raise transferability onto other settings and contexts (Johnson & Turner, 2003). Richardson and Reid (2006) showed a significant role of combining data in their action research on elderly people with depression. James, Milenkiewicz, and Bucknam (2008) utilised both qualitative and quantitative data to make their action research more rigorous and cohesive. In this regard, the multistrand MMAR design planned provides me with a sound platform to make better sense of the high turnover problem and enable me to produce scientifically rigorous and practically useful interventions to the high turnover problem (Ivankova, 2015; Johnson & Turner, 2003).

3.5 Methods to Ensure Methodological Rigour of MMAR

The quality of action research is another important factor that a practitioner-researcher should consider in conducting a MMAR study. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) underscore the importance of minimizing a validity threat in a mixed methods study design, otherwise it ends up with inconsistent and incorrect conclusions. However, ensuring the quality or credibility of a mixed methods study is a challenging process because of the different characteristics of each method as well as the divergent chronology of data gathering and analysis (Ivankova, 2015). To secure the quality of a MMAR study, Ivankova (2015:361) suggests inspecting the following three areas: (1) assessing the methodological rigour of each quantitative and qualitative strand; (2) addressing particular quality concerns of the action research process and (3) maintaining the legitimacy and quality of the incorporated conclusions or meta-inferences. In the following section, I document my efforts to secure the methodological rigour following Ivankova’s recommendation in three domains.

For the methodological rigour for the quantitative strand, Ivankova (2015:312) underscores the importance of maintaining data quality, feasibility and utility in collecting quantitative data in spite of a practical and local focus for the action research. Validity is defined as the extent to which a test instrument gauges what it intends to measure. It shows whether an instrument assesses what it is designed to evaluate. Maintaining validity helps in gaining an appropriate interpretation of the collected data (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). In this study, the well-established and tested pre-existing survey instruments are adopted to maintain the validity of the quantitative research. Reliability stands for the consistency of the results that an instrument produces in similar settings (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). In this study,
Cronbach’s coefficient alpha is checked to show the reliability of each instrument adopted in Section 3.7.4 Survey Instruments.

For the methodological rigour of the qualitative study, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that the trustworthiness of qualitative findings can be measured using credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. Credibility stands for the degree of believability of the study outcomes and the confidence in their ‘truth’ (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As a way of measuring credibility, strategies such as triangulation using different methods, member checking or peer debriefing are suggested. Transferability means the degree of transferability to another context. “Rich and thick description” is often used to allow other researchers to compare it with their own research setting (Ivankova, 2015:372). Dependability is the degree of consistency and repeatability of the findings. Strategies for ensuring dependability are triangulation, maintaining an audit trail that records the study’s procedures and data collection, and using external audit (Ivankova, 2015). Conformability refers to the degree of the participants’ influence in drawing the findings, which shows the rigour of the collected data. Strategies to ensure conformability include triangulation, spending extended time at the research site, persistent observation and member checking (Ivankova, 2015).

To ensure the trustworthiness of the qualitative element in this study, triangulation, member checking and rich and thick description are employed. Triangulation refers to a mixture of the multiple types of data, which acts as a powerful source of cross-checking or verifying the data (Mills, 2011:52). This study uses two qualitative studies and one quantitative study in four phases to ensure triangulation. Member checking is another strong technique to build credibility in a qualitative study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It involves the participants in reviewing the notes taken by the researcher to affirm the accuracy of the collected data and any interpretation (Creswell, 2009; Lincoln & Guba, 1985:314). Within this study, I share the final memoranda or the notes taken in the interviews and discussions with interview participants at the end of each engagement to guarantee accuracy. Rich and thick description is a technique of showing lively and detailed description of the context and findings. Throughout the entire phases, I give a rich description of the context and problem by capturing vivid first-hand accounts. This allows other researchers to make comparisons to their contexts (Creswell, 2009; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). As a dependability measure, I have documented all phases, and filed and stored relevant records in a secure place with locks or passwords. Lastly, as an attempt to ensure conformability, I have revealed my assumptions, beliefs and biases throughout the entire study, to reduce subjectivity bias. Herr and Anderson (2005) claim that it is inevitable and acceptable for bias and subjectivity in action research. However, they also argue that practitioner-researchers should critically examine any possible bias and subjectivities to generate rigorous study outcomes as much as possible.

The quality of action research is another important factor that a practitioner-researcher should consider in conducting a MMAR study. To be able to keep this reliability and rigour of action research, a scholarly practitioner needs to ensure a balance between the insider and
outsider status, objectivity and subjectivity, and generality and transferability (Ivankova, 2015:382-384). Ivankova believes that these three criteria can be addressed by preserving the rigour of both qualitative and quantitative study within a MMAR study, which has been noted in the above sections.

Finally, the quality of the integration of inference is obtained by securing legitimation in a mixed methods research. Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) claimed that integration helps link validity within mixed methods design as a continuous examination process. The authors suggest nine types of legitimation model, among which this study employed sequential legitimation, inside-outside, weakness minimisation and multiple validities strategies (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006: 57). Sequential legitimation means minimizing the issues arising from the order of the qualitative and quantitative, or mixed methods study strands (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). This study utilised multiple different approaches by sequence and helped explore and cross validate the findings (Ivankova, 2015). Depending on the timing, different terms are used to explain the integration of data in mixed action research. Combining refers to the integration of quantitative and qualitative methods during the interpretation stage, while connecting happens when the integration is made during a data collection stage and merging occurs during a data analysis stage (Ivankova, 2015). Inside-outside legitimation stands for the degree of accuracy in presenting a researcher’s insider and outsider view in the descriptions (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006).

In this mixed method study, my insider perspectives are utilised in two qualitative strands as a native to the company (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007), and the outsider perspectives are gained through the quantitative data collected from employees of Asian companies in New Zealand. Moreover, a careful choice of well-vetted survey instruments and the extensive literature review adds authoritative outside perspectives to the quantitative approach. As their names lend themselves, weakness minimisation legitimation is an effort to minimise the weakness of one method – quantitative or qualitative – by combining these two methods (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Multiple validities legitimation explains how to draw higher quality meta-inferences by combining quantitative and qualitative validity (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). As examined, my choice of adopting multistrand MMAR demonstrates my endeavours to minimize weakness and validity threat in various ways. As described above, I take numerous precautions to protect the trustworthiness of the data garnered throughout this study. In the following section, I will present how I deployed the research with the step-by-step procedure.

### 3.6 Research Design by Phases

This study is designed sequentially and each stage in the cycle explains the next phase. In terms of the sequence of the research design, this study consists of four different strands in the order of qualitative, quantitative, qualitative and qualitative (Qual→Quan→Qual→Qual). This design is to gain both exploratory and confirmatory outcomes spreading over the four
main stages of Coghlan and Brannick’s AR cycle. The obtained and analyzed data are then merged to validate the outcomes in ABC’s context. Each of the four phases in this study is described in detail below.

As a pre-step, I obtained ethical approval from the ethics committee of the university before the study got underway. I also profiled the context and established the research objectives.

In Phase 1, the constructing phase of this MMAR study, I embarked on the project by collecting qualitative information from the two executives of the target company, ABC. As the key informants, they are the people who know what is going on in the company the most. From the discussions, high staff turnover was identified as the most serious and pressing problem at ABC. The following extensive review of the literature and the company data on employee turnover navigated me to come up with three possible intervening variables to tackle employee’s propensity to leave: employee job satisfaction, leadership styles and ethnic Asian entrepreneurship (ethnic community involvement). Based on these research variables, the conceptual framework and hypotheses are drawn.

In Phase 2, the action planning stage, data will be collected using quantitative and qualitative techniques in a sequential fashion, to better understand the effect of the variables on turnover and find improvement areas for developing feasible and practicable intervention strategies. In the quantitative component of this phase, the survey is administered to employees of ABC as well as those of ethnic Asian firms in New Zealand. The purpose of the quantitative study is to understand which of the three emerged variables are useful in lowering employees’ intention to terminate from work. Moreover, the relationship between employee job satisfaction and turnover intention will be explored. Following completion of the quantitative component, qualitative data collection will be implemented to examine the perceptions and opinions of ABC’s employees on leadership, employee job satisfaction and separation intention via phone. The purpose of the qualitative study is to illuminate the areas of deficiency in applying the found-to-be effective variables found from the quantitative study.

In Phase 3, the action implementation stage, a cascade of actions will be considered to draw some form of meaningful action plans to bring about desired change in ABC as a result of this study. First, the findings from the survey and employee interviews in Phase 2 are merged to gain the meta-inferences. Once this is done, the discussions with ABC’s top managers will be held, based on the merged findings. The purpose of the management discussion is to validate the meta-inferences from ABC’s context and to develop practical and actionable intervention strategies for the high tendency to withdraw in ABC.

In the final Phase, 4, the action evaluation stage, the taken actions (suggested intervention strategies) will be assessed followed by consideration on implications, limitations and future research. Figure 5 shows the process of the multistrand MMAR design used for this research.
3.7 Quantitative Component of the Study

The quantitative component of this MMAR study forms the first part of Phase 2, the action planning stage of the cycle. The primary objective of this quantitative study is to test the hypotheses to understand the effect of and relationship between the three research variables – employee job satisfaction, leadership styles and ethnic Asian entrepreneurship – on turnover intention in ethnic Asian firms in New Zealand. The following section discusses the methods I used for the quantitative survey in more detail.
3.7.1 Research Participants

The study's participants were recruited from two sources: employees and top managers of ABC and employees who have worked in ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand. The sample from ABC includes two top managers and 32 employees totalling 34 people. As an extended version of ABC, workers of ethnic Asian firms are recruited to represent the target group under three criteria (Creswell, 2005): employees of ethnic Asian owned companies, age group (over 18-years old), and the size of the company (small to medium sized). The exact size of the workforce of Asian businesses in New Zealand is not available; however, I roughly estimate it could be around 56,000 people throughout New Zealand in 2014. Statistics New Zealand (2015) reveals that the total number of employees who worked for small (1-5 employees) to medium-sized (50-99 employees) companies were 1,075,000 people in 2015. Extracting the proportion of the employees in the sample criteria (employees belonging to Asian companies and aged 18 and over) based on available 2014 statistics, made the number drop to around 56,000 employees (Statistics New Zealand, 2014a). The data from these two groups are combined for analysis in the quantitative phase because they have similar cultural and organizational attributes.

3.7.2 Sampling Method

A simple random sampling technique is applied to obtain an inference about the population. To determine the minimum sample size for this study, Cochran’s formula (Cochran, 1977) is used, which fits the overall framework of this study and data structure. The population size for this research is N = 56,000. The typical alpha used for this study is 0.05 and the corresponding t-value is 1.96. The general rule of acceptable margin of error is set as \( d = 3\% \times \text{number of points on primary scale} = 0.03 \times 5 = 0.15 \) for continuous variables. Finally, the standard deviation in the population is then estimated by the number of points on the scale over the number of standard deviations on the scale. Putting all these together, Cochran’s formula shows the minimum sample size required for this research is 119.

3.7.3 Survey Design and Approach

The survey is designed to test the five hypotheses formulated around the four research variables. The hypotheses provide a useful guideline in deciding which information and questions should be contained in the questionnaire. The survey questions are extracted from the well tested pre-existing instruments, which will be discussed in detail in Section 3.7.4. It is to locate the perception of the respondents on their employers’ leadership styles, turnover intention and employee job satisfaction level, as well as their employer’s perceived level of ethnic community involvement. The extraction of the questions is performed to decrease the number of questions to reduce the respondent’s time and effort in completing the questionnaires. The survey questionnaire consists of five sections with a total of fifty-seven items including eight items in the demographic section. The first section of the survey contained thirty-five items, which are extracted from two existing survey instruments in
In order to understand the respondents’ perceptions on their employer’s leadership styles. The second section has five items to identify their level of employee job satisfaction, and the third section includes four items to identify their turnover intent. The fourth section consists of five items to measure the level of ethnic entrepreneurship, which is gauged by their employer’s degree of ethnic community involvement. The last or fifth section contains eight demographic and company information questions. Demographic items cover age, gender, education level, tenure and ethnicity. The company information section asks about type of industry, the size of the company, the total number of employees and their ethnic composition. The demographic data is necessary to identify if the sample population fell within the desired inclusion criteria. All selected items are put together on one questionnaire to enhance the ease of completeness.

All survey instruments I have adopted for this study were originally developed in the English language, then translated into the three target languages: Korean, Mandarin (Simplified Chinese), and Cantonese (Traditional Chinese). As the first step, the Korean version was created by me as an ethnic Korean, fluent in both Korean and English. It then was evaluated and revised by a bilingual professional translator. After the completion of the review by a professional translator, we sat down together and discussed better linguistic wordings for the translation to ensure the intended original meaning came across (Hunt & Bhopal, 2004). From the discussion, slight changes in the wording were made and the final Korean version was produced. For the Mandarin version, I commissioned it to an accredited professional translation service company. To increase linguistic and conceptual equivalences (Behling, & Law, 2000), I chose a 'Quality-Assured Translation' option which provides a two sets of translation services. The first translation was done by an experienced tertiary qualified or industry-accredited translator, then reviewed and revised by a more experienced professional translator. For the Cantonese version, I did not use a professional translation service to save cost and time. The vocabularies and grammar are virtually the same between simplified Chinese and Traditional Chinese in written language (ARC communications, 2011). Based on the assumption that the translated simplified Chinese version was reliable, I asked a competent bilingual individual who works for a New Zealand local government agency, to make a pairwise comparison and replace the simplified characters with traditional ones.

In general, the translation processes have been slow and costly. However, it was a valuable process I had to go through to be able to safeguard accuracy, subtlety and comparability in the translations. Hunt and Bhopal (2004) suggest several methods to improve translation validity such as back-translation followed by direct translation, review, and pre-test. These measures are to preserve original meaning and intention of the questions although it is not always possible in a different culture (Hunt & Bhopal, 2004). As a way of securing the validity of the translations in this study, I conducted double reviews and pre-testing which are documented in Section 3.7.5. Overall, I think these measures are stringent enough to secure the intended meaning of the original survey questions.

The survey is administered using both online and paper modes and four versions of the
questionnaire are created under each mode: (a) English version, (b) Korean version, (c) Simplified Chinese version, and (d) Traditional Chinese version (see Appendices C.1, C.2, C.3, & C4). The choice of languages was made based on the fact that the biggest ethnic Asian groups were Chinese, Indian, Filipino and Korean in New Zealand according to Statistics NZ (2014c). All these attempts are to increase the sample size while enhancing the robustness of the survey’s results by collecting the response from larger samples (Dolnicar, Laesser, & Matus, 2009).

3.7.4 Survey Instruments

This study adopts five different pre-existing and well-proven survey instruments that are suited to test my research hypotheses. The existing literature is first reviewed to find the survey instruments that are appropriate to test my research hypotheses. It is important to select instruments that are reputable and well established to be able to ensure the validity and credibility of the data collected. The instruments should not contain too many items so that it is easy for the respondents to complete, thereby raising the response rate. Moreover, the instruments should be generated relatively recently to cope with today’s fast changing environment. Based on these rigorous selection criteria and a number of discussions with my thesis advisor, relevant instruments were chosen, and then modified to better accommodate the intent of the hypotheses. Appropriate permissions to use and alter the instruments were gained accordingly (see Appendices D1, D2, D3, D4, & D5).

To assess the leadership styles of the entrepreneurs, I selected the Path-goal leadership questionnaires created by Indvik (1985) and MLQ-5X by Bass & Avolio (1995). To measure the intention of quitting of employees, Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham’s (1999) Turnover Intention Instrument is employed. Employee job satisfaction is measured using Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley's (1991) Job Satisfaction Relative to Expectations. Finally, the level of ethnic entrepreneurship is assessed using Menzies et al.’s (2007) Index of Ethnic Involvement (IEI), which evaluates the level of an entrepreneur's co-ethnic community involvement. The adopted instruments are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1 Summary of Variables and Instruments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Variables</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent Variables</td>
<td></td>
<td>Path-goal Leadership Questionnaires (Modified)</td>
<td>Indvik, 1985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Five Leadership Styles</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5 X; Modified)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Employee Job Satisfaction | Job Satisfaction Relative to Expectations | Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991
---|---|---
Level of co-ethnic com. involvement | Modified Index of Ethnic Involvement (IEI) | Menzies et al., 2007

| Dependent Variables | Turnover Intention | Turnover Intention Instrument | Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999

| Moderating Variables | Ethnic Entrepreneurship (The level of community involvement) | Modified Index of Ethnic Involvement | Menzies et al., 2007

To ensure the reliability of the modified items of each instrument adopted, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients are checked. Cronbach's alpha is one of the most popular reliability statistics that decide the internal consistency of items in a survey instrument. Its values range from 0 to 1. The higher value shows greater reliability. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients greater than 0.7 are regarded as reliable (Clark & Watson, 1995; Fields & Fields, 2002; Pallant, 2011; Santos, 1999). All Cronbach’s alpha values for the five survey instruments I employed in the quantitative study are all near to or over 0.7, except the transactional leadership style scale (0.679). It is slightly lower than the cut-off point of 0.7. The twelve items of the transactional leadership scale drawn from Bass and Avolio (2004) explain that the Cronbach alpha reliability scores range from 0.69 to 0.83, which is within the acceptable range for internal consistency. A summary of the Cronbach’s coefficient alpha are noted in Table 1.1. The employed instruments are discussed in detail further below.

**Table 1.1 Reliability of Measurement of Scale (Cronbach's Alpha)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent variables</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Supportive leadership style</td>
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<td><strong>Dependent variable</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Moderating variable</strong></td>
<td>ASIAN ENTREPRENEURSHIP</td>
<td>0.773</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Cronbach's Alpha is acceptable at ≥ 0.7 level*
(1) Instruments for Perceived Leadership Styles

Section I of the survey questionnaire asks the respondents about the perceived leadership style of the company head. In this study, the leadership styles refer to the frequency of exhibiting certain types of leadership behaviours rather than a conclusive representation of the leadership the concerned person has (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Thus, it would be more accurate to say, leadership style tendency rather than leadership style. However, to streamline the flow of writing, the term leadership or leadership style has been used throughout the thesis.

This study selected the five leadership styles from the extant literature, and then thirty-five items were drawn and modified from two different leadership instruments: Path-goal leadership questionnaire (Indvik, 1985) and MLQ-5X (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The original Path-goal leadership questionnaire is comprised of 20 items to measure four different leadership styles: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented leader behaviours (Northouse, 2010). Some modification was performed to meet the research objective with the permission of the creator of the questionnaire (see Appendix D.1). First, I extracted 15 items that were concerned with assessing three leadership styles: directive, participative and a supportive leadership style. Second, the wording at the beginning of each question was changed from “I” to “the owner/head of my company” so that it was used to measure the leadership styles of ethnic Asian entrepreneurs from the perspective of the subordinates. Third, the frequency scale was altered from a 7-point to a 5-point scale (1=not at all, 5=frequently or always) to match with other survey instruments.

To measure the remaining two leadership styles, charismatic and transactional leadership styles, the MLQ 5X-Short Rater form was employed. This form was first developed by Bass and Avolio (1995, 2004) to evaluate the full range of leadership behaviours: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive leadership styles. The MLQ-5X-Short Rater questionnaire contains a total of 45 items with four dimensions scaled 0-4 (0=not at all, 4=frequently or always). The following modifications were performed under the permission of the Mind Garden for this research to measure charismatic and transactional leadership (see Appendix D.2). First, among the total 45 items, the relevant 20 questions were taken to assess the two leadership styles. Second, the frequency scale was modified from 0-4 to 1-5 (1=not at all, 5=frequently or always) to match with other survey instruments. Charismatic leadership was measured using the two subscales (idealised attributes and idealised behaviours) with eight items. Transactional leadership was assessed using three subscales (contingent reward, management-by-exception active and passive) with twelve items adopted from the MLQ-5X. The following shows some of the example items from both instruments: 'The owner/top manager of my company,' 'lets subordinates know what is expected of them,' 'maintains a friendly working relationship with subordinates,' 'consults with subordinates when facing a problem,' and 'listens receptively to subordinates’ ideas and suggestions'.
(2) Instrument for Employee Job Satisfaction

To assess participants’ level of job satisfaction, Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley’s (1991) job satisfaction instrument is adopted after gaining the authors’ permission (See Appendix D.3). Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, (1991) mentioned that this instrument was initially generated by Bacharach and Mitchell (1982) and Conley, Bacharach and Bauer (1988 cited in Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991). It consists of five items, and respondents were asked to answer the degree of their satisfaction with their current job ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (4). This scale was also modified with permission to a 5-point Likert scale to match with the other instruments ranging from 1-5 (1=strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). The employees of ethnic Asian firms were asked their agreement with the five statements such as 'I am satisfied with my present job when I compare it to jobs in other organizations,' 'I am satisfied with my present job in light of my career expectations’.

(3) Instrument for Employee Turnover Intention

In this study, the turnover intention was evaluated by using the instrument developed by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999) after obtaining the authors’ permission (see Appendix D.4). Turnover intention is regarded as the best indicator for predicting actual employee turnover behaviour (Bedeian et al., 1991; Steel, 2002). Finding the real turnover data is difficult, thus, the turnover intention scale is used in many research projects. Kelloway’s turnover intention instrument can be regarded as valid given there is not many turnover measures have been validated (Sager, Griffeth, & Hom, 1998). Many studies have adopted this instrument in a modified form to rate employees’ intention to leave. The employees' intention to leave was measured by four items and the following shows some examples of the items: 'I am thinking about leaving this organization,' and 'I don't plan to be in this organization much longer'.

(4) Instrument for the Level of co-ethnic community involvement

The degree of co-ethnic community involvement is measured using the Index of Ethnic Community Involvement (IEI) developed by Menzies et al., (2007) having gained their permission to use it (see Appendix D.5). This instrument was based on Chaganti and Greene’s (2002) definition of ethnic minority entrepreneurs who generally show a high level of involvement in their co-ethnic community. The scale measures the degree of ethnic community involvement at both the personal and business level. In this study, the instrument for the business level was only employed because personal attributes were covered by the demographic section of the survey including gender, education level and ethnicity. The items in this section are comprised of five items with a 5-point Likert scale and identified the degree of perceived level of ethnic community involvement by asking questions about the language used at work, the ratio of the ethnicity of workers, ethnic customers, ethnic suppliers, and the business’s location. The following shows some examples of the items: 'The degree to which the language at work is the same with owner-manager(s) of the company,' 'the degree to which the company depends on the same ethnic workers,' and 'the
degree to which the company depends on the same ethnic customers.

3.7.5 Revision of the Questionnaire after the Pilot Testing

Before beginning the full data collection, the designed questionnaire was pilot tested on eleven employees at two Korean companies and one Chinese company. The intention was to gain familiarity with the entire data collection process, and to ascertain if the selected instruments were efficient at collecting the information needed for the study. I discovered two issues and corresponding changes were made before fully commencing the survey.

First, legibility emerged as an issue, which made me change the font, size and spacing of the letters on the questionnaire in Korean, Chinese and English to increase the legibility. For example, the Times New Roman font was applied on the English questionnaire, size 11.5 points and line spacing of 1 were used for the English questionnaire. This was to make each question confined to one line without dropping down to the next line to enable the participants to read the questions easily, and to understand the content and respond to the questions better (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Second, the issue of the sensibility of the questionnaire items was raised. Two employees wanted me to reassure them of the survey’s anonymity and confidentiality, mentioning that some survey questions were too sensitive. This highlighted the need to secure confidentiality and anonymity. Given this, I made the following two changes. First, the key information stressing confidentiality and anonymity was italicised in red on the survey introduction, which was done in all four languages (simplified and traditional Chinese, Korean, and English). Second, I prepared two different types of blank envelopes for the respondents who wished to complete the paper format survey. One blank envelope was prepared for the completed survey before submitting to provide confidentiality. Another additional envelope was self-addressed and pre-paid, which was to allow the respondents to return the sealed and completed surveys by post.

3.7.6 Survey Administration

The survey data was gathered over four months between May and September 2015 using both online and paper-and-pencil modes. There are some advantages and disadvantages to each mode. The advantages of the online format include anonymity, speed, cheaper cost and flexibility and it also allows the respondents to be more open, and honest (Dolnicar, Laesser, & Matus, 2009). However, the web-based survey may not be as effective for a population with limited internet access, especially older adults (de Bernardo & Curtis, 2013). On the other hand, the paper survey can be simpler for people to participate in, and thus it can enhance the participation rate (Office of Quality Improvement, 2010); however, it is expensive and time consuming. Therefore, a mixed-mode is generally regarded as beneficial not only for yielding higher response rates, but also for promoting the robustness of the survey’s outcomes (Dolnicar, Laesser, & Matus, 2009).

Based on the minimum sample size determined (n=119) I attempted to collect as large a sample as possible to increase the confidence level of the research results (Bartlett, Kotrlik,
& Higgins, 2001). I approached employers, representatives or human resource managers of the candidate companies either by phone or via email for an approval before disseminating the online or paper based questionnaires. Those who agreed to participate in the survey were received a letter of information (see Appendix E) containing the introduction, purpose of the study, confidentiality guarantee and subjects’ freedom to select to not participate or stop without any disadvantage as well as a consent form (Appendix F). The online version of the questionnaire was distributed by an email containing a URL link to the survey. I also posted the link to my LinkedIn and Facebook page. As an attempt to increase the sample size, I visited in person more than 17 Asian local shops that consisted of Chinese, Japanese, and South Korean restaurants, groceries and household shops in the Auckland region. I just walked into these stores and, if they fell into the sample criteria, I solicited for permission to administer the survey. The paper version of the questionnaires was disseminated with the letter of information and collected either by post or in person. Most of the completed surveys were collected by post and only a few of them were gathered in person. For the employees of ABC, the survey was administered online or by mail only. An in-person option was opted out to eliminate any possible bias and the impact of my insider researcher position.

Through the mixed modes of the survey administration, a total of 233 responses were collected including 29 people from ABC. The online version yielded 154 survey questionnaires, the paper and pencil format yielded 79 questionnaires. I then discarded 11 unusable or incomplete questionnaires, which made 222 questionnaires usable for the analysis in the quantitative phase of Phase 2. It is regarded as an appropriate sample size to carry out further analysis. A total of 29 employees of ABC responded to the survey yielding a response rate of 94 percent. Although it has a good response rate, I assume that this small sample size poses risk of being unusual by chance. It may invite biased estimates by producing larger standard errors (McNeish, & Stapleton, 2016). Before administering a survey questionnaire to ABC’s employees, several ethical measures were in place. First, I sent a questionnaire by post to each employee with a prepaid and self-addressed envelope as well as one blank envelope. One blank envelope for the completed survey, while the other one for posting. This was to eliminate any possible pressure on the participants by avoiding face-to-face contact. A NZ$10 (equivalent to US$7.50 as at March 2015, Reserve Bank of New Zealand, 2016) supermarket voucher was offered to each survey respondent to compensate their time spent for the questionnaire completion (Thomas & Hodges, 2010). I regarded the amount of the payment offered was reasonable considering the minimum wage of New Zealand is $14.75 an hour at the time of the research conducted (Employment New Zealand, 2016). To eliminate any ethical risk arising from this payment, the voucher was handed or posted at the end of the survey. In addition, all participants were given the information sheet in oral and/or written ways that emphasized the voluntary nature of the participation, freedom to decline the invitation, and to withdraw at any stage without having any negative consequences (Thomas & Hodges, 2010). The information about payment (gift voucher) was included in the participant information sheet (see Appendix E), which was reviewed and approved by the ethics committee at the outset of this study.
3.7.7 Quantitative Data Analysis Strategy

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 14.0 is used to analyse the data, and the outcomes are then interpreted based on established statistical significance figures. To understand the correlations among the chosen variables, I executed an Independent 2-sample t-test, repeated measure analysis of variance (repeated measure ANOVA), and multiple regressions. Further, I standardised (thus centralised) the independent variables and the hypothesised moderation variables to analyse any interaction (moderation) in the product of these variables. For the data-mining technique, I applied the exploratory factor analysis first, and then I further eliminated the redundant variables, utilising the backward step-wise method. The value of the Beta coefficient is used to show the variance of the independent variable caused by independent variables in the models (Bashir & Durrani, 2014). P-value < 0.05 is introduced to show the statistical significance of the models. The hypotheses are postulated in Chapter 2.

3.8 Qualitative Component of the study

The qualitative studies were conducted throughout the entire stages of the cycle: pre-step, and four main steps of constructing-action planning, action taking and evaluating. As an action research, priority was given to the qualitative studies because the participant’s lively experience sharing, feelings and perspectives at both an individual and collective level provided a rich understanding of the problem and areas of improvement, which in turn helped to address the problem.

3.8.1 Research Participants

Participants of the qualitative studies were recruited from the two groups of the target company: two top managers (2) and employees. The primary research setting for this action research is in ABC, a small-to-medium sized ethnic Asian company that provides trolley collection and commercial cleaning services in New Zealand. ABC is managed by two South Korean immigrants. The workforce of ABC includes the two top managers and thirty-three employees. Among these, one employee with a mental disability was excluded according to the sample inclusion criteria. The three different qualitative studies were carried out over four main phases of the cycle. In Phase 1 and Phase 3, the two top managers were invited to participate in unstructured interviews and discussions. In the first part of Phase 2, employees were asked to take part in a survey and then a phone interview at a later time as the second part of Phase 2. The participants of the two groups are briefly described below.

First, ABC's top managers are the most relevant individuals who could confidently identify the company’s issues and problems as the decision makers of the company. Their input
navigated me to find the current key problem of the target company. The necessary permissions to conduct the study in the company were obtained accordingly (see Appendices B.1, B.2, B.3, B.4, E, F). To protect the identity of the participants, I have used pseudonyms when describing the participants.

Secondly, for the employee interviews, twelve employees of ABC volunteered to participate in the phone interview. As an inclusion criterion, I decided to interview the employees who had worked for the company for at least two months (8 weeks). Although this tenure frame still seemed to be too short, it was long enough to hear of lively experiences considering that the average tenure of the company was less than four months. Apart from this minimal inclusion criterion, I did not set any further criteria for the second interview participants because the number of volunteers for the interview was already too small. The relevant permissions were obtained before engaging them with the interview (see Appendix E, F). Of these twelve volunteers, eight were working with Leader A, and the other four were working with Leader B, which represented a ratio of 67% for Leader A, and 33% for Leader B. This ratio was not intentional but it was about right considering approximately 70% of the geographic locations were covered by Leader A and the remaining 30% were managed by Leader B due to the dispersed nature of the work sites. The appropriate participation ratio was important because it mirrored the needs of the current leadership styles at the company more accurately. All employee participants had South Korean ethnicity, females accounted for 17% (2 people) and males accounted for 83% (10 people). This disproportionate gender mix reflects the physically demanding nature of the trolley collection and commercial cleaning work.

As part of my effort to minimise any possible risk of bias in data collection, I examined if there was any potential threats in the sample selection process in Phase 2, in which a certain sample group (ABC employees) participated in both a survey and a phone interview. I examined whether it may prime the interviewees with expected answers by exposing them to the survey questions that are similar to those of the interview. I view such risk as marginal for the following two reasons. First, the lead time between the survey and the interview is around one month to five months. This time gap is long enough to dismiss the memory of the survey questions. Secondly, it is hard to justify that all interview participants took part in the survey for the following reason. The interview participants were selected from employees who had worked for two months in ABC while the average tenure of the employees was around four months. It shows not all survey participants are necessarily the interview participants. Even if all interviewees completed the survey, the survey is administered in an anonymous form; it thus is impossible to track down which survey respondents joined the interview anyway. Most importantly, the main purpose of the interview is to dig deep into ABC employees' perceptions, attitudes and feelings on the research variables that are employee job satisfaction, leadership styles, ethnic entrepreneurship and turnover intention. Therefore, the interview protocol is comprised of a number of open-ended questions that have no pre-given answers like in the survey. For example, to identify the perceived leadership styles of ABC leaders, I posed a question like this: ‘How would you characterize your leadership style?’ and then a series of secondary
questions follow such as 'What aspects of your leadership behaviour do you think your employees like the most and the least?' How do you like to introduce your leader to new hires of the company?’ Together with this, I invited them to provide reasons or anecdotes as well as additional comments to support their answers at the end of each interview. These multiple layers of the questions served to cross-validate the genuineness of the answers and help prevent the interviewees from priming the answers or filtering the information. Even though all these measures may not be possible to completely eliminate bias and risks arising from data collection, I view these triangulation efforts as providing me with a safety pin to minimize potential harm and threat to enhance credibility and reliability of the study outcomes.

3.8.2 Interview Questionnaire Design

The interview questions are initially drafted in Korean language considering all interview participants are ethnic Koreans whose mother tongue is Korean. The research outcomes are then translated into English for the research reporting purpose. The interview protocol contains a total of seventeen questions over three parts: perceived leadership styles, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The first seven questions are to collect information on the interviewees' perceptions on the leadership styles of the top manager whom they are working with. The next six questions seek to understand the level of job satisfaction of the interview participants in relation to the leader and their jobs. The final four questions are to understand the turnover intention. At the end of each section, the participants are invited to make any additional comments. The interview questions appear in Appendix G.

3.8.3 Qualitative Data Collection

The qualitative data were collected over the three phases (Phase 1, 2 & 3: constructing, planning and action taking) of the action research between January 2015 and March 2016. A series of informal discussions and interviews were conducted with the two top managers of the target company in a face-to-face setting over the three phases during this time frame. Due to frequent interactions and engagements, audio recordings were not made, but notes were taken each time, which I shared with the participants after the interaction to make sure the contents were accurate as a way of ensuring credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The interviews with ABC’s employees were conducted as the second component of Phase 2 after the quantitative survey. Thus the interview was held over two weeks during mid October 2015. As a way of ensuring the credibility of the interview data, I recapped the summary of the responses at the end of each interview (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

3.8.4 Qualitative Data Analysis Strategy

The culled data in the qualitative phases were analyzed using a thematic analysis suggested by Creswell (2009), which included organising, investigating the interview notes and memorandums, coding key themes and revealing the themes in the data. This analysis is
suitable for an explorative or descriptive research that focuses on issue analysis or examines relations. Considering the purpose of the qualitative study in this phase was to explore the perceptions of the employees and to identify a current state of the target company, I found a thematic analysis was beneficial (Kuckartz, 2014). This analysis of the qualitative data gained from the two ABC management were carried out by hand rather than using a computer analysis or a systematic thematic table because of the small, two-person sample size. All interactions were documented by dates on my reflection note book. For the employee interview responses, I formulated the profile matrix using an Excel spread sheet to gain a clear, graspable understanding of the information gathered (Kuckartz, 2014). I organised the topics as structuring elements in the columns. The profile matrix was thus created under the three different research variables: perceived leadership styles, job satisfaction and turnover intention (Kuckartz, 2014). This enabled me to have an overview of a particular participant’s statements (see Appendix I). The thematic table was created in Korean because all interviewees were Korean, thus the interview was conducted in Korean. After following Creswell’s thematic analysis process, the five themes and corresponding sub-themes emerged, which are noted in Chapter 5.

3.9 Role of the Researcher

My role in this MMAR project was twofold: both as the researcher and as a participant in the research. The typical challenges of a researcher-practitioner include dual roles; information access, pre-understanding and political management (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007). Each of these four challenges offers both advantages and disadvantages to me. However, I find pre-understanding and the dual role as the scholarly practitioner impacted on me the most in implementing this research project.

Since the founding of the target company, I have assumed a director’s role. The pre-understanding and my insights gained from my long service at the company have been a valuable resource in implementing the project. It has assisted me to grasp the employees’ deeply seated perceptions and attitudes more accurately, which an external expert may not have noticed. This is because I understand the ‘emic’ knowledge of the company as a native to the company (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007). An ‘emic’ approach embraces culturally and historically bound investigations from an insider’s perspective. On the other hand, an ‘etic’ approach focuses on general phenomena that apply across cultures from an outsider’s perspective (Dorfman, 2004). However, the pre-understanding can hamper me from challenging some taken-for-granted assumptions with criticality. With my insider position as the practitioner at the target company, I can have easy access to the senior managers who are the key informants of this study. This will provide me with great freedom in collecting data and accessing the company data. At the same time, this insider position inherently poses some ethical challenges at the employee interviews. This position can invite information filtering (Bies & Tripp, 1998), resistance (Piderit, 2000) or organizational silence (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). The employees may distort the interview responses due to fear of
backlash, which would inhibit me from capturing their critical opinions and perspectives (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). As a family member to one of the heads of the company, I am well aware that the employee participants might perceive that I have power over them by virtue of my position. In this regard, various efforts to minimize ethical hazards are further noted in the following section.

3.10 Research Permission and Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was obtained on 13th January 2015 from the International Online Research Ethics Committee of the University of Liverpool (see Appendix A). The ethics application included the research proposal, information sheet for the participants, consent form and ethics response form. In this process, I was required to submit my plan to address the thirty-five items of ethical standards for the study implementation, and these were then reviewed by the ethics reviewers. Based on the comments from the committee, I put forward my response to address the possible ethical issues and concerns. The following were the major concerns addressed.

The committee first required me to demonstrate ways of dealing with the potential ethical risks for the research participants of my company. The committee pointed out that the hierarchical culture of the Korean company could force the employees to participate in my research project. I agreed with the bureaucratic and hierarchical attributes of Korean culture, however, I disagreed with the strong possibility of the potential push against the participation of ABC’s employees. Recently, ABC has been struggling with labour shortages due to the physically demanding work with a minimum wage. There is little motivation for the employees to put up with any unfair or coercive demands from an employer because of the abundant employment opportunities in this area. In addition, most of ABC’s employees consist of temporary and young workers who could leave the company at any moment. Thus, they are very straightforward and upfront in expressing their opinions. The strong New Zealand labour laws is another factor influencing young workers’ low tolerance of an employer's coercive attitudes. It is undeniable that Korean culture plays a great role in exhibiting certain types of attitudes and behaviours. However, I view that the risk of violating ethical standards is low, based on the above mentioned reasons. Instead, I think that Korean people's strong face-saving culture might make employees filter the information during the interviews (Bies & Tripp, 1998). In this regard, I will conduct interviews via phone with a voice distortion option to reduce the risk of information filtering to some extent. The phone interview format can provide the interview participants with a comfortable and confidential environment to express frank and open opinions (Stringer, 2014). This option can work because I have not been involved with daily operations nor have I had direct exposure to the employees of the company. A voice distortion option is another measure to reassure the confidentiality of the content of the interview responses. Apart from these, various measures will be in place to improve the anonymity or confidentiality of the respondents in the report writing. For instance, name, gender (female
only), and work sites will be concealed in the current thesis writing. The interview participants will be described as Participant 1 to Participant 12. Any words indicating a female gender are prohibited including ‘she’ and ‘her’ given the fact that the number of female participants is only two. Appropriate research consent and permissions were gained from all qualitative and quantitative research participants (see Appendix B, E & F).

As identified, this study is not immune from ethical violation. I cannot completely eliminate the ethical risk stemming from the Korean culture and my position as a family member to the head of the company. However, I am well aware of the possibilities of ethical violation during the different research stages of this study. I thus have been vigilant in relation to minimizing ethical violation while including a range of preventative measures from data collection and analysis to integration throughout the study. I have gained sensitivity to the tangible and intangible ethical threats during the learning at my DBA programme at the University of Liverpool. I thus feel confident that the insight and ethical awareness gained will help overcome these barriers and generate a practically and theoretically robust solution.

3.11 Reflection and Concluding Thoughts

This chapter reflects on the methodology and research design used to answer the overall research question of this project: "What are effective intervening strategies for the high employee turnover intention in ABC and other ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand?" To answer this question, this chapter begins with my philosophical positions, from which the methodology and research design are constructed.

Developing a fitting research methodology and design has been challenging with many learning curves. One of the hardest tasks in this phase was articulating my philosophical stances using traditionally two basic philosophical tenets: objectivism and subjectivism. While I paged through my reflection notes, I found a simple line that expressed my agony in this task. "Ahh!!!" I then scribbled all along the bottom of the page. Yes, I screamed, and screamed a lot. In this long and dark tunnel, Berkeley, a British empiricist was the saviour. As a sincere Christian, Berkeley puts his way of seeing the world (ontology) as "revelation", while the way of inquiring about the world (epistemology) as a constructivist. Based on the philosophical stance outlined above, I envisioned the results I would eventually create from this research. I reviewed the literature, and critically analysed a wide array of research methodologies and types of outcomes generated by each methodology before deciding the methodology for my study. As I progressed, it became clear that the action research design was the most appropriate method to achieve the research objectives. Of course, the action research design is not immune from hindsight. It is inherently subjective, prone to bias, and hard to generalize or replicate because of its qualitative nature. The qualitative data is soft, elusive and messy to some extent (Jick, 1979; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Thus, some objective and quantifiable information might add value to my qualitative outcomes (Wilson & Chaddha, 2010; Creswell, 2013). Vidich and Shapiro (1955: 31) asserted that researchers
could only make guesses about their biases; however, survey findings help researchers to generalize their subjective analysis confidently. In this regard, I believe inclusion of the quantitative research is an appropriate research method to obtain both a rigorous and relevant solution to the problem. It demonstrates that the mix of the quantitative survey and qualitative interview is an appropriate research method to obtain both a rigorous and relevant solution to the problem. In this regard, I view that the multistrand MMAR study design is a logical step forward in achieving research objectives and advancing knowledge of business behaviours of ethnic Asian entrepreneurs. The next chapter presents the findings of the quantitative study.
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS OF QUANTITATIVE COMPONENT

PART 1 OF PHASE 2 – PLANNING ACTION
4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the first component of Phase 2 (planning action), the quantitative study on employees of ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand. The main purpose of using the quantitative method is to understand the impact of three candidate antecedents on turnover intention by testing the hypotheses presented at the outset of the study. Before becoming involved in the main analyses, preliminary analyses were performed to check whether there is any obvious violation of the basic assumptions and to understand the viability of the collected data. The analyses are presented around the hypotheses, which are supported by relevant result summary tables. The visual diagram of Phase 2 of the multistrand MMAR design is depicted in Figure 6.

Figure 6 Action research stages (Planning Action phase)

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics are presented with the mean and standard deviation values of each variable, and are summarized in Table 2. There is no significant mean difference between each leadership style variable. The variance of turnover intentions is relatively higher than job satisfaction.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
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<th>Std. Deviation</th>
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<td>1.80</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.741</td>
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<td>Supportive leadership style</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative leadership style</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic leadership style</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.767</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Demography of Participants and Business Characteristics

Various questions were asked to understand the demography of respondents and their business characteristics. To identify respondents' demographic characteristics, the survey respondents were asked to answer their gender, age, education level, tenure, and ethnicity. To understand industry characteristics, the respondents were asked to identify the type of industry to which their company belongs, size of the company and the proportion of Asian employees in their company. This demographic information can help examine the match between the samples in the study (Creswell, 2005).

The data are collected from two data sources: one from employees of ABC and the other from employees of other ethnic Asian companies; however, the sample size of ABC seems to be too small to produce statistically significant outcomes (Steensma, Breukelens, & Sturm, 2004). I thus favoured combining these two samples to make up a complete data. The demographic information of ABC’s respondents is shown to be moderately comparable to those from the complete data except gender composition, education level and job tenure. Of the 29 ABC respondents, the predominant gender was male with 79.3% (n = 23) and female consisted of 20.7% (n = 6). These demographic findings may mirror ABC's labour intensive work nature and low skill requirement. For education level, ABC’s employees had much lower levels of education compared to that in the complete data. Of the respondents 65.5% had education below high school level, while only 21% had a 2-year diploma. Job tenure was another factor that showed some gaps with that in the complete data. A significantly high number of workers (82.7%) in ABC had worked for the company for less than six months. In comparison with the complete data, there was no notable difference in job satisfaction between the complete and ABC’s data. However, overall turnover intention was higher for ABC’s data than the complete data by about 1.0 points. ABC’s data showed higher overall co-ethnic community involvement by 0.35 points on a scale of 1 to 5. On the other hand, the areas of the general framework for the industry characteristics such as labour intensive industry, the size of the firms, and a large proportion of employees with Asian ethnicity lined up well with the characteristics of the target sample, ABC. Taken as a whole, the demographic attributes and industry characteristics between the two groups are fairly homogenous although there were some apparent discrepancies. I hence found no hazard in combining these two data sets for the analyses. Table 3 shows the mean and standard deviation between the two data sets.
The detailed demographic and business profiles of the combined samples are described accordingly in the section following. The results of the demographic and business information of the survey respondents are summarized in Table 4.

### Table 4 Summary of Respondents' Demography and Business Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent and Business Characteristics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-30</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51+</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College (high School) or below</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-yr Diploma</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University (degree)</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate school</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work Period</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 3 months</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6 months</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-12 months</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 years</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6 years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 6 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnicity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>221</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity of Employees in the Company</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori/Pacific Islander</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White/Caucasian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business Type</th>
<th>222</th>
<th>100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administration &amp; support services</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation &amp; restaurants</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail trade</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media &amp; telecommunications</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale trade</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export or/and Import</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other combination of businesses</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gender:** The item asking about gender was responded to by 221 employees of ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand. The results showed that participation by both men and women was relatively evenly distributed. Of the 221 population, 51.8% (n = 115) were male while 47.7% (n = 106) were female.

**Age:** The age of the respondents ranged from 18 to 60 years and over. Of the respondents, 78% identified that they belonged to the age group of 40 years and below. In detail, 41% (n = 92) fell in the age group of 31-40 years, 37% (n = 81) fell in the age group of 18-30 years, and 18.5% (n = 41) identified that they were in the age group of 41-50 years.

**Education:** Approximately 82% of the participated employees reported having completed at least a 2-year degree or higher. In detail, 52% had a graduate degree (n = 126), 18% had a 2-year undergraduate degree (n = 35) and 10% had a master’s degree or over (n = 22). Only 15% reported that they had a high school certificate or below (n = 34).

**Work Period:** The survey data showed that job tenure was relatively equally distributed except employees with 1-3 years in the job who were the most at 25.7% (n = 57). Moreover, 18.5% had less than 3 months in the job (n = 41), 15.8% had 6 months to 1 year in the job (n = 35), 15.3% had 3-6 years in the job (n = 34), and 10% had over 6 years in the job (n =22).

**Ethnicity of Respondents:** More than 95% of the respondents had an Asian ethnicity. The European and Maori (or Pacific Island) percentage were marginal accounting for less than 1.5 percent each of the total respondents.

**Percentage of Asians Employees in the Company:** The data showed that Asian was the dominant ethnicity of employees in ethnic Asian businesses in New Zealand being more
than 91%.

**Business Size:** Respondents were asked about the total number of employees in their company, which was to figure out the size of the enterprise that they belonged to. 36% of the respondents identified that their company had 6-19 employees (small in size), 34% responded that their company had 20-49 employees (small-to-medium in size), and 20% answered that their company had 50-99 employees (medium in size). According to this result, a significant proportion (70%) of the respondents reported that their business was either small or small-to-medium in size. This size distribution was matched with this study's target group. The size of the target company sits in the small to-medium range.

**Business Type:** Industry type was another aspect that needed attention in order to gain more accurate outcomes that fitted the target company. ABC as a trolley collections and commercial cleaning service provider is under “Administration and Support Services Industries” (Statistics New Zealand, 2016). The collected data showed that the 70.7% of the respondents belonged to a labour intensive industry such as administration and support (25.2%), accommodation and restaurants (24.3%), and retail and trade (21.2%). This finding is consistent with Statistics NZ’s 2013 data which showed that a notably high proportion of Asians were engaged in retail trade (14.2%) and accommodation and food service (13.5%), compared to NZ European had 9.8 percent and 4.7 percent respectively (Statistics NZ, 2014a, 2014e). Particularly, a large number of South Koreans worked in accommodation and food services (23.1%) and retail trade (15.9%) (Statistics NZ, 2014a). The outcomes indicated the surveyed business types were similar to that of ABC.

There are two notable features of the demographic and business profiles of the survey sample. First, the education level of employees in Asian companies was very high. Around 82% of the respondents reported having at least a 2-year degree. Given the fact that most of the Asian enterprises have clustered in industries that require an unskilled workforce (e.g., Rose & Wright, 2005), it seems the workers in Asian firms are overqualified for their current jobs. This may act as a source of job dissatisfaction that triggers turnover as identified in Porter and Steer's (1973) unmet expectations theory. Although the antecedents of job satisfaction differ from researcher to researcher, a tremendous amount of turnover literature has suggested that dissatisfaction with the job is one of the major factors that prompt employees to separate from the job. Secondly, the findings showed a significant turnover intention difference between males and females in Asian companies in New Zealand. Male respondents indicated a higher turnover intention than female respondents, having the mean score difference of 0.38. There are some mixed findings on the relationship between turnover intention and gender in previous studies. Naylor and Vincent (1959) found that female employees generally showed a higher absenteeism and turnover rate than male workers. This was because female employees generally were not the main source of the family income. However, with the exactly same reason, some researchers argued that male workers tended to leave more than female (McShulskis, 1997). McShulskis interpreted that the Asian male's traditional breadwinner position in the family made them sensitive to a better job offer elsewhere. Although in need of additional study, higher academic
qualification and strong family commitment as the head of the family may be a possible explanation for a higher level of turnover intention (Porter & Steers, 1973).

4.4 Missing Data

In this study, I used a simple imputation technique in treating missing data. Simple imputations are a common method in social science to fill in missing values keeping the full sample size. Some researchers criticize it as inappropriate in many situations (Ibrahim et al., 2005). However, this technique is regarded a good way of reducing non-response bias by compensating non-responses with plausible values. It uses a complete number for an analysis rather than eliminating the missing data (Durrant, 2009). On a negative note, if the imputed values are non-ignorable in the sense, it may cause a negative effect on the entire research outcomes (Ibrahim et al., 2005; Durrant, 2009). Despite its salient downside, there were not many cases of missing values in this study (all below 1.2 percent), so I view that the risk of limiting meaningful analysis from this technique was marginal. I hence used a complete data set of 222 for the regression analyses in this study.

4.5 Outliers

It is important to check outliers because they can distort statistical tests when they are identified as problematic outliers (Spicer, 2005). Mahalanobis distance analysis was performed to find outliers. The p-value > .05 for Mahalanobis distance is the accepted standard for outliers and the values greater than 20.52 would be regarded as outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Mahalanobis distance results showed that there were no outliers in both regressions for Hypothesis 4 and 5. The top five outliers are presented in Table 5.

Table 5 Top Five Outliers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complete Data (Hypothesis 2)</th>
<th>Complete Data (Hypothesis 3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Mahalanobis distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>211</td>
<td>9.03132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>159</td>
<td>8.88429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>8.86453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.48584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>8.45116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance level p < 0.05
4.6 Normality, Linearity and Homoscedasticity

The normal distribution is a fundamental assumption for a statistical test and structural equation model (Hair, 2006). I first observed normality from scatter plots (see Appendix H). Each variable seemed to be normally distributed around its mean. To further test normality statistically, I performed the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) statistic and Shapiro-Wilk test. The p-value of lower than 0.05 indicates that null hypothesis will be rejected (Öztuna, Atilla Halil, & Tüccar, 2006). The findings of these two tests are presented in Table 6.

### Table 6 Tests of Normality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Complete Data</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnova</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univariate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction (JS)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intention (TI)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic community involvement</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate</td>
<td>Residual of Regression of leadership &amp; JS (Hypo 4: see 6.10.4)</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual of Regression of leadership &amp; TI (Hypo 5: see 6.10.3)</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above results showed that the significance value of most of the variables suggested a violation of the assumption of normality. I further conducted multivariate normality tests to see if the residuals of regression in Hypothesis 4 and 5 were normally distributed. The results also showed that some of the variables suggested a violation of the assumption of normality as well. However, the scatter plot appears to be normal (see Appendix H). Pallant (2010) explains that this is not uncommon in larger samples. As the sample size is augmented, normality parameters get more restrictive and normal distribution becomes harder. I thus assume that the above violations may have little meaningful effect on the analysis.
4.7 Correlations Statistics

Before conducting the multiple regression analyses on the five leadership styles and job satisfaction as well as turnover intention, Pearson's correlation coefficients values are computed (Pallant, 2010). A Pearson's correlation coefficient is used to measure the direction (positive or negative) as well as the magnitude of the relationship between the two continuous variables (Pallant, 2010). According to Neuman (2003), Pearson's correlations coefficients (r) range from -1 to 1, which represent a perfect negative and a perfect positive linear relationship respectively. Although there are no definite rules, Salkind (2003) proposed the strength of variable association is weak if the coefficient ranges between $r = 0.20$ and $r = 0.40$, moderate when between $r = 0.40$ and $r = 0.60$, strong when between $r = 0.60$ and $r = 0.80$, and very strong when between $r = 0.80$ and $r = 1.00$. The correlation results are summarized in Table 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7 Correlations Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>DIR</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DIR</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUP</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PAR</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAR</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TRANS</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>J.S</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T. Intent</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.I</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significance level $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed), otherwise, Significance level $p < 0.05$

* Abbreviation:

DIR (Directive Leadership style), SUP (Supportive Leadership style), PAR (Participative Leadership style), CHAR (Charismatic Leadership style), TRANS (Transactional Leadership style), J.S (Job Satisfaction), T. Intent (Turnover Intention), E.I (Ethnic Involvement)

The results of Table 8 indicate that all the associations between each of the five leadership styles and job satisfaction were positive ranging from a weak (0.332) to moderate level (0.566). The strength of the linear associations between the five leadership styles and turnover intention ranged from the weak (0.105) to moderate level (-0.419) as well. However, the magnitude of correlations between the independent variables (five leadership styles) was relatively strong. Many of these correlation coefficients values were around 0.6, which may suggest the possibility of multicollinearity. In this regard, I will employ a
stepwise backward elimination method to select the most significant leadership styles and the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) will be checked to see if any multicollinearity exists before the multiple regression analyses. The outcomes are presented in the corresponding analyses section. The linearity and homoscedasticity between each independent and dependent variable were also checked and no unusual features were found. After the regression, the variance of residuals on the scatter plots also seemed to be equally distributed around zero (see Appendix H). It suggested that the assumptions of multivariate linearity and homoscedasticity were satisfied.

4.8 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is a technique often used to find any underlying factors that could cause the manifest variables to co-vary. It reduces a big number of related variables into a more manageable number before performing analysis (Pallant, 2011). The cut-off point for a factor is slightly different among scholars. Swisher, Beckstead and Bebeau (2004) suggest acceptable factor loading ranges from 0.30 to 0.55. Fields and Fields (2002) explains that a factor can be regarded as reliable when four or more loadings have at least 0.6. The results summarised in Table 3 indicated that the transactional leadership style had the lowest factor loading by far, but it met the recommended value suggested by Swisher, Beckstead, and Bebeau (2004) and others. I then performed regressions using stepwise backward elimination to further enhance the validity of the models. The values of factor loading and communality are presented in Table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Independent Variables</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td>0.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td>0.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>0.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>0.867</td>
<td>0.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td>0.348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>3.304</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of the variance explained</td>
<td>66.086</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Method: Principal components analysis

Overall, the above preliminary analyses outcomes show that the data collated are suitable for further statistical analysis.
4.9 Hypotheses Testing

The repeated measures ANOVA and regression approaches are used to test and validate the proposed hypotheses for this study. The hypotheses are formulated based on the five research questions noted in Chapter 1 to understand the effect of and relationship between identified variables. My initial intention was to compare the data obtained from ABC with those of other Asian enterprises that had similar cultural and industry characteristics. This was to understand the current status of ABC and to identify the leadership needs and directions for ABC by comparing with the outcomes from the larger samples that have similar characteristics. However, no distinctive perceived leadership styles emerged in ABC’s data after the initial analysis, which made it difficult to make comparisons. I therefore conducted analyses on the findings of the complete data that combined the data from ABC and other ethnic Asian companies. Considering the large homogeneity of the criteria for these two groups, I found no concern or risk in combining these two samples. The analysis of ABC’s data postulated in each part of the following sections is for indicative purposes only, to enrich understanding of the results from the complete data.

4.9.1 The Level of Co-ethnic Community Involvement (H1 & H2)

Two hypotheses were formulated to understand if there are dominant leadership styles that define ethnic entrepreneurs and the effect of entrepreneur’s co-ethnic community involvement on employees’ turnover intention.

**H1: There is a significant mean difference among the five chosen leadership styles of ethnic Asian entrepreneurs**

The first hypothesis is to test if there are any salient leadership styles that are displayed by ethnic Asian entrepreneurs as per their employees’ perception. A total of 35 questions were asked in order to understand the prominent leadership styles among Asian entrepreneurs in New Zealand. To test this hypothesis, a repeated measure ANOVA has been conducted. The results in the complete data showed that directive and supportive leadership styles were found to be the most frequent leadership styles displayed by Asian entrepreneurs in ethnic businesses with a mean score of 3.80 and 3.75 respectively on a scale of 1 to 5. On the other hand, transactional leadership style scored the lowest mean of 3.20, which implied the least number of respondents in Asian companies viewed their top manager as a transactional leader. The detailed results are presented in Table 9 and Table 9.1.

The results of ABC’s data revealed no significant differences in means among all five perceived leadership styles. This indicated that there are no dominant leadership styles of ABC’s managers as perceived by their employees. As outlined earlier, I assume that the small sample size (n = 29) of ABC in the present study may invite this unrepresentative outcome by chance.
Table 9 Distribution of Leadership Points (Complete Data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive leadership style</td>
<td>3.746</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive leadership style</td>
<td>3.798</td>
<td>.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative leadership style</td>
<td>3.550</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic leadership style</td>
<td>3.637</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional leadership style</td>
<td>3.201</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* On a scale of 1 to 5

Table 9.1 Pairwise Comparisons (Repeated measure ANOVA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) Factor 1</th>
<th>Leadership Styles</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig. b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>-0.052</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>0.196*</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>0.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>0.546*</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>0.248*</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>0.161*</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>0.598*</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>-0.196*</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>-0.248*</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>-0.087</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>0.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>0.349*</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>-0.109</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>0.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>-0.161*</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>0.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>0.436*</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>-0.546*</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>-0.598*</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>-0.349*</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>-0.436*</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* For Pairwise Comparisons, Repeated measures of ANOVA were conducted.
* Significance level \( p < 0.05 \)
In sum, the results indicated that ethnic Asian entrepreneurs were mostly seen as directive leaders, followed by supportive and participative leaders. The findings demonstrate that there are dominant leadership styles displayed by ethnic Asian entrepreneurs. Although it is hard to make a definitive conclusion with the comparison of the mean difference only, this implies that certain leadership styles may be influenced by the leader's ethnicity and ethnic entrepreneur position. Therefore, hypothesis H1 is supported.

**H2: Ethnic entrepreneurship moderates the relationship between certain perceived leadership styles and employee turnover intention**

This second hypothesis was tested to understand if the level of co-ethnic involvement moderates the relationship between the leadership styles and employee's intention to quit. The survey outcomes showed ethnic Asian entrepreneurship either had no relation or did not moderate the relationship between the perceived leadership styles and employees’ turnover intention.

In detail, ethnic Asian entrepreneurship did not moderate on the relationship between employees’ turnover intention and supportive and participative leadership styles (p-value = 0.742, 0.553). The other three leadership styles such as directive, transactional, and charismatic leadership styles, had no relationship with turnover intention to analyse moderation. The detailed results are presented in Table 10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 10 Coefficients (Complete, Moderation)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Entrepreneurship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderator_Supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderator_Participative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance level p < 0.05

Similarly, ABC’s data revealed that ethnic Asian entrepreneurship did not moderate the relationship between turnover intention and neither did a supportive or charismatic leadership style (p-value = 0.742, 0.553). Other leadership styles had no relationship with turnover intention to analyse moderation. The results are presented in Table 10.1.
The overall outcome suggests that the level of entrepreneur's co-ethnic involvement did not contribute to employee turnover. In conclusion, the results of the regression analysis indicated no evidence of the moderation effect of ethnic Asian entrepreneurship on the relationship between the level of entrepreneur's ethnic involvement and quitting intention. The analysis therefore did not support hypothesis H2.

4.9.2 Employee Job Satisfaction (H3)

**H3: There is a significant negative relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee turnover intention.**

A simple regression analysis was carried out to test the relationship between the primary independent variable, job satisfaction and withdrawal propensity. The results show that a one-unit increase in job satisfaction corresponds with around a 0.713 point decrease in turnover intention. In other words, participants with high levels of job satisfaction had a lower level of intention to leave the company, compared to those with moderate to low job satisfaction. The detailed results are presented in Table 11.

**Table 11 Coefficients* (Complete, Job Satisfaction & Turnover Intention)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>5.339</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>17.230</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satis.</td>
<td>-0.713</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>-8.860</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance level p < 0.05
ABC’s data also showed a negative relationship between these two variables. However, the relationship was weaker than that of the complete data. With every one unit of job satisfaction increase, turnover intention decreases by 0.458 units. The detailed results are presented in Table 11.1.

**Table 11.1 Coefficients** (ABC, Job Satisfaction & Turnover Intention)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 (Constant)</td>
<td>5.437</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>3.879</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.239</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satis.</td>
<td>-0.458</td>
<td>0.358</td>
<td>-1.279</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0.184</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance level p < 0.05

Overall, the results of the regression analysis indicated that a significantly negative relationship exists between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction in ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand. This result seems to confirm the widely held belief that employees who feel satisfied will be less inclined to terminate from the work (Ejere, 2010; El-Nahas, Abd-El-Salam, & Shawk, 2013; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; Singh & Loncar, 2010; Valentine et al., 2011). Therefore, hypothesis H3 is supported.

**4.9.3 Leadership Styles (H4 & H5)**

Two principal hypotheses are developed to determine which leadership styles had the most effect on employee job satisfaction. Consequently, the five sub hypotheses are derived from each of the initial hypotheses to specify the strongest predictor leadership styles to each variable. A multiple linear regression was executed with a backward stepwise technique to discard insignificant leadership styles (model 4 & 5).

**H4: There is a significant correlation between the five perceived leadership styles and employee job satisfaction.**

**H4a: Directive leadership style is negatively related to employees' job satisfaction.**

**H4b: Supportive leadership style is positively related to employees' job satisfaction.**

**H4c: Participative leadership style is positively related to employees' job satisfaction.**

**H4d: Transactional leadership style is negatively related to employees' job satisfaction.**

**H4e: Charismatic leadership style is positively related to employees' job satisfaction.**

The above five sub hypotheses are tested to identify the strongest predictor of employee job satisfaction. Before engaging with the regression analysis, I checked for multicollinearity among the predictors by computing the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF). Multicollinearity can lead to misleading inferences in finding the relative impact of the set
of variables for the model (Zhang & Ibrahim, 2005). The acceptable tolerance value is above 0.10 and VIF values is below 10 (Pallant, 2010). As shown in Table 12, the tolerance of the three independent variables ranged from 0.326 to 0.476, which were substantially greater than 0.1. VIF ranged from 2.101 to 3.066, which were much less than 10. These results showed that there was no multicollinearity detected (Pallant, 2010).

The survey outcomes revealed that three leadership styles - supportive, charismatic, and participative leadership - were found to be statistically significant predictors of employee job satisfaction. On the other hand, directive and transactional leadership styles showed no relationship in the stepwise processes. In detail, supportive, charismatic and participative leadership styles had a positive and significant effect on employee’s job satisfaction with Beta values of 0.332 (p<0.03), 0.228 (p<.013), and 0.182 (p<.049) respectively. The Beta values indicated that a one-unit increase in the mean point of each of these leadership styles increased employees’ job satisfaction by 0.322, 0.228, and 0.182 respectively. The detailed results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12 Coefficientsa (Complete, Leadership Styles on Job Satisfaction)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tolerance</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.050</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>4.166</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>3.056</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>1.977</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>2.509</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>0.476</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance level p < 0.05
* Tolerance is acceptable above 0.1 and VIF is acceptable below 10

The survey outcomes in ABC revealed that only the supportive leadership style was found to be a significant and positive predictor of employees’ job satisfaction (β = 0.40, p<0.045). No multicollinearity statistics were available due to the single independent variable. The outcomes are presented in Table 12.1.

Table 12.1 Coefficientsa (ABC, Leadership Styles on Job Satisfaction)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.402</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>3.413</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.190</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>2.102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance level p < 0.05
In summary, the regression analysis indicated supportive, charismatic and participative leadership styles were the statistically significant factors in predicting employees’ job satisfaction in ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand. This implies that employees under these leadership styles may have a higher level of job satisfaction. Therefore, the findings support sub hypotheses H4b, H4c, H4e, but did not support H4a and H4d.

**H5: There is a significant correlation among the five perceived leadership styles and employee turnover intention.**

**H5a:** Directive leadership style is positively related to turnover intention.  
**H5b:** Supportive leadership style is negatively related to turnover intention.  
**H5c:** Participative leadership style is negatively related to turnover intention.  
**H5d:** Transactional leadership style is positively related to turnover intention  
**H5e:** Charismatic leadership style is negatively related to turnover intention.

The above five sub hypotheses are developed to understand which leadership styles had the most effect on employees' tendency to withdrawal. For multicollinearity, the tolerance ranged from 0.375 to 0.850 and VIF values ranged from 1.176 to 2.668, which showed no multicollinearity (Pallant, 2010).

The survey outcomes in the complete data indicated that the three leadership styles – supportive, participative and transactional leadership styles – were found to be statistically significant predictors of employee turnover intention. On the other hand, charismatic (p < 0.098) and directive (p < 0.195) leadership styles were found to have no significant relationship with turnover intention in the stepwise processes. In detail, while supportive and participative leadership styles were inversely and significantly related to employee turnover intention as expected, a transactional leadership style was positively and significantly related, which is also in line with my expectation. From the Beta values of supportive (β = -0.522, p < 0.000) and participative leadership styles (β = -0.341, p < 0.013), I estimated that for every unit increase in the mean value of these leadership styles, employees’ turnover intention decreases by around 0.522, and 0.341 units respectively. Conversely, the transactional leadership style had a significantly positive relationship on quitting intentions with a Beta value of 0.659 (p < 0.000). It demonstrated that for every unit increase in the mean value of transactional leadership style, employees’ turnover intention increases by 0.659 points. The summary of the results is presented in Table 13.

The survey outcomes in ABC revealed that supportive and charismatic leadership styles were found to be the statistically significant predictors of employees’ turnover intention. The supportive leadership style was inversely and significantly related to employee turnover intention, which was consistent with the finding in the complete samples. It obtained a negative Beta weight of β = -1.743 (p < 0.000), demonstrating that a one-unit increase in the mean point of supportive leadership makes employees’ turnover intention decrease by around 1.743 units. On the other hand, a charismatic leadership style is positively and significantly related to the turnover intent. It obtained a positive Beta weight of β = 1.395 (p
< 0.000), which indicated that a one-unit increase in the mean point of a charismatic leadership style makes employees’ turnover intention increase by 1.395 points. The summary of the results is presented in Table 13.1

**Table 13 Coefficients (Complete, Leadership Styles on Turnover Intention)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.749</td>
<td>0.459</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.174</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>-0.522</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>-0.338</td>
<td>-3.631</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>-0.341</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>-0.238</td>
<td>-2.509</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>0.659</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>4.918</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance level p < 0.05
* Tolerance is acceptable above 0.1 and VIF is acceptable below 10

**Table 13.1 Coefficients (ABC, Leadership styles on Turnover Intention)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>4.890</td>
<td>1.152</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.243</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>-1.743</td>
<td>0.369</td>
<td>-0.853</td>
<td>-4.730</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic</td>
<td>1.395</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td>4.033</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance level p < 0.05
* Abbreviation: SEE-Standard Error of the Estimate

In conclusion, the results indicated that supportive, participative and transactional leadership styles were the statistically significant predictors in predicting employees’ withdrawal intention in ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand. In other words, supportive and participative leadership styles tend to be the beneficial styles in mitigating employees’ intentions to terminate from work, rather than transactional styles. Taken together, the findings support sub hypotheses H5b, H5c and H5d, but did not support sub hypotheses H5a and H5e.

**4.10 Discussions and Conclusion**

The primary objective of the quantitative study was to test the effect and relationship of the three candidate intervening variables on turnover. The outcomes were helpful to investigate
the applicability and usability of these variables to limit employee quitting intention in an ethnic Asian context in New Zealand.

The results from statistical analyses suggested that ethnic Asian entrepreneurs are perceived to have a mostly directive leadership style followed by supportive and participative leadership styles. The emergence of these three leadership styles in ethnic Asian companies is not surprising. Some of cross-cultural studies including the GLOBE project demonstrate that a directive leadership style has higher acceptances in collective and high power distance cultures as in Confucian Asian countries (Dorfman et al., 1997; Hofstede & Bond, 1988). In addition, a supportive leadership style, which is identified as humane leadership in the GLOBE studies, is found to be strong in Confucian Asian societies (House, 2004). A possible reason for the emergence of these two leadership styles may be due to the Confucian cultural influence. The strong tendency of top-down relations (Chen, 2004) and preference for paternalistic leaders under Confucian cultures may make supervisors pose a directive style (Bae & Chung, 1997; Chen, 2004). On the other hand, the emphasis on group harmony and people relationships may positively play in posing humane or supportive leadership styles (Ramírez & Rubio, 2000; Yoo, Rao, & Hong, 2006). The presence of a participative leadership style is not unexpected either. Bowerman and Van Wart (2011) describe that supportive and participative leadership styles are largely similar. The leaders with these two leadership styles both display more human oriented and relationship focused attitudes with their subordinates. However, a supportive style stresses listening, caring and warmth, while the participative leadership emphasizes discussion and participation in decision making.

Contrary to my expectation ethnic Asian entrepreneurship (or the level of ethnic community involvement) did not moderate on the relationship between the perceived leadership styles and turnover intention. At the outset of this research project, one of my key assumptions was that the ethnic Asian entrepreneurs’ position may have played a role in deciding the leadership styles and turnover intention (e.g., Chaganti & Greene, 2002; Hofstede, 1993; House, 2004; Triandis, 1993a). Despite some patterns of the leadership styles of ethnic Asian entrepreneurs found through hypothesis 1, the level of Asian owners’ ethnic entrepreneurship appears to not make any difference on the relations between leadership styles and employee’s intention to turn. This outcome suggests that it may not be Asian employers’ ethnic entrepreneurship per se that impacts employee’s withdrawal intention. This finding is consistent with that of Chrisman, Chua and Steier’s (2002) empirical research that nativity (immigration) and ethnic mix did not impact entrepreneurs' perceptions and the initial performance of new ventures. The authors examined the role of various national cultural dimensions on new entrepreneurs’ attitudes towards the business environment and business performance in the United States. The different cultural dimensions included region, urbanization, nativity (immigration), ethnic mix, and family involvement (Chrisman, Chua & Steier, 2002:115) Their study showed that none of these factors except family involvement had an effect on the entrepreneur's perception or performance of the new companies. Chao and Tian’s (2011) findings also provide some support for their findings that national cultural value itself may not be enough to explain the
expected leadership styles of female managers in Taiwan and the United States. The authors thus suggest looking into many other variables such as political beliefs, religion and languages as well as the national culture of the leaders. It remains a task for future research to investigate which cultural and ethnic entrepreneurship dimensions affect turnover intention.

Subscribing to established research outcomes about the strong inverse association between job satisfaction and turnover (Mobley et al., 1979; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Mobley, 1977), I articulated a hypothesis that was subsequently tested. The current study's finding confirms a clear and strong negative connection between these two variables. Extending this finding, this quantitative study sought to understand the impact of a number of different leadership styles (directive, supportive, participative, transactional and charismatic) on employee’s job satisfaction and withdrawal intention in ethnic Asian firms respectively. The outcomes established that supportive, charismatic and participative leader behaviours were found to be a significant and positive predictor of job satisfaction. In addition, supportive, participative, and transactional styles seem to play an important role in predicting employees’ propensity to leave. The test of the effect of the leadership styles on turnover intention suggest that supportive and participative leadership styles are negatively related to propensity to leave while a transactional leadership style is positively related to.

Overall, the findings of the quantitative study highlight the importance of the two variables – leadership styles and job satisfaction – in curbing employee’s turnover intent. In particular, supportive and participative styles are recurring leader behaviours that are found to be effective both in promoting job satisfaction, and in lowering turnover intention. This highlights the need for developing or strengthening these two leadership styles if ABC wants to improve its high turnover problem. In addition, given that the prudent positive effect of job satisfaction, ABC top managers should inspect ways of heightening job satisfaction to tackle the high turnover intention as well. Pertaining to the effect of ethnic entrepreneurship, I conjecture that ethnic entrepreneurship itself may not be enough to understand employee’s turnover and it illuminates the need for significant additional studies by embracing a number of different dimensions of ethnic culture and ethnic entrepreneurship.

As the next step, I will explore how I effectively apply these variables to bring a desired change to ABC. In this respect, I will engage in an interview with ABC employees to investigate underlying perceptions and feelings that could not be fully investigated during the survey and to discover the areas of improvement in applying the two found-to-be effective variables that emerged to reduce turnover in ABC in the following chapter.
CHAPTER 5
FINDINGS OF QUALITATIVE COMPONENT

PART 2 OF PHASE 2 – PLANNING ACTION
5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the outcomes gained from the qualitative component of Phase 2 (planning action stage). The qualitative data was collected from twelve ABC employees through semi-structured phone interviews. The purpose of this approach is to hear frank first-person narratives of ABC’s workers to be able to grasp a more holistic understanding of the role of the two variables – leadership styles and job satisfaction – that appeared effective in curtailing the turnover intention from the survey outcomes, and to explore issues that require attention when applying them in ABC’s context.

5.2 Employee Interview Outcomes

The rich descriptions of employee participants are captured and then encapsulated into five major themes. These five themes are then presented under the three variables: leadership style, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Each of the themes was discussed with a summary table with sub themes, and supported by the rich first-hand narratives. To protect the identity of the interview participants, I have referred to them as Participant 1 to Participant 12.

5.2.1 Perceived Leadership Styles (Theme 1 & 2)

**Theme 1: They are supportive, participative, or directive leaders**

The participants were asked to present their perceptions and ideas on the best-described leadership styles of the leader they were working with. This revealed that the participants perceived that ABC’s top managers exhibited a mostly supportive leadership style, which was followed by both participative and directive leadership styles at an equal percentage. Table 14 shows the key theme and sub themes for Theme 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Theme</th>
<th>Sub Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They are supportive, participative, or directive leaders</td>
<td>Supportive Leadership - Caring words - Considerate attitude - Warmth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The leadership styles were first explored through a closed question, then delved into using various open-ended questions. From the initial closed question, I asked the participants to choose the leadership styles of their top managers among the five leadership styles presented. I garnered a total of fifteen answers from twelve participants and four key leadership styles surfaced. A large number of participants (eight people, eleven answers) expressed that their leaders had either a supportive or/and participative leadership style. In detail, from a closed question, a supportive leadership style was mentioned six times; a participative leadership style five times; directive leadership style two times and charismatic and transactional leadership style only once each.

Shortly after this direct question, a range of open questions were asked to investigate more accurate perceptions including the reasons for choosing the particular leadership style and any anecdotes on the strengths and weaknesses of their leader's leadership style, and the ways in which the leaders are introduced to a new hire. The outcomes of these questions articulated the deeply seated perceptions and feelings on the leadership styles. Based on the interview responses gathered, a careful thematic analysis was performed, and the analysis showed that two participants' answers seemed to be filtered. These two respondents replied that their leader's leadership style was either supportive or participative. However, their descriptions were closer to a directive leadership style. In addition, their satisfaction level with the leader was seriously low. To be specific, one participant labelled his leader as participative. When asked why, he answered because the leaders often pushed the trolleys with employees. However, he expressed his unhappiness over the repeated instructions and checking over text messaging. The following two quotes are made by participants 10 and 11, whose statements I believe to be filtered.

If you asked me to pick one, maybe participative? … Because sometimes he wears a uniform t-shirt and pushes the trolleys with us. I know he does his best to be nice but I think ... [pause for few seconds], it's anyway impossible to make a close relationship between the boss and subordinates … I am getting sick of his repeated orders and directions. I don’t mind making surveys [daily reports] during my shift, but that should be the end of the story. Whenever I make a report, then numerous directions and reminders follow. I feel that he does not trust me whenever he does it [makes repeated checking and orders]. In addition, he must understand it’s not always possible for me to reply to his text message instantly.

(Participant 10)

Well, maybe supportive … hmm… because he always checks about my schedule before deciding my work hours. I am very happy with it, but [cautiously] I think he gives me too many orders over the text messaging. I want him to make more [real] communication with us. Of course we talk a lot over the text or phone, but I mean face to face. It's hard to make my voice heard over the text ... My advice to a new hire is "don't go the extra mile for the company, but just do as much so you don't get blamed".

(Participant 11)
Participant 11 described his leader as supportive because the leader assigned him work hours after checking his personal schedule. However, his explanation about the leader was similar to those of the aforementioned interview, participant 10. Especially, he showed a lack of commitment to the company due to the leader’s repeated checking and interventions. I thus corrected the responses from supportive or participative to a directive style. Based on this finding, the overall portion of the perceived leadership style counts was altered accordingly. It did not change the ranking, but the proportion. In summary, the most mentioned leadership style was a supportive style (five times). The second most salient leadership styles were participative and directive styles, which surfaced with the same count (four times each). The count of charismatic and transactional styles was unchanged. This correction process showed that the closed question was not sufficient to gain an in-depth understanding and deeply seated perception and idea. These corrections reflected the benefit of indirect and open-ended questions.

In the interview, some participants mixed up supportive and participative leadership styles. For example, some interviewees tagged their leader as supportive. However, their description was closer to a participative style or vice versa. In these cases, I did not attempt to separate or correct the leadership styles but counted both leadership styles for the same leader. This is because one person can have multi-faceted leadership styles and these two style share very similar characteristics (Bowerman & Van Wart, 2011). The following comments show the supportive and participative leadership styles mentioned by the participants.

I think he is a supportive leader. I found he is a person who is happy to engage with his employees and is willing to communicate with us.

(Participant 1)

He has a supportive leadership style. When I talk about my needs, he listens. When he promises me to do something, then I can see he tries his best to keep his promise. When he cannot make it, he always asks for my understanding. I think he is gentle and kind. He does not lose his temper easily as well.

(Participant 6)

Participative. He is kind and warm. He always uses caring words. He listens to my voice and tries to reflect what I suggested ... He is a man of communication ... For a new hire, I will say that "the boss values communication, so it is very important to speak to him if he/she is not happy with something or has any concerns".

(Participant 5)

I’d say that he is a participative leader. The aspect I like about his leadership is he always listens to my voice before making his decision. He never makes the decision on his own.
Some interviewees directly expressed that their leader was directive and showed their dissatisfaction. The following quotes show the perceptions of the participants who see their leader as directive.

I think he is directive. I am not comfortable with so many orders and directions from instant messaging. My advice for a new hire ... "don't use instant messaging from the outset. Otherwise, it will make your life harder. He is such a directive person".

[Participant 9]

[Cautiously] Slightly directive? I think he contacts me too often and checks on me too often. At the moment, I think he is lacking in engaging with his employees.

[Participant 12]

Apart from these, charismatic and transactional leadership attributes were mentioned in some of the interview responses. The following quotes illustrated charismatic and transactional leadership attributes.

At the same time, I think he uses both "carrot and stick" as well. I think he is pretty sharp; he actually seems to know everything although he does not show up much to the work site. He is very nice and kind. He listens to my opinions but at the same time is very decisive as well.

[Participant 1]

I think he is a supportive as well as charismatic leader. He also asks for our opinions a lot. Although he is gentle and nice, when he needs to make a decision, he does it in a very decisive and charismatic manner. New people may underestimate him, thinking he is too nice and easy going, but I think a new hire should be very careful.

[Participant 8]

**Theme 2: More visibility and face-to-face talk is required**

Another noteworthy finding arose from asking about the leaders' strengths and weaknesses. The most recurring strengths were caring attitudes and good listening skills. All those who viewed their leader as caring and a good listener tagged him as either a supportive or participative leader. On the other hand, the common weaknesses of the two leaders were their lack of visits to the work sites and their busyness. Asked why these points were weaknesses, many of them could not articulate the reasons why, but some interviewees explicitly stated it was because it made them uncomfortable to sit down for a talk with their leader or delayed a timely interaction and follow-ups. Table 15 shows the key theme and sub themes for Theme 2.
Table 15 Summary of Theme 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Theme</th>
<th>Sub Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More visibility and face-to-face talk is required</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strength</strong></td>
<td>- Caring attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Good listening skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Weakness</strong></td>
<td>- Lack of site visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Busyness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even though the employees could talk with their boss over the phone or instant messaging, they preferred to talk in a face-to-face mode. The interviewees’ comments that show the strength of the leaders overlapped with Theme 1. Thus, I only noted the statement entailing the weakness of the leaders. The following quotes show the request for more site visits and face-to-face talk.

For me the weakest point of his leadership is that he looks too busy. Actually, it is very hard to see him. There are some employees who even do not know his face. I think he should visit the work sites more often and encourage his workers.

(Participant 1)

He is not an authoritative person at all, and listens to me well. So I don’t have a particular concern about his leadership. But I think he looks sooo busy … why? … Because I feel not comfortable to initiate a talk with him.

(Participant 7)

I think he seems too busy. It’s hard to see him … it makes it hard to have a smooth communication flow. I think he is a nice man and willing to listen. So as long as I have more opportunity to see him, it would be great.

(Participant 8)

It’s hard to get hold of him. I mean in person. Ya … I always talk to him over the instant messaging a lot, but you know … it’s not the same as when we talk face to face. I'm much more comfortable to talk in person. I asked him [the leader] to fix the car window, yet he kept forgetting it or maybe delaying it? It took almost 3 months to get it fixed! If he came to the site regularly, then I could show him the broken window and it could have been fixed much sooner.

( Participant 9)

I am not really comfortable to talk to him as he once told me off very harshly for asking a silly question. Since then I normally hold my questions and ask my senior colleagues. I think things get better if he shows up to the site more often and we meet face to face more often.

( Participant 12)

The diffusion of technologies has changed the mode of communication at an exponential speed. Computer-mediated communication has now completely transformed the way of
communication in our organizational lives by creating different methods for information exchange and distribution (Barnes & Greller, 1994). It has also changed the dynamics of people’s relationships accordingly. Nevertheless, Ngwenyama and Lee (1997) viewed that face-to-face communication is the richest communication medium that provides instant feedback and interaction as well as rich non-verbal cues such as facial and body gestures, voice tone and eye contact. Bin, Branson, and Fang's (2015) empirical research outcomes showed that the face-to-face team outperformed in portfolio returns and trade with a higher level of satisfaction, trust and affiliation compared to the teams that used computer-mediated communication. These findings have highlighted the importance of increasing face-to-face communication and physical contact with employees to promote their satisfaction levels with the job and the leader.

5.2.2. Employee Job Satisfaction (Theme 3 & 4)

All interviewed employees responded that they had a good relationship with their leader regardless of their evaluation of their leadership styles or the level of their satisfaction. However, one interesting finding in this section was the contrasting degree of employees’ satisfaction with their leader and job between employees who saw their leader as supportive and/or participative, and those who perceived their leader as directive.

**Theme 3: Employees are happier under the supportive and participative leader.**

Employees who saw their leader as supportive and/or participative indicated a higher level of satisfaction with their leader as well as with the job. By contrast, those who viewed their leader as directive demonstrated very low levels of satisfaction with their leader and job. This finding highlighted the positive effect of supportive and participative styles on employees’ job satisfaction, which was aligned with the quantitative outcome in the previous phase. Table 16 shows the key theme and sub themes for Theme 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Theme</th>
<th>Sub Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees are happier under</td>
<td>Supportive and/or Participative Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supportive &amp; participative leader</td>
<td>- Good relationship with the boss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- High level of job/leader satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Directive Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Good relationship with the boss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Very low level of job/leader satisfaction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The supporting comments overlap with those in Theme 1. The following are further comments that show the positive impact of the supportive and participative leadership styles on their job satisfaction.

I am happy with the way he [the leader] treats me, the way he talks to me. I am also happy with the way he shows direction in dealing with problems. I
think I have a pretty good relationship with him [the leader]. He's nice, and I am a hard worker.

(Participant 1, Supportive/Charismatic/Transactional)

I think I have a good relationship with him. I think he tries to think in an employee's shoes and works together with us. He’s warm and humane. He is respectful toward the subordinates. I like to work here. I can work independently without much supervision or direction from the leader. That’s one of the good things about working here.

(Participant 4, Supportive/Participative)

Yes, yes, I have a good relationship with him. The thing I like the most is his attitude to listening to us. Ya, I am happy to work here, so to be honest, there’s not much I would like to suggest to improve employees’ satisfaction...

(Participant 7, Participative)

Ya, I think I have kept a good relationship with him and was happy to work here [the interview date was the last day at work for participant 8]. There are so many things that affect the work satisfaction and the leadership style of the boss is definitely the one. However, for me, it was the peer relationship. He [the leader] is a kind and nice man. Before I came to New Zealand I heard there were many vicious Korean employers ha-ha, but he was nice. He is a good person so I feel comfortable to share my concerns with him.

(Participant 8, Supportive/Charismatic)

On the contrary, the following comments showed the negative impact of a directive leadership style.

The work relationship with the boss is pretty much fine for me. However, it is very stressful when he keeps repeating orders and stressing safety matters on and on... I think he should stop nagging us, but be tougher again against his client company [their demanding requests], not us!

(Participant 9, Directive)

Well, it’s ok [for the working relationship with the boss] … I don’t think we can keep the code and rule at all times, we need some flexibility. Once we get used to working, we come to find a short-cut to being efficient, and he should understand it. I think he simply over-reacts and over-repeats with lots of checking! It's honestly ... a bit... [not impressive].

(Participant 12, Directive)

**Theme 4: Request from employees for free snacks and pay rises**

Most participants stated that they liked the flexible working hours at the company, which they found accommodating to their personal schedules. When queried about what the company or leader could do to increase their job satisfaction, half of the interviewees answered that there was not much, or they had never thought about it. Most of these
respondents (five out of six participants) had a short-term visa status. Their soon-to-leave position may have given them low expectations about the company or have made them less interested in improvement changes. However, the rest of the six interviewees presented various ideas to promote their job satisfaction. Table 17 shows the key theme and sub themes for Theme 4.

**Table 17 Summary of Theme 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Theme</th>
<th>Sub Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Request from employees for free snacks &amp; pay rises</td>
<td>The job aspects liked the most - Flexible working hours - Less control from the manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The job aspects liked the least - Physically hard work - Low pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To improve job satisfaction - Free snacks and drinks - Pay rise - Increase in non-Korean staff - Fast filling of staff vacancies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among many ideas, five out of six people mentioned that they wanted free snacks and drinks because most of them were working outside in the sun or in cold and wet weather. The number two request was a pay rise. However, right after mentioning this, two of the interviewees expressed their pessimistic view of the possibility of a pay rise. It seemed that they accepted the low or minimum pay scale because the work, they assumed, was simple manual work so they could be easily replaced. Some individual comments included increasing non-Korean staff members to experience a different culture and swifter filling of staff vacancies.

The following quotes are extracted from the interviewees’ responses about Theme 4. Some participants like participants 1 and 9 initially wanted to have a pay rise, and as an alternative, they asked for complimentary snacks or drinks at least.

To raise employee’s job satisfaction, increasing the pay is the most effective one, ha-ha. If it's not possible, at least company should provide complimentary snacks and beverages to frontline workers as they are working in hard weather conditions outside.

(Participant 1)

The best way to raise the employee's job satisfaction is raising the money. The work we're doing is a kind of service work, so it is very stressful ... I don't have much chance to see my boss, but it would be touching if he brings a can of coke or maybe a warm drink on a rainy day whenever he visits us let alone a pay rise.

(Participant 9)
Participant 10 made a similar comment about free snacks but made it more forcefully.

I found the work here is less stressful compared to that in another company because the boss is not with us all day. So it's pretty good. In addition, the work is not always busy here, so I can take a recess whenever the work is quiet at my discretion. But the work is physically too hard ... I don't think the company cannot provide a custom-made service for all employees, but I feel it's unfair for us to pay for drinks. We are paid a minimum wage and it's an awful lot of money to somebody like us. I think the company should provide free drinks for the welfare of the frontline workers. In addition, I think the speed of filling vacancies is too slow. I was very exhausted the other day because the staff vacancy was filled too late.

(Participant 10)

The following quotes show that although the work was physically demanding, they liked to work at ABC because of the flexible work hours and less control from the managers.

I like to work here because not much intervention from the boss and an opportunity to work autonomously. However, pushing trolleys is so very laborious and simple work. It will be very hard to stop people from leaving the job unless they change the work nature or visa requirement.

(Participant 4)

I found he [the boss] doesn't intervene much. He entrusted me with the task and let me carry it out. I like it. But I think the pay is too low here and the work is too simple and physically demanding. It makes me easily get bored … To raise employee's satisfaction? I want the company to provide more informal get-togethers as often as possible. It facilitates good peer relations which are the key for a better work environment I guess.

(Participant 6)

The work is very hard [physically], and there are too many rules to follow. However, I like to work here because at least I can choose my working hours and take a break whenever it's quiet.

(Participant 12)

5.2.3 Employee Turnover Intention (Theme 5)

**Theme 5: I might leave because of low career aspirations and personal reasons**

When asked about the number thinking of leaving the company, eight out of twelve interviewees replied that they had thought about quitting from the job at least once at some point during their tenure at the company. Among the four people who responded that they had never thought about leaving the job, three respondents had a short-term visa status - working holiday visa, which only allowed them to work for a maximum of three months
under the same employer. These three people even expressed that they actually wanted to work longer, which indicated their high level of satisfaction with the job. It is hard to conclusively interpret this answer; however, the pre-set work period may play a role in making this response.

Many different answers were also presented from the eight interviewees who answered that they had thought about quitting. However, none of them had an intention to leave the company at that moment. I thus asked them to provide likely reasons that may drive them to leave in the future. The following are the top four reasons that emerged from the interviews: low career aspirations, changes in personal circumstances, the physically demanding work and the low wage. Table 18 shows the key theme and sub themes for Theme 5.

Low career aspirations was ranked as the top reason that pushed employees to think of leaving. Some interviewees, including participants 5 and 8, clearly expressed their frank willingness to leave whenever they found a better job. The answer of participant 1 implied some pride in his comments for playing a senior role to new hire. On the other hand, participant 11 expressed his unfair feeling of being treated the same as new employees in terms of pay and promotion. These two answers suggested improving promotion opportunities may be one avenue to consider to improve career aspiration.

**Table 18 Summary of Theme 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Theme</th>
<th>Sub Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I might leave because of low career aspirations &amp; personal reasons</td>
<td>The top four reasons for leaving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Low career aspirations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Personal reasons (visa, moving)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Physically demanding manual work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Low wages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To retain you</td>
<td>Not much unless there are changes in:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Working visa conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Personal circumstances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Hard work nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Pay rise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following quotes are made by participants 1, 5 and 11.

One of the favourite things in my job is providing necessary services [as a senior staff] to new employees to get settled [sound proud] but I don’t like the field work. It’s physically too demanding for an old man like me.

( Participant 1)

Yes [I have thought of leaving], I am studying now so I will be leaving if I can find a job that is relevant to my study. I don’t have the intention to leave now though. I found many people here quit their job because of their
personal circumstances. Most of them I knew had a working holiday visa so they left when the visa expired. It's only three months! [to work for the same company]. Some of them I know left the company because they needed to go back to (South) Korea or moved to other regions.

(Participant 5)

I enjoyed the job here, it's nice and relaxed, but there is no career aspiration here. I think it has a critical impact on their decision to leave ... As mentioned, the main reason for leaving the company is a lack of career opportunities. However, it may reduce the frequent change in staff if the owner pays attention to each individual and assists them to manage a good working relationship with their peers.

(Participant 8)

Yes, around two to three times [to leave from the job]. It is physically so hard, and it's not my real profession. I want to spend time with my friend especially during the weekend instead of working here.

(Participant 11)

But I hope we can have some pay rises. I heard that a pusher in *** [a competitor's company] gets a pay rise based on their working experience. In here, I am paid the exact same as a new hire and same treatment. It's not fair.

(Participant 12)

The following comments showed that personal reasons, such as visa limitation or moving to other regions, could be the main reason for leaving the company.

For me, apart from visa limitations, there was no reason for quitting the current job. I saw a friend of mine left the company because of the hard manual labour, though it's ok for me.

(Participant 2)

Not yet [to think to quit]. If I leave this job, I think it will be due to my visa status. I found many other staff members around me leave either because of their visa conditions or the physically hard work nature. I think it is impossible for the company to retain those employees unless the visa rules change.

(Participant 4)

I once thought about terminating from the job because I planned to move to Australia, which was cancelled though. If I need to resign from the job, it must be the similar reason as the other day I guess.

(Participant 9)

Equally a large amount of interview subjects pointed out that low pay and the physically hard and repeated work nature were the main reasons for thinking of leaving.
A lot [number of times thought of leaving the job]. There are many factors affecting this [intention to leave]. Low wage definitely is one. You know, it's hard work. I do think the pay should be increased according to our work tenures. I also think of leaving whenever I am stuck in stressful situations or have a better job offer elsewhere. It didn’t last long though. Reasons for leaving for other employees from my observation, it really depends on personal preference and circumstance. When a person values money more than anything else, he/she will be leaving no matter what the company does for them apart from a pay increase. For someone like me, money is not everything. I want more respectful and humane treatment. I believe the company cannot retain their employees with money only.

(Participant 1)

Well, maybe once in 2-3 months. The primary reason is low wage. I used to work in Australia. So I feel the wage here [New Zealand] is too low. In addition, the work itself is too simple and repeated, so I sometimes feel that I get stupefied with this work.

(Participant 6)

Yes, once [to leave the job]. There is hardly any place that I can choose my working hours. I am working after school. I like to work here. However, there is no pay increase instead. No matter how hard you work... it's a tough work. When I first started this work, I suffered from muscle ache and fatigue, now I am fine though.

(Participant 10)

5.3 Discussions and Conclusion

I had carried out the phone interview with the twelve volunteered employees of ABC in a semi-structured manner. By hearing frank voices and lively experiences from the employees, I sought to discover the leadership styles of ABC’s top managers in the eyes of their employees, the level of employee job satisfaction and turnover intention. The exploration of the deeply seated perceptions and feelings helped me articulate the current state of ABC, which in turn, showed which areas I need to focus on to develop fitting intervention strategies for high turnover in ABC.

The interview responses indicated that the frequently exhibited leadership styles of ABC’s managers, are mostly supportive, followed by both participative and directive leadership styles at an equal count. To arrive at this outcome, I had posed various open ended questions. I spotted two filtered answers on the leadership styles during the thematic analysis, which were amended accordingly. I found this to be one of the salient benefits that qualitative research provides (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). This correction process was a valuable experience for me to grow as a doctorate level scholar because my scholarly practice bore some fruit and contributed to adding to the rigour of the outcomes.
About job satisfaction, all participants answered they had a sound relationship with their managers; however, interestingly, their job satisfaction level contrasts sharply between those under the directive leader and under the supportive and/or participative leader. The employees under supportive/participative leaders showed a high level of satisfaction with the job and the leader, whereas those under the directive leader showed very poor level of satisfaction with the job and the leader. The constructive impact of the supportive leadership style has been well documented by a great deal of previous leadership studies. Supportive leader behaviour is positively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction, as well as employees’ performance (House & Mitchell, 1975; Dorfman et al., 1997; Yukl, 2013). Pertaining to the effect of participative leadership style, its effect varies across cultures (House, 2004; Hwang et al., 2015); however, its very similar nature to the supportive style (Bowerman & Van Wart, 2011) may help justify the beneficial impact on job satisfaction to some extent.

On the other hand, strong dissatisfaction against the leader’s directive style implies a mismatch between this leadership style and the nature of the task at ABC. A possible reason for the emergence of a directive leadership style is because of the demographic composition of ABC employees and strong health and safety requirements in ABC’s work. The employees of ABC are mainly young, inexperienced and temporary. These types of employees generally need more direction and checking (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2008). On the other hand, trolley collection services are exposed to many counts of minor collision risks because this job is conducted in the parking lots of shopping centres. In addition, commercial cleaning services use toxic chemicals. Due to this nature, the leaders are inevitably making repeated reminders of health and safety requirements. However, it seems that a leader’s directiveness is not well aligned with ABC’s highly repetitive and structured work nature. House and Mitchell (1975:5) and Kahai, Sosik, and Avolio (1997) view that subordinates’ acceptance of the directive leadership style varies depending on the degree of structure in the work. House and Mitchell (1975) argue that subordinates’ job satisfaction drops when a leader displays directiveness to the employee on highly structured and well defined work. This finding indicates that the directive leadership style may not be appropriate for ABC’s employees, considering the structured and repetitive nature of trolley collection and commercial cleaning activities. This finding sheds light on the areas of improvement to address the negative consequences of the directive leadership style.

As for the determinants of job satisfaction, the interviewees expressed that they liked the flexible working hours and less direct control of the leaders, but did not like the physically strenuous work and low pay. As a way of improving their satisfaction level, they strongly wanted to have free snacks and drinks followed by a pay rise. There are also some individual requests such as recruiting non-Korean employees or prompt filling of job vacancies. For the turnover intention, the large proportion of interview participants did not have any intention to leave their current job at the time of the interview; however, the most likely reasons if they had, were low career aspiration followed by personal circumstance change such as moving or studying commitments, hard work nature and low pay. In particular, the need for
having promotional opportunities emerged as a way of raising career aspirations in the employee interview. After careful inspection, I found that the determinants of job dissatisfaction and turnover intention largely overlapped. The cross-over mirrors the highly negative associations between job satisfaction and turnover intention, which have been supported by many previous studies (Mobley et al., 1979; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price & Mueller, 1981; Shaw, 1999; Williams & Hazer, 1986). In other words, these factors can both act to promote job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention. I then, narrowed these factors down to five by eliminating the repeated or insignificant ones: low promotional opportunities, personal circumstance, hard work nature, low pay and free snacks. Unfortunately, most of these determinants are largely fixed and some are almost impossible to be manipulated. For example, changing the hard work nature may be not possible unless ABC gives up providing its current services. Similarly, raising wages or paying financial rewards will not be a suitable answer for a small company that operates with thin margin of profit because it will further hurt its bottom line in the long term. Bennett and colleagues (1993) claimed that firm level variables including organizational characteristics, firm size, pay and benefit schemes are largely fixed. Likewise, changing personal circumstance is outside the manager’s control and less likely avoidable (Campion, 1991:206). After further eliminating uncontrollable factors, two areas that need particular attention remain: free snacks and heightening promotional opportunities. These two areas will then be inspected further in the next phase.

In conclusion, the qualitative findings show whether the variables (particular leadership styles and job satisfaction) that emerged as effective in easing the quitting intention in the quantitative phase, are appropriate to use as intervening variables to temper the high turnover problem in ABC’s context. The interview outcomes confirmed the beneficial aspect of supportive and participative leadership styles, and conversely the detrimental effect of directive leadership on job satisfaction. It further uncovers the needs for enhancing job satisfaction by focusing on better communication, free snacks, and upward movement opportunity, to be able to cut down withdraw intention. Although the perceptions were exclusive to the participants’ experiences and verbally shared during the interview process, the qualitative investigations allow me to complement or to corroborate the survey outcomes, and to develop context-specific and feasible strategies that suit ABC’s context.
CHAPTER 6:
MERGING, ACTION, EVALUATION
6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the key findings of Phase 3 (Taking Action) and Phase 4 (Evaluating Action). The purpose of Phase 3 is to validate the merged outcomes made from the survey and employee interviews of Phase 2 in ABC’s context. 'Taking action' in Phase 3 refers to developing intervention strategies that can bring the desired change to ABC. As this study implemented only one cycle in the spiral of action research, the study’s ultimate aim is limited to developing feasible intervention strategies, rather than executing them. Each suggested action strategy however, is assessed in terms of efficacy, affordability and feasibility, focusing on the context of ABC. As the final stage of the cycle, Phase 4 discusses the reflection on the taken actions in Phase 3 and how the devised corrective action plans inform necessary changes for ABC.

This chapter reports a cascade of actions that lead to accomplishing the objectives of these two phases. It begins by congregating the outcomes of the mixed method study in Phase 2, based on which, the unstructured discussions with ABC's management are conducted. As a result, context-specific intervention plans that can reduce employees' withdrawal intention in ABC are presented. Finally, it concludes with the reflection and evaluation of the suggested action plans.

6.2 Merged outcomes of Quan and Qual data of Phase 2

As the first step of Phase 3, I merged the two data sets obtained from the mixed methods study in Phase 2. The merging yielded the following outcomes. First, the key touch-point between the quantitative and qualitative results reflects that supportive and participative leadership styles are effective both in improving employees’ job satisfaction and in decreasing staff turnover intention. More specifically, the survey data demonstrated that employees under a supportive (β 0.332, p < 0.03) and a participative leader (0.182, p<0.049) had a positive and significant effect on employee job satisfaction. These two leadership behaviours also showed moderate to high levels of effect on reducing employee turnover intention with Beta values of β = -0.522 (p < 0.000), and β = -0.341, (p <0.013) respectively. Consistent with the quantitative findings, the interview outcomes corroborated that employees under these two leadership styles had high levels of job satisfaction. No connection was identified between these two leadership styles and quitting intention in the interview. However, the strong inverse relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention in the quantitative outcome suggests the beneficial role of these two leadership styles on easing employees’ intention to quit, which is also bolstered by a plethora of literature (Dixon & Hart, 2010; Dorfman et al., 1997; Lussier & Achua, 2007; Volk & Lucas, 1991; Yukl, 2013). Taken together, the aggregated outcomes give a positive indication that both supportive and participative leadership styles can be used as effective intervening variables to tackle high withdrawal intention in ABC.
Secondly, the adverse effect of certain leadership styles surfaced from the synthesized findings, which illuminates the areas for improvement. The phone interview responses from ABC’s employees indicated the strongly negative impact of a directive leadership style on employees’ job satisfaction. Although there was no statistically meaningful support for the negative effect of directive style on job satisfaction or turnover intent from the quantitative outcomes, strong inverse ties between these two variables in this study made me infer the detrimental impact of directive leadership on employee job satisfaction and employee retention. As for the weak points of the leadership of ABC executives, many participants in the employee interview pointed out the leader's busy look or lack of show-up to the worksites. They felt these prevented them from having proper sit-down talks or timely interaction with their leaders. Although they could contact their leaders using a phone or instant text messaging, they preferred to engage in in-person communication. The preference for face-to-face communication is not surprising. Despite prolific use of computer-mediated communication, in-person communication is still regarded as an effective medium thanks to its rich body language and non-verbal signs (Ngwenyama & Lee, 1997). Overall, the congregated outcomes illuminate that employees’ dissatisfaction with the leader is related to lack of quality and effective communication in ABC. For example, the interview participants complained about too many and frequent communications from their directive leader, or lack of face-to-face communication. Communication has been accepted as a pivotal factor that can transform social reality, influence organisational behaviours and design people’s mindsets (Marshak & Grant 2008). It thus calls on managers to invest in developing effective and quality communication channels in ABC as a remedy to ease negative consequences arising from their leadership styles.

Thirdly, the importance of raising employees’ job satisfaction is brought to light from the merged outcomes. Strong negative effect of job satisfaction on employee attrition intention has been identified not only from the quantitative data of this study but also from the bulk of previous literature. As resource strained companies, small business owners should be more knowledgeable in finding cost-effective motivational factors to keep their employees satisfied. The most strong and salient requests for improving job satisfaction were promotional opportunities and free snacks in the interview. Providing rewards is often regarded as an important strategy to build a firm’s effectiveness by influencing employee’s behaviours and motivations (Chiang & Birtch, 2008). There are many types of rewards including wages, fringe benefits, health care insurances, bonuses, commissions and share options (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Bustamam, Teng, & Abdullah, 2014; Hampton & Hampton, 2004); however, offering monetary compensation is not a long-lasting strategy for ABC as discussed in Section 2.2.4. Instead, it may be worthwhile to investigate non-monetary rewards options that a small resource-strained company can afford. Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya’s (1985) argument that employees in "dead-end" jobs are sensitive to small rewards indicates that free morning or afternoon tea may work well in ABC. As such, The insight drawn from the above inspections supports the needs of embracing non-financial rewards to improve job satisfaction and to lower employees' propensity to quit for ABC.
In conclusion, the triangulated outcomes gained from external and internal voices enabled me to draw a more accurate and holistic understanding of the seemingly intractable problem and to discover the improvement areas. However, employee retention cannot be achieved in a uniform way, but it should take into account the unique context that a business is operating in. I will thus engage with ABC's management to be able to develop context-specific and tailor-made action plans that fit with the target company’s current condition and circumstance.

6.3 Intervention Action Plans

Although the merged outcomes showed the areas of improvement, it will neither be relevant nor rigorous if they are not associated with practical intervention strategies that are contextualized and localized from the ABC perspective. This section covers the outcomes from the discussions made with ABC management based on the merged outcomes. Hearing the voices of the management over the different phases of this study was particularly valuable. It illuminates the right directions to formulate context-specific intervention strategies. The qualitative data collection in this phase takes a form of informal conversations, which took place over four months between December 2015 and March 2016. The timing for the data collection is more opportunistic. I conducted most of the discussions at the company’s a regular weekly meeting in which I have encouraged the two top managers not to gloss over the problem and disclose their frank opinions. The informal and open discussions in a family business environment enabled us to collect lively voices and sometimes even hurting frank opinions. My insider position gave me a great freedom when collecting information (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007). At the same, I sometimes had to fight the taken-for-granted assumptions arising from my insider position as well (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007). Asking questions that I think I know the answers to already sometimes made me feel silly and wasting time. However, I decided to take a slower path and tried to nail down what I knew and what I heard was the same. Whenever I engaged in discussions, I placed a copy of the integrated findings from the survey and staff interview on the meeting table. The congregated findings provided the executives of the company with a big picture of the problem, which inform them of necessary changes. As the decision makers of the company, these discussions guided them to devise corrective action plans for ABC to introduce. The frank and open discussions with the top managers have navigated to yield the following three action plans with six strategies. Each strategy is then assessed in terms of efficacy, affordability and feasibility in the following section.

First, as a way of developing effective leadership styles, professional leadership training is suggested. The integrated findings in this study proffered the need for facilitating supportive and participative leadership while limiting a directive leadership style to promote employee job satisfaction and to reduce employees’ quitting intention. In the discussions with ABC’s management, they showed satisfaction with the fact that supportive style came in the top
rank. However, they also expressed their concern over the relatively large presence of the directive leadership style, which had the same incidence as the participative leadership style. Although directive leadership style has some positive effect in some countries (Dorfman et al., 1997; Martin, Liao, & Campbell, 2011; Hwang et al., 2015), the employee interview responses demonstrated a strongly negative implication on employee job satisfaction. Therefore, the presence of a moderately high level of directive leadership should not be overlooked. This identification made me pose a question for possible interventions to address the negative consequence of directive style: What are feasible and effective solutions to strengthen supportive and participative leadership styles and to limit directive style?

When I raised this question to the two top executives, their first response was a long pause. Initially, the two executives seemed a bit at a loss with this question. They had not thought that they could solve the turnover problem although they have been suffering from it for many years. However, the sharing of the meta-inferences and a number of open questions provided them with some reflective moments. Marquardt (2007) underscores the power of asking questions, which opens the door to new possibilities, and allows for seeing things from different perspectives. It challenges the taken-for-granted assumptions and bias that have been embedded in us. Thus, asking the right questions enables people to find solutions and, empowers them to possess self-confidence for future challenges. This question obviously prompted ABC’s management to reflect not only on the issues that have long been neglected but also on themselves as leaders. As the discussion progressed, Joseph admitted that he had run the company largely by rule of thumb. He used to think that managing a cleaning company did not require professional management skills, thus investing money and time was not necessary. However, he realized that the way he handled the problem was rather short-sighted and superficial. As a person in charge of human resources, Joseph has been spending more than a third of his working hours in paperwork, staff recruitment, training and termination. Joseph now wanted to have more systematic and long lasting intervention strategies to address this problem, rather than a short lived option like investing more of his time to absorb overhead costs. Shortly after, Joseph came up with an idea of leadership training.

Joseph said:

So, what about the leadership training? You know, I wanna have more sustainable solutions this time. We need to think about the cost and time we spend. Do you know how much time Rebecca and I spent on the paperwork because of this [turnover]? I think it is very important to recruit the right person at the outset, train them right, and keep them as much as possible. If Andrew [pseudonym, who left the company recently] was there, those incidents would not have happened in the first place ... Maybe we need to invest a bit more time to learn how to lead them [employees] first. Apart from this, I simply cannot think of any better option.
Phillip also agreed with the idea, but to a much lesser degree.

Okay, I am not sure if it can fix the problem or not, but maybe it's better than nothing. It will be great if we can fix it. Anyway it won't cost much, so why not? Let's have a go.

Concurrent with the discussions, I have inspected relevant literature to add a theoretical support for the managerial training. Several studies suggest an entrepreneur training as a strategy for increasing company performance (Bloom et al., 2013; Malone, 2010; Mano et al., 2012; Pinkerton, 2003; Taunton et al., 1997). Malone (2010) found a big increase in leadership knowledge and skills, as well as leader's behavioural change after small farm producers participated in a leadership training programme. Similar outcomes were found in the anecdotes of the Northside Hospital in Atlanta, and Georgia, in which the provision of management training for nurse managers helped reduce the nurse attrition rate by five percent while improving the retention rate (Pinkerton, 2003). On the other hand, researchers like McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) questioned the statistical legitimacies over the bulk of literature showing the benefit of entrepreneur training. The authors point out the problem of small samples, short time gaps between the training and measuring training effectiveness, as well as reliability of instruments used in these studies. Nevertheless, the authors emphasize the need for developing and measuring managerial ability, which is an asset to determine organizational productivity, growth and survival (Bruhn, Karlan, & Schoar, 2010). In line with this argument, Cortese (2007) claims in his study of Italian nurses that managers should use different management approaches to enhance job satisfaction through training, improvement of organizational models and continuous monitoring of job satisfaction. It seems offering entrepreneur training is a plausible avenue to consider when a firm wishes to improve its organisational outcomes. Upon presenting theoretical and empirical support from previous studies, the two ABC executives showed their keen willingness to try leadership training to develop the effective leadership styles for limiting the turnover problem.

Based on the examination of the positive efficacy of leadership development training, I then explored the affordability and feasibility of implementing the training for ABC managers. In terms of the cost of leadership training, it was dearer than I expected. For example, the average 1- to 2-day leadership course at the University of Auckland in New Zealand costs between NZ$ 1,200~2,300 (approximately US$ 750~1,450, Exchange Rates: 1 New Zealand Dollar = 0.63 United States Dollar as at September 2015, Reserve Bank of New Zealand, 2016) (University of Auckland, 2015). However, both leaders of ABC viewed that the cost was not much of an obstacle. Actually they thought it would be quite good value for money as long as it could enhance their leadership skills. However, language of the education surfaced as the problem. The two managers preferred to have training in Korean because of their limited English proficiency. Unfortunately, there was no classroom training courses available in Korean in New Zealand, but only online courses. However, the shortest online course was three months, which posed several challenges. First, given that the average tenure of ABC workers is less than three months, it does not allow enough of a time frame
for the same employees who experience before and after the leadership training, to assess the leadership changes. Second, three months of training requires extra time and commitment from both leaders, which will add extra burden on their personal and professional lives. Lastly, this is outside the scope of this study and will require too much time and resource to implement in the frame of the current study. Due to these obstacles, I reserve this option for future research.

Nevertheless, choosing leadership development training as an intervention strategy itself is a big step forward from ABC’s perspective. The awareness of value of managerial training is the key to increase a chance of attaining a better organisational performance and growth (Suzuki, Vu, & Sonobe, 2012). Suzuki, Vu and Sonobe’s (2012) empirical findings in small to medium sized knitwear companies in Vietnam uncovered that the biggest stumbling block that kept the managers of SMEs from participating in a leadership training programme was their lack of understanding of its value and benefits. Their research outcomes revealed that the demand for leadership development training had increased sharply after they took up the training. In this regard, I view the awareness about the benefit of leadership training, and the willingness to take up the training course, provide a good foundation for developing better organisational outcomes. Moreover, the managerial training option can serve as affordable and cost-effective solution for a small company like ABC, in which the role of the top leaders is dominant in designing and keeping organizational culture. They are individuals who exercise influence on the strategic direction and culture of the organisation (Marquis & Huston, 2012) and provide the highest leverage point for changes (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). Moreover, they will remain in the company for a longer time, unlike employees who could leave at any stage.

Overall, the discussions in this phase allow the two top managers to be aware of the importance of developing their leadership styles, and stimulate their willingness to improve their leader behaviours in a more structured and systematic way, departing from the mere rule of thumb ways. From the forgoing literature supports and the outcomes drawn from the discussions, leadership training is thus selected as an appropriate intervening strategy to tackle the high turnover problem for ABC.

Secondly, changing the communication frequencies and mode is suggested to create an effective communication channel in ABC. The interview outcomes demonstrated that the employees under the directive leader were not happy with the continuous and repeated instructions over instant messaging. To this outcome, one of the top managers initially looked a bit offended and expressed his discomfort.

> It is extremely important to keep reminding them [the employees] of health and safety rules. Otherwise, they tend to either forget or find a short-cut! [speaks in a bit intense tone] Look at this! [pointing the interview results stating the need for flexibility and short-cut to be efficient]. He [Participant 12] thinks short-cutting is efficient? Who will then be responsible when the accident happens!
The other managers also expressed agreement with him and so did I. However; it is not necessary to have numerous accounts of instant messaging or on-going repetitions. We must be creative in making our employees happy while making them mindful of health and safety regulations. A clue came from the interview responses showing the request for in-person communication. Many of employees under supportive or participative leaders were also unhappy with lack of face-to-face talks with the leaders. Both cases showed the lack of quality of communication. After reviewing the aggregated findings, the management was determined to invest time and effort to create a quality communication channel in ABC. Ford and Ford (2010) proposed that communication is a healthy start for the organisational discourse and it is essential for people to change and shape the situation to allow for the achievement of the intended outcomes. To have effective communication, Argyris (1994) proposes a two-way communication, which is a key to developing leadership in a multifaceted and complex work context because it creates ‘withness’ thinking (Shotter, 2008).

In this respect, the following two strategies are suggested in terms of altering the communication frequencies and modes. The first measure that management proposed was limiting the instructions by separating the instructions from the daily reporting. Currently, there are six daily reports through instant messaging in ABC. However, the respondents did not seem to have any problem over the number of reporting, but the accompanying instructions and reminders when they made the daily reporting. Thus, the instructions over instant messaging will be limited to three times a day, which will happen at a set time of day and be separated from the daily reporting. The second measure is increasing the number of face-to-face contacts. As a way of increasing an in-person interaction, the management suggests altering the frequency of the site visits from once a month to twice a month. The face-to-face meeting during their site visit will be a valuable opportunity for the employees to present their needs and concerns to the leaders in person. At the same time, it will be an occasion for the company to provide regular compliance updates, refreshers and training on a more regular basis. The meeting will be conducted with snacks and drinks. This is to address the employees’ top request in the phone interview, asking to provide morning or afternoon tea as a way of boosting their morale at the workplace.

Lastly, introducing various non-monetary rewards strategies is proposed as a way of improving job satisfaction. In many previous studies, rewards strategies are proposed to improving job satisfaction. Monetary and non-monetary rewards have been regarded as a useful medium to manipulate employees’ job satisfaction (Bustamam, Teng, & Abdullah, 2014; Hampton & Hampton, 2004). Researchers like Abbasi and Hollman (2000) stressed the importance of tangible and financial rewards, which make employees motivated and feel valued. It then will lead to a good performance. On the other hand, Chiang and Birtch (2008) claim that non-financial rewards are a good means for small companies to utilise to improve employee satisfaction and job performance. To accommodate an increasing pressure to lower the costs in ABC, I have focused on developing affordable but effective measures throughout the project. In this regard, non-monetary recognition is an inexpensive way to
stimulate employee’s morale and to increase productivity (Jacobe, 2003). In the employee interview, the two dominant factors which surfaced in order to manage job satisfaction were free morning or afternoon tea, and improving promotional opportunities. These two factors are a type of non-monetary reward, which are not necessarily in a monetary sense but tangible rewards offered and controlled by a company (Chiang & Birtch, 2008). Therefore, I think these two non-monetary options are a cost-effective method of enhancing employee’s job satisfaction, thereby reducing turnover intention at ABC. To the requests for free treats, Joseph showed an instant approval. He viewed that providing free snacks is a relatively easy and affordable and immediately practicable option. The other manager also agreed but to a lesser degree. He felt that it was a good option for small companies like us, but at the same time, he was a bit cautious for building a sense of entitlement in the end and they might want bigger benefits. Nonetheless, Joseph and Phillip seemed to be happy to introduce these two reward strategies to the company. Free treats can be interpreted as a positive gesture of the management toward employee's wellbeing because it will happen after hearing their voices from the staff interview. As previously stated, free snacks will thus be offered at every face-to-face meeting during their fortnight site visits.

With regard to the strategies for heightening promotional opportunities, Joseph put forward awarding a job title for longer serving employees who work for more than six months. It is a common dissatisfaction factor for employees in a 'dead-end job' (Kohl & Stephens, 1989) or so called 'bad jobs' because they generally do not have prospect of upward mobility or pay increase (Morgan, Dill, & Kalleberg, 2013:802). Employees often equated the lack of recognition to the lack of their worth in the organisation (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000). Lack of recognition at personal or organisational level is often interpreted to a lack of success personally or organizationally. For the appropriate period of tenure to get a senior title, there were some discussions. One executive suggested four months, the other six months. However, we ultimately agreed to award a job title for longer serving employees who work for more than six months. Considering the average tenure at the company was less than four months, this time frame was deemed appropriate to have a senior job title. A job title is a symbolic object that reflects the employee’s identity and their contribution to the work (Grant, Berge, & Cable, 2014). It can make employees feel understood and accepted internally and externally at their work (Grant, Berge, & Cable, 2014). It is expected that offering an appropriate job title may ease the dissatisfaction and unfair feelings among some of senior employees in ABC to some extent.

Along with this, ABC’s managers proposed to increase the management's concern for employees’ personal issues or events. This includes celebrating the six months work anniversary and employees' birthdays at work or attending employees’ important personal events such as marriages or funerals. The celebrations at work will be offered with snacks and drinks to accommodate the main request to raise the morale and job satisfaction of the frontline workers in the interview. The chosen and suggested reward strategies may be seen as small and a bit passive. However, ABC's management would like to start from small but easy practicable and affordable options. Otherwise, the corrective plans suggested might end
up mere ideas. In addition, the interview outcome indicates that small rewards may have a bigger impact to the employees at the low end of the salary scale (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985).

Apart from the above discussions, we examined the company's hiring practice, particularly about recruiting large numbers of temporary employees. Short-term employees account for almost seventy percent of ABC employees. As outlined in the problem identification in the literature review in Chapter 2, hiring temporary or part-time employees is not uncommon in the small companies in low-wage industries. Hiring this employee group helps firms to lower costs by obtaining flexibility of work hours. In addition, it can also ease the pressure of paying higher wages or associated fringe benefits for senior staff (e.g. Appelbaum, & Schmitt, 2009:1920; Dalton & Todor, 1982). However, the dark side of it is a high staff turnover, which is inevitably associated with higher direct and indirect costs. Furthermore, temporary employees generally have lower levels of commitment than long-term employees (Stearns & DsArcy, 2008). In this regard, ABC needs to consider reducing the high proportion of temporary workers in the company by reducing recruiting temporary workers, mostly working holiday visa holders. Fortunately, the Korea-New Zealand working holiday law was changed in the middle of conducting this research. Under the new working holiday regulation, working holiday visa holders can now work in New Zealand for up to twelve months (Immigration New Zealand, 2017; Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2016). This labour regulation change helps ABC have a reliable supply of long-term workers. We thus, did not make further investigation for altering the hiring practice in this aspect.

In conclusion, there have been a lot of great conversations, debates and discussions between the senior managers of ABC and myself based on the meta-inferences gained from Phase 2. The management discussions produced some affordable and practicable strategies, which I concurrently inspected in relevant literature to gain theoretical justification. Altogether three intervention plans with six strategies were developed under two categories: leadership and job satisfaction. First, leadership training and building quality communication systems were suggested to develop effective leader behaviours. Second, a number of non-monetary rewards were proposed such as free snacks, offering job titles, celebrating important milestones at professional and personal levels to improve job satisfaction. The summary of the action plans and strategies are captured in Table 19.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Variables</th>
<th>Intervention Plans and Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing Effective Leadership Styles</td>
<td>① Provide leadership development programme to develop effective leadership styles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Three month of online training course in Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>② Create quality communication channel to reduce adverse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
consequences or weakness of directive leadership behaviours

- Separating the reporting and instructions & changing the frequency of the instructions over instant messaging
  (from numerous to 6 daily reporting, 3 instructions per day)
- Increasing face to face contacts by increasing site visits (from monthly to forth nightly)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Improve Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>③ Providing a range of non-monetary rewards to boost job satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Offering free snacks and drinks at site meetings and at-work celebrations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Awarding a fitting job title to employees who work for more than 6 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Increasing management concern by celebrating personal and work milestones and attending major personal events</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4 Reflection and Concluding thoughts

The intervention strategies proposed above are the product of hearing vivid voices from many outside and inside stakeholders around the problem. From the management discussions and corresponding literature review, I have tried to distil the most affordable, feasible, effective as well as rigorous action plans that are relevant to ABC's context. Although most of these proposed action plans may seem small and have marginal effect, I think they are big enough to show the management's willingness to create the desired change in ABC. This is such a big improvement from the initial pessimism of ABC’s management, which had made them do nothing but accept the problem.

To come up with these intervention strategies, I have faced myriad of small and large challenges throughout the project. The biggest challenge was from the most trusted persons who I believed and treated as the partners for my project. I still clearly remember the moment of embarrassment when ABC’s senior managers showed their scepticism of the feasibility of finding solutions. Initially, they said that easy solutions like a pay rise were the only way to address the problem and obviously ABC could not afford it after all. They showed little expectation from my project and viewed my attempt to solve the problem as merely my academic pursuit. Although I thought that I had secured their support, it was not easy to change their fixed mindset and doubt about solving this persistent problem. This scepticism stirred me with the fear that I may not complete the research project successfully.

However, I gained my full confidence for the project’s success when I heard a confession from Joseph, a top manager of ABC, during the management discussion in Phase 3. In the
search for actionable intervening strategies for high turnover, the merged outcomes were presented together with a series of critical questions. During this process, Joseph experienced the ‘coin-dropping’ moment. He never thought that he could be the problem and had been blaming external factors and the environment until that moment. However, a series of discussions and the triangulated merged data made him realize that ‘he was the part of the problem and the problem was the part of him’. Since that moment, I think I have obtained his ‘real’ support and involvement in the project. The aforementioned strategies are the precious fruit of ABC management’s support and willingness to tackle the problem after I secured their ‘real’ support. Since then, they have shown genuine keenness in finding solutions and discussions have been vivid and active. We have measured the proposed options from many aspects, especially from practical as well as theoretical points of view. I was proud when they asked me to search for relevant literature after they proposed options, and took it with respect. I think the two executives’ support was the most valuable driver to developing the aforementioned feasible and practicable intervention plans for the problem.

The action plans put forward are all immediately practicable except leadership training. However, I decided not to implement these interventions as part of this current action research project because a number of new variables surfaced which were outside the scope of this research such as leadership training, communication, and employee rewards. It will require significant additional investment in terms of effort and resources to execute them and to measure their effectiveness. I believe it is more appropriate to apply these strategies as another cycle of action inquiry in the future. However, when considering applying the action plans in ABC, the top managers should balance between the opportunities and challenges they pose as follows.

First, the developed six intervention strategies require ABC’s entrepreneurs to devote extra effort, time and cost such as engaging in leadership training and investing physical and psychological resources for their employees. This investment may incur some burden and additional workload for them. However, if the senior executives at ABC believe in the importance of leadership behaviours on employee turnover and job satisfaction, they must make tangible and intangible investments. The management showed their commitment in implementing action plans in the near future, which thus may be performed as the second cycle of this study. Concurrently, stakeholders should continue checking the effectiveness of the actions as the process unfolds. While implementing the intervention strategies in ABC, the management must balance the short-term burden and the long-term benefits realised from enhanced employee satisfaction and retention.

Secondly, gaining and maintaining the support and participation of the employees is crucial to establishing this investment for success. Although the change is championed by senior executives, it should be operationalized at the front-line level. In this respect, on-going open and two-way communication must be in place so that the management’s efforts are understood and recognised by the employees. Further, it will help create buy-in from the subordinates to be engaged in new action plans.
Lastly, continuity is another important facet to realizing and enjoying the true benefits of the recommended actions. Senior managers at ABC should be attentive as to whether the company's efforts and inputs are creating the desired impact while keeping an eye on individual needs and concerns on an on-going basis. Based on the emerged outcomes and needs from the honest and open feedback of the employees, the senior management must re-examine the effectiveness of the action plans suggested in this study and revise them to keep up with changing needs and the work environment.

In summary, the action plans devised from this action research project have provided ABC with both the opportunities and challenges. Commitment and effort are required at senior levels to implement action plans as well as at the employee level. A concerted effort will allow ABC’s managers to address the gaps in tackling the turnover problem of small migrant firms. It will then contribute to the enhancement of the quality of the leadership, employee retention and satisfaction and ultimately will enhance the competitiveness of the business. The study outcomes serve as a good stepping stone for ABC’s entrepreneurs to make a healthy work environment by developing effective leadership styles and promoting job satisfaction, and in turn, retaining valuable employees. However, this is the completion of only one cycle and the next step should consider implementing these plans and assessing their effectiveness as the second cycle of the action research. In the next section, I will discuss the implications, limitations and future study recommendations.
CHAPTER 7:
CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS & LIMITATIONS
7.1 Introduction

I have carried out this research project based on a MMAR methodology with the ultimate goal of developing sustainable action plans to address the high employee turnover problem in ABC and beyond. The current MMAR project has been built upon solid empirical and theoretical data and achieved the research objective successfully. As a wrap up, this final chapter discusses the study’s overall findings outlining the key outcomes from each phase in a chronological order. This is then followed by the study’s implications and limitations, coupled with future research areas.

7.2 Overall Findings in Chronological Order

The summary of the essence of the findings provides what has been realised during the course of the research project and demonstrates the successful fulfilment of the research objectives. Through the use of multiple strands in the four-phase action research cycles, this study made an inquiry into the possible solutions to the high labour turnover problem prevalent in ABC and other many small ethnic companies. Table 20 shows a summary of the data type, sources, and outcomes gained from Phase 2, 3, and 4.

Table 20 Data Collection, Sources and Outcomes by Timeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Methods</th>
<th>Studies Conducted</th>
<th>Data Sources</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td><strong>Survey on employees of ethnic Asian companies including ABC</strong></td>
<td>Ethnic (Confucius) Asian Companies incl. ABC</td>
<td>May to September 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Outcomes:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Dominant leadership emerged:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- In the order of Directive, Supportive, Participative (No dominant leadership styles in ABC)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Job satisfaction:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Positively related to Supportive/Charismatic/Participative leadership styles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- No significant relationship with Directive and Transactional leadership styles.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee turnover:</td>
<td>ABC (Target company)</td>
<td>Mid October 2015</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Negatively related to Supportive/Participative leadership Styles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Positively related to Transactional Leadership style</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Moderating effect of ethnic Asian entrepreneurship:** No

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviews with ABC employees</th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcomes:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived dominant leadership of ABC manager:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- In the order of Supportive, Participative &amp; Directive leadership style at an equal count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High level of job satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td>- Under the Supportive or/and Participative leaders</td>
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<td><strong>Low level of job satisfaction</strong></td>
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<td>- Under the Directive leader</td>
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**Antecedents of Turnover intention:**
- Low career aspiration,
- work nature (physically hard work)
- personal circumstances change

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<th>Integration</th>
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<td><strong>Outcomes: Meta-inference</strong></td>
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<td>Use the leadership styles and job satisfaction as effective intervening variables to curb turnover intention</td>
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<td>- The need for strengthening Supportive leadership style and limiting Directive leadership style</td>
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<td>- The need for improving employees’ job satisfaction: focus on non-monetary rewards</td>
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As the first phase, Phase 1 of this MMAR study, I started exploring the research problem by engaging with ABC's top management. The discussions proffered the research problem, and the subsequent research literature revealed the four variables for this study: turnover intention, leadership styles, job satisfaction and ethnic entrepreneurship (level of co-ethnic community involvement).

Phase 2, the action planning step, utilized a mixed method approach. In the quantitative component, the usable data were collected from 222 employees of ethnic Asian firms in New Zealand including ABC, based on which the hypotheses were tested. Despite the unique experiences and perceptions of each individual, the survey outcome showed some patterns. The quantitative outcomes established that certain leadership (supportive and participative) behaviours and employees’ job satisfaction are useful variables to use in easing employees’ turnover decisions. The statistical outcomes also indicated a strong inverse correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intent. Most interestingly, no impact of the level of ethnic community involvement on turnover intention emerged despite the strong presence of Asian ethnicity and ethnic entrepreneurship among participants.

In the qualitative component, the data were collected through a phone interview with twelve employees of ABC in a semi structured manner. The interview outcomes enabled me to corroborate the quantitative findings to a certain extent, and helped uncover the current state of ABC and areas to be improved in applying these two found-to-be effective variables in
ABC’s context. The employee interview consisted of three parts: leadership styles, job satisfaction and turnover intention, from which five major themes emerged. The qualitative outcomes are largely similar to quantitative findings. The first theme showed that the leaders of ABC possessed mostly supportive leadership styles, followed by an equal percentage of participative and directive styles. The second theme unveiled the weakness of the leadership as the top managers’ lack of show-up to their work site and face-to-face communication. The third and fourth themes surfaced from the job satisfaction aspect. The third theme indicated employees’ satisfaction level with their leaders and the job was by contrast higher under a supportive/ participative leader than those under a directive leader, although all participants answered that their relationship with the boss was sound. The fourth theme showed that employees of ABC wanted to have free snacks and drinks, and a pay rise to lift their level of job satisfaction. The final, fifth theme showed that the main reasons for considering leaving the company were the lack of career aspiration including pay and promotion, a change in personal circumstances, the physically demanding nature of the work and the low pay level. Overall the outcomes corroborate the positive impact of supportive and participative styles, and suggest the need for improving job satisfaction. Furthermore, they highlighted paying attention to two controllable areas to improve job satisfaction and leadership practices.

Phase 3, the action taking phase, evolved with the informal discussions with ABC senior managers based on the meta-inferences obtained from merging the quantitative and qualitative findings in Phase 2. The discussions navigated the ABC management to validate the meta-inferences, and allow them to come up with three action plans with six strategies to bring about the change in ABC under the two classifications: leadership and job satisfaction. As a way of developing effective leadership styles and limiting negative leadership consequences, leadership training and facilitating effective communication are suggested. To improve job satisfaction, providing non-monetary reward including free snacks, awarding job titles and promoting management concerns are proposed. Implementing these plans and measuring their effect will be valuable for both researchers and practitioners. However, implementation of these strategies is not considered in this study because it requires considerable commitment, effort, time and resources. For this reason, I decided to leave the action implementation as a task for future research.

As the final stage, Phase 4, I evaluate and reflect on the action strategies put forward in the previous phase. The proposed action plans are the invaluable fruit of an on-going spiral of action cycles: planning, action, observation and reflection. Nevertheless, these action plans are not the end solution to the problem, but they need to be continuously observed and reflected on to be improved and taken to the next level.

In summary, one particular insight gained from this study is that supportive and participative leadership styles and job satisfaction can be used to reduce the high employee turnover problem in small ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand. Effective leadership is one powerful intervention tool that affects employee job satisfaction and employee turnover accordingly (El-Nahas et al., 2013; Kleinman, 2004; Scott, Sochalski & Aiken, 1999; Vroom
& Jago, 2007; Volk & Lucas, 1991). Taunton et al. (1997) resonate that the leadership practices of managers can be used as an intervention measure to improve staff retention. In addition, job satisfaction can act as another strong intervention for high turnover intention (Ejere, 2010; El-Nahas, Abd-El-Salam, & Shawky, 2013; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; Singh & Loncar, 2010; Valentine et al., 2011). These two factors are inexpensive ways of manipulating employees’ behaviour and attitudes (e.g., Jacobe, 2003). Based on these findings, the proposed six intervention strategies are valuable outcomes to bring desired changes to ABC and beyond. The implications of the study will be discussed in the following section.

7.3 Study Implications

The completion of the full cycle of action research brings the fulfilment of the research objectives. The cumulative study results are significant within and beyond the target company. This section has noted the theoretical contribution and practical implications for the research at the individual, organizational and national level.

From the theoretical perspective, this study creates a theoretical advancement and makes a contribution to the field of turnover literature in several ways as follows:

First, the findings from this project show good evidence on what may work and which strategies are necessary to control an excessively high employee turnover in the context of small ethnic Asian companies in New Zealand. Much research exists on the effect of turnover, job satisfaction and leadership. These studies were however, undertaken and developed mainly in Western (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Eady & Nicholls, 2011; Jaeger, 1984; Wigglesworth, 1987) and large organisational contexts (Baron & Hannan, 2002; Cardon & Stevens, 2004; Gialuisi & Coetzer, 2013) but relatively less attention has been paid to the ethnic Asian context. The primary value of this research project is that it extends the existing turnover knowledge to small, labour intensive ethnic businesses.

Secondly, this study provides strategic directions on how to effectively uplift employee job satisfaction in small businesses. Employee satisfaction is a widely studied topic in management research and is regarded as a fundamental determinant of turnover. By examining the role of job satisfaction on employee departure in an Asian business context, its importance as an intervening variable is better understood and context-specific strategies were developed. Although these contributions require additional work, they are progressed from the current study of job satisfaction and turnover.

Lastly, the lesson learned from this study reinforces the findings of extant management studies. It reveals the workability and applicability of the found-to-be-effective variables in curtailing employee turnover in a small ethnic business context. The outcome demonstrates that effective leader behaviours (supportive and participative styles) enhance employee satisfaction, and in turn lower employee turnover. Furthermore, it confirms the strong
negative bond between job satisfaction and turnover. Overall, the study's findings suggest that scholars and practitioners should consider effectively utilising these two factors to produce better employee retention, especially for small and labour-intensive companies.

For practical implication, there are several important implications at the individual, organizational and national level.

First, this research project helped achieve my personal interest in addressing the problem that my company has suffered for many years, and consequently it enabled me to achieve my scholarly development. Reflecting on the research processes, I feel lucky to have encountered numerous problems and failures during the project because they were a blessing in disguise that have developed my scholar–practitioner insight. I still vividly remember the distress I experienced at the early part of the project after receiving cynical comments on the feasibility of the project from the top managers of the target company. At the same time, I will never forget the joy of gaining confidence after Joseph’s confession about his paradigm-shifting moment during the management discussion. In addition, my frustration over the silly mistake I made using a Google form as my primary online survey platform, which blocked many non-Google account holders from accessing my online survey. And how can I forget the anxiety and tension I experienced before I walked into Confucian Asian operated shops to ask for survey participation to meet the sample size. In some cases, I was turned down. Some owners bluntly said they were not interested, or some expressed their discomfort due to the sensitivity of the survey questions after inspecting the questions. Nevertheless, I feel indebted to the many Asian business owners who allowed me access to their employees and encouraged next door neighbours to participate in my research. All these experiences, mistakes, frustrations and joys are valuable resources that have made me pause for reflection and practise reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. They have augmented my scholarly practitioner's observation and viewpoints and helped address the real work problem. They have been noted throughout this project. Magnifying my role as a scholarly practitioner, this study is personally significant because I have achieved my professional goal to manage the real work problem as a practitioner. At the same time, I have achieved my academic goal to complete this research project.

Secondly, this study project has a great implication at my organisational level. At this final juncture, I am pleased to have the practicable and affordable action plans in my hand. The target company has been in operation for more than 15 years; however, no decent effort had been made to solve this problem until this project began. The study outcome has shed light on the actionable corrective measures to curb the high turnover problem by improving the effective leadership styles and uplifting the employees’ job satisfaction. The knowledge and insight gained from this study have made ABC executives aware of the importance of their leadership and job satisfaction in addressing the long-neglected problem of the company. The awareness and understanding of the effective leadership practices and employee job satisfaction open up the probability of achieving constructive organizational outcomes by
correcting the company's weakness in leadership and job satisfaction. It serves as a good starting point to embark on positive change for the company.

Thirdly, this study has a significant implication for many small firms that operate with limited resources and cultural challenges as ABC. The insights gained from the multiple research approaches have provided me with a credibility as well as transferability to the suggested corrective plans. Therefore, small businesses that have similar work conditions to ABC may replicate the outcomes in addressing high employee voluntary separation. It will, as a result, help practitioners improve their company’s performance and will ultimately raise their firm's competitiveness.

Lastly, the study findings will not only support an individual firm’s competitiveness but will also contribute to the New Zealand economy at a national level. Although the research outcomes are exploratory and warrant further study, the knowledge obtained may assist New Zealand government bodies to set policies for small companies regardless of the ethnicity of the business owners. Small businesses dominate New Zealand's industries (MBIE, 2014), and the presence of ethnic Asian entrepreneurs is expected to increase. Therefore, an understanding of leadership behaviours and the organizational problems of the small businesses will help policymakers to formulate appropriate strategies for the betterment of the New Zealand economy as a whole.

7.4 Limitations and Future Research

This action research project fulfils its objectives; nevertheless, the findings are subject to a number of limitations, and it is not recommended to generalise beyond reasonable limits. The limitations of the study scope have accordingly highlighted areas for future study.

First, the generalizability and transferability may be limited because the primary research scope is limited to one ethnic Asian company in New Zealand. In order to mitigate any negative impact of this limitation, the ardent triangulation effort was made by embracing manifold different research methods, and empirical and academic data, as well as the enlarged sample in the survey phase. Nonetheless, this one company scope may hamper a holistic understanding of the actual depth and breadth of the problem and the findings may not necessarily be generalised to other industries and ethnic groups. Furthermore, the research findings might have implications in New Zealand, but not necessarily in other countries. Therefore, it would be meaningful if a replication study could be carried out on large sample scopes or ideally a comparative study in other ethnic migrant firms in the future. This may offer more credible and generalizable outcomes.

Secondly, the incongruent sample characteristics in the survey may have limited this study’s validity. This study used the samples with different firm sizes and industry types, which may have contributed to the demographic variance of the sample. The study's findings could
reflect the potential bias stemming from self-reported data from these dissimilar demographics. Despite the effort to match the characteristics of the survey samples to those of the target company, it was inevitable to compromise to some extent to meet the minimum requirement of the sample size. To illustrate the variance of the sample, while the target company falls into a small-to-medium sized enterprise run by South Korean migrant entrepreneurs in a labour-intensive industry, the criteria for the surveyed firms were augmented to medium sized companies operated by Confucian Asians and no distinction for the industry type was made. However, the companies with zero employees that account for 69% of the entire businesses in New Zealand (MBIE, 2014) were excluded to better align with the research objective. In addition, given the fact that a significantly large proportion of ethnic Asian businesses commonly cluster in labour intensive industries and are small in size (e.g., Statistics NZ, 2014e, 2014b, 2014e), I do not think the outcomes have deviated from the original aim. However, in future research, more accurate and reliable results could be achieved by conducting research on more homogeneous samples with large proportions of participants in terms of firm size, industry type and ethnicity of entrepreneurs to those of the target company.

Thirdly, the impact of the ethnic Asian entrepreneurship may suggest that factors other than the level of ethnic community involvement may influence employee's voluntary separation. It is hard to conclude which factors have influenced this outcome. Ethnic entrepreneurship is a multifaceted concept that is affected by many different cultural and social aspects. For example, Chaganti and Greene (2002) identified that ethnic entrepreneurship can be decided by factors such as language at home and work, as well as suppliers (Chaganti & Greene, 2002; Menzies and et al., 2007). To explain this unexpected outcome, studies on various dimensions of different culture, ethnicity and ethnic entrepreneurship on refined sample scopes merit future research attention. A comparative study on different ethnic groups, including a mainstream business group, could be another good avenue for future research.

Lastly, the study proposed the six practical intervention strategies as a way of addressing the high employee termination intention in ABC. As this study completed only one cycle of the action research, the study's outcome is limited to developing intervention plans, rather than their implementation. Therefore, it would be meaningful if future study could implement these suggested action plans and test their effects or consequences. Any future study implementing these action strategies will feed the second cycle of the action research spiral that helps practitioners and researchers to have a deeper understanding of the world around them.

7.5 Reflection and Concluding Thoughts

The aim of this study is to find actionable intervening strategies to tackle excessively high employee turnover for an ethnic Asian company in New Zealand and beyond. To small companies with limited resources, excessively high labour turnover can be a threatening
factor for its survival and its competitiveness. Unfortunately, even though entrepreneurs in small companies are aware of the turnover problem, they do not have the resources or knowledge to tackle this intractable problem and often think this is outside their control (e.g. Huck & McEwen, 1991; Ibrahim & Goodwin, 1986). Likewise, ABC managers have never attempted to develop actions or establish programmes to tackle this long-held haunting problem. The importance of small and medium-sized business enterprises (SMEs) is already well recognised by a sizable literature. Small businesses outnumber large businesses by an extensive margin in New Zealand (MBIE, 2014) as well as in an international context (Krüger & Rootman, 2010). As the main engine of the nation's economy, small firms contribute to 40 percent of the national gross domestic product (GDP) in New Zealand (Small Business Development Group, 2016). They are also a source of job creation, innovation and inventions (MBIE, 2014). In this regard, Krüger and Rootman (2010) stress the importance of providing information, knowledge and advice for small business owners or managers to lower the failure rate of the companies. Based on this rationale, this study was conducted using multiple quantitative and qualitative studies in action research. This study's statistical outcomes demonstrate that leadership styles and job satisfaction are plausible avenues to explore. The subsequent in-depth staff interview and an array of management discussions helped me validate the meta-inferences gained from the previous phase and discover key improvement areas. It then led me to come up with three action plans with six strategies to tackle this problem. The proffered action plans in this study are all feasible and affordable for small ethnic companies like ABC and beyond.

As I reflect on the journey of completing my research project, two factors have continuously inspired me to go forward to finish this project: practicality and scarcity. The target company has been in operation for more than 15 years; however, examining the problem from practical and academic aspects has never been done before. As the practitioner, I have a desire to find practically beneficial solutions for the company. At the same time, my role as the scholar made me pay attention to the deficits in the extant literature and imbued me with a desire to fill the gap. However, the journey of fulfilling the research objectives has not been easy. I have experienced numerous internal and external challenges during this project. Right before starting the project, I encountered scepticism from the top managers of the target company. They believed that this problem could not be solved unless we changed the hard work nature or raised the pay. However, these linear solutions were unrealistic or unaffordable to a company that operates on low margins and limited resources. Apart from these internal challenges, I also had to fight with the external challenges arising from the engagement with outside stakeholders around the problems. For example, collecting surveys from complete strangers was a scary task. I cried many times for the blunt rejections but I also cried a lot for the warm hearts and helping hands. I would have never been able to complete this project without many people like them. At the juncture of the final stage, I realised that these challenges and barriers provided me with the motivation to proceed with the project. The numerous trials and errors, criticisms, challenges, and even laughter have made me pause for thinking 'in action' and 'on action'. They are a valuable resource to tackle taken-for-granted assumptions. During the project, I have constantly alternated between the practitioner's hat and the scholar's hat to produce relevant and rigorous solutions. It has been
such a painful process which drove me to the point of giving up. However, it made me stronger and helped me become a skilful scholarly practitioner. The entire journey was captured in my two tattered reflection notes. They are a cherished souvenir for my research project as well as a symbol for becoming a scholarly practitioner.

Labour turnover has been an interest of many industries over time. Raising pay and good welfare systems or ample rewards and benefits are obviously some good ways to reduce employee's thinking of leaving a company (Griffeth, Hom, Gaertner, 2000; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Morgan, Dill, & Kalleber, 2013; Seo, Ko, & Price, 2004;). However, as a small Asian company with extra cultural and language barriers, these plausible interventions could be a luxury. The proffered action plans are feasible and practicable options that can create a real change for small companies like ABC that have limited resources. The study outcomes serve as a good stepping stone for ABC’s entrepreneurs to make a healthy work environment by developing effective leadership styles and promoting job satisfaction, and in turn, retaining valuable employees. However, this is the completion of only one cycle and the next step should consider implementing these plans and assessing their effectiveness as the second cycle of the action research. In the next section, I will discuss the implications, limitations and future study recommendations.
Dear Rebecca Kim

I am pleased to inform you that the DBA Ethics Committee has approved your application for ethical approval for your study. Details and conditions of the approval can be found below:

Committee Name: DBA Ethics Committee
Title of Study: The effect of Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction in reducing Employee Turnover Intention in Ethnic Asian enterprises in New Zealand
Student Investigator: Rebecca Kim
School/Institute: School of Management
Approval Date: 13 January 2014

The application was APPROVED subject to the following conditions:

- The researchers must obtain ethical approval from a local research ethics committee if this is an international study.
- University of Liverpool approval is subject to compliance with all relevant national legislative requirements if this is an international study.
- All serious adverse events must be reported to the Sub-Committee within 24 hours of their occurrence, via the Research Integrity and Governance Officer (ethics@liverpool.ac.uk).
- If it is proposed to make an amendment to the research, you should notify the Committee of the amendment.

This approval applies to the duration of the research. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study as specified in the application form, the Committee should be notified.

Kind regards

DBA Ethics Committee
University of Liverpool Management School in Partnership with Laureate Online Education
Appendix B: Permissions Request to Conduct the Research

Appendix B.1: Permissions Request to Leader A

14 January 2015

Mr. [Redacted]
Managing Director
JC (NZ) Ltd.
2/13 Omaha Road, Remuera,
Auckland, New Zealand

RE: Permission Request to Conduct Research Study

Dear Mr. [Redacted],

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study at your company. I am currently undertaking my doctoral thesis project to fulfill the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration at the University of Liverpool. The study is entitled "Mixed Methods Action Research: Intervention measures to reduce employee turnover intention and promote employee job satisfaction in Asian ethnic enterprises in New Zealand".

The objective of this study is to find and develop an effective leadership style that helps promote employee job satisfaction and reduce employee turnover in the context of Asian ethnic enterprises. High employee turnover is a prevalent problem in many Asian ethnic enterprises operating in New Zealand, which reduce its productivity and competitiveness accordingly.

To achieve this research purpose, I would like to conduct surveys on the employees of your company. For survey questionnaires, your employees will receive either a link through your email or complete it in a pen-and-paper form depending on their preference. For the interviews, it will be conducted over the phone and may take around 20-30 minutes. Through these two different means, your employees are encouraged to provide their opinions, thoughts, and views on the leadership styles of the top executives of the company including you, their job satisfaction and turnover intention.

In addition, as I mentioned in the conversation last time, I need to conduct some interviews and discussions with the two top executives including you.

For the confidentiality of the participants in these meetings, I will not ask their name or any personal other information that may help me decode their identity. In addition, a voice distortion option is available when recording in the interview or discussions for those who wish to conceal their identification further.

I may use some of the comments made by some of you during the research in my written and oral research reports. I may paraphrase quotes or modify information in order to keep anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents if necessary.

I will follow up with a telephone call this or early of next week and would be happy to answer any questions or address concerns that you may have at that time. You may contact me at my email address: rebecca.sun.kim@gmail.com.

If you agree, kindly sign below and return the scanned signed form by email, or using the enclosed self-addressed envelope.

Sincerely yours,

[Signature]

Rebecca Kim
University of Liverpool
(027-290-2808)
14 January 2015

Mr. [Name]
Managing Director
JC (NZ) Ltd.
2/13 Omaha Road, Remuera,
Auckland, New Zealand

RE: Permission Request to Conduct Research Study

Dear Mr. [Name],

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study at your company. I am currently undertaking my doctoral thesis project to fulfill the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration at the University of Liverpool. The study is entitled “Mixed Methods Action Research: Intervention measures to reduce employee turnover intention and promote employee job satisfaction in Asian ethnic enterprises in New Zealand”.

The objective of this study is to find and develop an effective leadership style that helps promote employee job satisfaction and reduce employee turnover in the context of Asian ethnic enterprises. High employee turnover is a prevalent problem in many Asian ethnic enterprises operating in New Zealand, which reduce its productivity and competitiveness accordingly.

To achieve this research purpose, I would like to conduct a survey on the employees of your company. For survey questionnaires, your employees will receive either a link through your email to complete it or in a pen-and-paper form depending on their preference. For the interview, it will be conducted over the phone and may take around 20-30 minutes. Through these two different means, your employees are encouraged to provide their opinions, thoughts, and views on the leadership styles of the top executives of the company including you, their job satisfaction and turnover intention.

In addition, as I mentioned in the conversation last time, I need to conduct some interviews and discussions with the two top executives including you.

For the confidentiality of the participants in these meetings, I will not ask their name or any personal information that may help me decode the identity. In addition, a voice distortion option is available when recording the interview or discussions for those who wish to conceal their identification further.

I may use some of the comments made by some of you during the research in my written and oral research reports. I may paraphrase quotes or modify information in order to keep anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents if necessary.

I will follow up with a telephone call this or early of next week and would be happy to answer any questions or address concerns that you may have at that time. You may contact me at my email address: rebecca.sun.kim@gmail.com.

If you agree, kindly sign below and return the scanned signed form by email, or using the enclosed self-addressed envelope.

Sincerely yours,

Rebecca Kim
University of Liverpool
(027-290-2808)
Appendix B.3: Permission Granted from Leader A

TO. Members of the Committee on Research Ethics
C/O Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim
2/13 Omaha Rd, Remuera
Auckland, New Zealand
TEL:64-27-290-2808

16 January 2015

Dear Members of the Committee on Research Ethics

On behalf of JC (NZ) Limited in New Zealand, I am writing to indicate my awareness and support for the research proposed by Ms. Sunmi Rebecca Kim, a student at University of Liverpool formally. I understand that Ms. Kim wishes to conduct her research by administering interviews, surveys, informal conversation, talks and observation to our employees and the two top executives of the company.

As the head of the company, I give Ms. Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim full permissions to conduct her research in our company.

If you have any query or concerns, please feel free to contact my office at (649) 520-6727.

Sincerely yours,

[Signature]

Managing Director
Appendix B.4: Permission Granted from Leader B

To Members of the Committee on Research Ethics
c/o Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim
2/13 Omahu Rd, Remuera
Auckland, New Zealand
TEL: 64-27-290-2908

16 January 2015

Dear Members of the Committee on Research Ethics

On behalf of JC(NZ) Limited in New Zealand, I am writing to indicate our awareness and permission for the research proposed by Ms. Sunmi Rebecca Kim, a student at University of Liverpool. We are aware that Ms. Kim intends to conduct her research by administering interviews, surveys and talks and observation in order to gain to their opinions, thought, and views on the leadership styles of the top executives of the company including me, their job satisfaction and turnover intention.

As Chief Operating Officer of the company, I give Ms. Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim a full permission to conduct her research in our company.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact my office at (64-22)

Sincerely yours

[Signature]

Chief Operating Officer
Appendix C: Survey Questionnaires

Appendix C.1 : Survey questionnaires (English)

LEADERSHIP, JOB SATISFACTION, & TURNOVER QUESTIONNAIRE

*Your responses remain anonymous and confidential, and will be used for the research purpose only.

PART I: LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Please Judge how frequently each statement fits the owner of your company using the following rating scale of 1-5. Give your immediate impression. There is no right or wrong answer.

1—Not at all 2—Once in a while 3—Sometimes 4—Fairly often 5—Frequently, if not always

_The owner/Senior manger of my company:_

1. lets subordinates know what is expected of them. 1 2 3 4 5
2. maintains a friendly working relationship with subordinates. 1 2 3 4 5
3. consults with subordinates when facing a problem. 1 2 3 4 5
4. listens receptively to subordinates’ ideas and suggestions. 1 2 3 4 5
5. informs subordinates about what needs to be done and how it needs to be done. 1 2 3 4 5
6. acts without consulting subordinates. 1 2 3 4 5
7. does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. 1 2 3 4 5
8. asks subordinates to follow standard rules and regulations. 1 2 3 4 5
9. says things that hurt subordinates’ personal feelings. 1 2 3 4 5
10. asks for suggestions from subordinates concerning how to carry out assignments. 1 2 3 4 5
11. explains the level of performance that is expected of subordinates. 1 2 3 4 5
12. helps subordinates overcome problems that stop them from carrying out their tasks. 1 2 3 4 5
13. asks subordinates for suggestions on what assignments should be made. 1 2 3 4 5
14. gives vague explanations of what is expected of subordinates on the job. 1 2 3 4 5
15. behaves in a manner that is thoughtful of subordinates’ personal needs. 1 2 3 4 5
16. talks about their most important values and beliefs. 1 2 3 4 5
17. instills pride in me for being associated with him/her. 1 2 3 4 5
18. specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. 1 2 3 4 5
19. goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group. 1 2 3 4 5
20. acts in ways that builds my respect. 1 2 3 4 5
21. considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions. 1 2 3 4 5
22. displays a sense of power and confidence. 1 2 3 4 5
23. emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission. 1 2 3 4 5
24. provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts. 1 2 3 4 5
25. fails to interfere until problems become serious. 1 2 3 4 5
26. focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards. 1 2 3 4 5
27. discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance target. 1 2 3 4 5
28. waits for things to go wrong before taking action. 1 2 3 4 5
29. makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved. 1 2 3 4 5
30. shows that he/she is a firm believer in “If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it.”. 1 2 3 4 5
31. demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action. 1 2 3 4 5
32. concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures. 1 2 3 4 5
33. keeps track of all mistakes. 1 2 3 4 5
34. directs my attention toward failures to meet standards. 1 2 3 4 5
35. expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations. 1 2 3 4 5
PART II: JOB SATISFACTION (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991)

Please indicate the level of your satisfaction in the following items.

1= Strongly Disagree  2= Disagree  3= Strongly Disagree  4= Agree  5= Strongly Agree

1. I am satisfied with my present job when I compare it to jobs in other organizations. 1 2 3 4 5
2. I am satisfied with the progress I am making toward the goals I set for myself in my present position. 1 2 3 4 5
3. I am satisfied with the chance my job gives me to do what I am best at. 1 2 3 4 5
4. I am satisfied with my present job when I consider the expectations I had when I took the job. 1 2 3 4 5
5. I am satisfied with my present job in light of my career expectations. 1 2 3 4 5

PART III: TURNOVER INTENTION (Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999)

Please indicate how frequently each statement fits you.

1= Not at all  2= Once in a while 3= Sometimes 4= Fairly often 5= Frequently, if not always

1. I am thinking about leaving this organization. 1 2 3 4 5
2. I am planning to look for a new job. 1 2 3 4 5
3. I intend to ask people about new job opportunities. 1 2 3 4 5
4. I don't plan to be in this organization much longer. 1 2 3 4 5
5. Source : Index of Ethnic Involvement –Adapted (Menzies et al, 2007)

PART IV: PERCEIVED ETHNIC COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT
(Index of Ethnic Involvement –Adapted, Menzies et al, 2007)

Please indicate the degree of your company depends on.

1= Very Low  2= Below Average  3= Average  4= Above Average  5= Very High

1. The degree to which the language at work is the same with owner-manager(s) of the company. 1 2 3 4 5
2. The degree to which the company depends on the same ethnic workers. 1 2 3 4 5
3. The degree to which the company depends on the same ethnic customers. 1 2 3 4 5
4. The degree to which the company depends on the same ethnic supplier. 1 2 3 4 5
5. The degree to which the company doing business in the location where the same ethnic people live. 1 2 3 4 5

PART V: DEMOGRAPHIC & BUSINESS INFORMATION

Please choose (circle) one and answer the questions below.

1. What is your gender? □ Male □ Female
2. What is your age?
   □ over 18 to 20s □ 31-40
   □ 41-50 □ 51 or older
3. What is your highest level of education completed?
   □ College (high School) or Below  □ 2-yr Diploma
   □ University (degree)          □ Graduate school

4. Years (months) you have worked in this company?
   □ Less than 3 month            □ 3-6 months
   □ 6 month ~ 1 year             □ 1-3 years
   □ 3-6 years                    □ More than 6 year

5. What describes your race? (you can make multiple choices)
   □ Asian                        □ Maori/ Pacific Islander
   □ White / Caucasian            □ Middle Eastern
   □ Black/African                □ Others (__________________)

6. What industry is your company? Please tick in the (✓). You can make multiple choice.
   □ Accommodation & Restaurants
   □ Administration & support services i.e. cleaning, lawn mowing, pest control, car repair,
     hair dressing, travel agency, immigration consulting...
   □ Manufacturing
   □ Export or Import
   □ Media & telecommunications
   □ Retail trade
   □ Wholesale trade

7. Total number of employees in your company? 120

8. Number of employee with Asian Ethnicity in your company (you can answer either number or
    by %).

*I need your help! If you have would like to input your opinion on turnover and leadership further
and would like to be interviewed, please include your name and phone number below.

   Phone number:  
   Best time to call:  

This is the end of the survey. THANK YOU VERY MUCH!
PART I: 리더십

아래 각 문항을 읽고 본인의 회사 오너의 리더심을 가장 잘 설명한 정도 (1-5점)를 선택해 주세요. 아래 문항에 대한 정답과 오답은 없으므로 골바로 피어르는 느낌을 표기해 주세요.

1= 전혀 2= 거의 전혀 3= 가깝 4= 중증 5= 거의 항상

우리회사 오너/영업주는

1. 직원들에게 자신이 바라는 기대수준에 대해 말해준다 1 2 3 4 5
2. 직원들과 우호적인 업무관계를 유지하고 있다 1 2 3 4 5
3. 문제가 덜 멀었을 때 직원들과 상의한다 1 2 3 4 5
4. 직원들의 의견과 제안을 잘 듣는다 1 2 3 4 5
5. 직원들에게 무엇이 필요하고 그걸 어떻게 해야 하는지 알려준다 1 2 3 4 5
6. 직원들과 상의하지 않고 행동한다 1 2 3 4 5
7. 그룹의 일련이 되는 것이 즐겁도록 적응하도록 해준다 1 2 3 4 5
8. 회사의 규율과 규범을 지킬 것을 요구한다 1 2 3 4 5
9. 직원들의 개인적인 감정이 상하는 말을 한다 1 2 3 4 5
10. 직원들에게 어떻게 업무를 수행할지에 대해 의견을 물어본다 1 2 3 4 5
11. 직원들에게 바라는 업무 수준에 대해 설명한다 1 2 3 4 5
12. 업무량 막하는 부분을 해결하도록 도와준다 1 2 3 4 5
13. 필요한 업무가 무엇인지에 대한 직원의 의견을 구한다 1 2 3 4 5
14. 기대하는 업무 수준에 대해서 별 명확한 설명을 한다 1 2 3 4 5
15. 직원의 개인적인 필요에 대해 자상하게 행동한다 1 2 3 4 5
16. 자신의 가망 중요한 가치관과 신념에 대하여 이야기 한다 1 2 3 4 5
17. 일이 일할 때, 나에게 자긍심을 심어준다 1 2 3 4 5
18. 강한 목적의식을 가지는 것이 중요성에 대해 이야기 한다 1 2 3 4 5
19. 그룹의 이익을 위해서는 자신의 이익을 희생한다 1 2 3 4 5
20. 존경하게끔 행동한다 1 2 3 4 5
21. 어떤 결정에 따르는 도덕적, 윤리적 결과를 고려한다 1 2 3 4 5
22. 힘과 자신감을 향한다 1 2 3 4 5
23. 업무에 대해 공동체적 사명감을 갖는 것이 중요하다고 생각한다 1 2 3 4 5
24. 내가 노력하는 만큼, 나를 지원해 준다 1 2 3 4 5
25. 문제들이 심각해질 때까지는 관여하지 않는다 1 2 3 4 5
26. 번역, 실수, 예외, 그리고 기존에서의 이탈에 주로 초점을 둔다 1 2 3 4 5
27. 담당자와 업무 목표 달성에 대하여 구체적으로 의논한다 1 2 3 4 5
Appendix C.3: Sample Survey Questionnaire (Simplified Chinese)

领导风格，工作满意度与离职率问卷
*您的回答将是匿名且保密的，将只用于研究目的。

第一部分：领导风格问卷

请用1-5来判断每个句子如何频繁地适用于贵公司的经理。请给出您的直接印象。答案没有对或者错。
1=完全没有   2=偶尔   3=有时   4=比较经常   5=经常或总是

1. 让下属知道对他们的期望是什么。1 2 3 4 5
2. 与下属保持友好的工作关系。1 2 3 4 5
3. 在面临问题时会向下属咨询。1 2 3 4 5
4. 愿意聆听下属的意见与建议。1 2 3 4 5
5. 告诉下属需要做什么以及如何去做的。1 2 3 4 5
6. 不咨询下属直接行动。1 2 3 4 5
7. 采取的一些措施能够使团队成员感到高兴。1 2 3 4 5
8. 要求下属遵循标准准则与规定。1 2 3 4 5
9. 说一些伤害下属个人感情的话。1 2 3 4 5
10. 关于如何开展工作，领导会询问下属的建议。1 2 3 4 5
11. 解释期望的下属表现水平。1 2 3 4 5
12. 帮助下属克服妨碍他们开展工作的障碍。1 2 3 4 5
13. 关于接受哪些工作，领导询问下属的建议。1 2 3 4 5
14. 关于在工作上对下属的期望给予更具体的解释。1 2 3 4 5
15. 的举止行为考虑下属的个人需要。1 2 3 4 5
16. 谈论他们最关心的价值观与信念。1 2 3 4 5
17. 灌输一种与他（她）共事的光荣感。1 2 3 4 5
18. 明确指出对目标应有强烈意识的重要性。1 2 3 4 5
19. 注意团体利益大于个人利益。1 2 3 4 5
20. 行政表现令人尊敬。1 2 3 4 5
21. 考虑到决策所产生的道德与伦理后果。1 2 3 4 5
22. 展现出权利欲与自信心。1 2 3 4 5
23. 强调有集体使命感的重要性。1 2 3 4 5
24. 提供帮助以换取我的努力工作。1 2 3 4 5
25. 在问题恶化之前，不会进行干涉。1 2 3 4 5
26. 把注意力集中在违规、错误、例外及偏离行为上。1 2 3 4 5
27. 逐项讨论由谁来负责达成绩效目标。1 2 3 4 5
28. 等到事情出差错了，才采取措施。1 2 3 4 5
Appendix C.4: Sample Survey Questionnaire (Traditional Chinese)

領導風格，工作滿意度與職業率問卷 10.14
*您的回答將是匿名且保密的，將只用於研究目的。

第一部分：領導風格問卷

請用1-5來判斷每個語句如何頻繁地適用於貴公司的經理。請給出您直接的印象，答案沒有對或者錯。

1=完全沒有  2=偶爾  3=有時  4=比較經常  5=經常或總是

業主/總經理...

1. 業主/總經理讓下屬知道對他們的期望是什麼。1 2 3 4 5
2. 業主/總經理與下屬保持友好的工作關係。1 2 3 4 5 5
3. 公司業主/總經理在面臨問題時會向下屬咨詢。1 2 3 4 5
4. 業主/總經理願意聆聽下屬的意見與建議。1 2 3 4 5
5. 業主/總經理告訴下屬需要做什麼以及如何去做。1 2 3 4 5
6. 業主/總經理不咨詢下屬直接行動。1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. 業主/總經理採取的一些細微行動能使人高興成為團隊的一員。1 2 3 4 5
8. 業主/總經理要求下屬遵循標準準則與規定。1 2 3 4 5
9. 業主/總經理說一些傷害下屬個人感情的話。1 2 3 4 5
10. 關於如何開會工作。業主/總經理會徵詢下屬的建議。1 2 3 4 5
11. 業主/總經理解釋所期望的下屬表現水平。1 2 3 4 5
12. 業主/總經理幫助下屬克服妨礙他們開會工作的問題。1 2 3 4 5
13. 關於接受哪些工作。業主/總經理徵詢下屬的建議。1 2 3 4 5
14. 業主/總經理關於在工作上對下屬的期望給予很模糊的解釋。1 2 3 4 5
15. 業主/總經理的舉止行為考慮下屬的個人需要。1 2 3 4 5
16. 談論他們最關心的價值觀與信念。1 2 3 4 5
17. 業主/總經理灌輸我一種與他（她）共事的光荣感。1 2 3 4 5
18. 明確指出對目標應有強烈意識的重要性。1 2 3 4 5
19. 註重團體利益大於個人利益。1 2 3 4 5
20. 行為表現令我尊敬。1 2 3 4 5
21. 考慮到決策所產生的道德與倫理後果。1 2 3 4 5
22. 展現出權利感與自信感。1 2 3 4 5
23. 強調有集體使命感的重要性。1 2 3 4 5
24. 提供幫助以換取我的努力工作。1 2 3 4 5
25. 在問題惡化之前，不會進行干涉。1 2 3 4 5
26. 把註意力集中在違規、錯誤、例外及偏離行為上。1 2 3 4 5
27. 逐步討論誰來負責達成績效目標。1 2 3 4 5
28. 等到事情出差錯了，才采取措施。1 2 3 4 5
29. 清楚表明，一旦我達到績效目標可以得到何種酬賞。1 2 3 4 5
30. 表现出他（她）堅持“如果事情尚未爆發，別急著處理”。1 2 3 4 5
31. 在採取行動之前，先確認問題已經長期存在。1 2 3 4 5
Appendix D: Permission to Use and/or Modify Survey Instruments

Appendix D.1: Path-goal Leadership Questionnaire

Yes, you have my permission to modify the instrument as you’ve outlined.

Julie Indvik, Ph.D.

Appendix D.2: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X)

Hello Rebecca,

Thank you for calling. To confirm our conversation, the alterations you have listed in your email message (attached) are approved.

Best,

Katherine
Mind Garden, Inc.

Appendix D.3: Job Satisfaction Relative to Expectations
Hi,

It is an old old piece but please use whatever helps you. This is a subject of real relevance and it would be great to hear about your work. Good luck.

best,
Sam

Appendix D.4: Turnover Intention Instrument

Yes please feel free to use the scale - best of luck with your research
kevin
E. Kevin Kelloway, PhD
Canada Research Chair in Occupational Health Psychology

President-Elect, Canadian Psychological Association

kevin.kelloway@smu.ca

Psychology Works….At Work
Appendix D.5: Index of Ethnic Community Involvement (IEI)

Teresa Menzies <TMenzies@brocku.ca>  May 28

to me

Hi Rebecca, When you use these items you could say it is the EI - “Adapted” or shortform format of the Index.

Best Wishes and I hope to see you in Jan-August 2016.

Teresa

Teresa V. Menzies, Ph.D., Professor
Dept. Organizational Behaviour, Human Resource Management, Entrepreneurship, Ethics
Goodman School of Business | Brock University
Niagara Region | 500 Glenridge Ave. | St. Catharines, ON L2S 3A1
brocku.ca | T 905 688 5550 x4118 | F 905 641 8068 I
tmenzies@brocku.ca

Fellow, Dobson Centre for Entrepreneurial Studies, McGill University
Former President CCSBE/CCPME
Appendix E: Participant Information Sheet for DBA Research

Participant Information Sheet for DBA Research

Dear participants

I am currently conducting my doctoral thesis project to fulfill the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration at the University of Liverpool and it is my pleasure to invite you to participate in my research study.

It is essential for you to understand the purpose of the research and procedure and your right as a participant before deciding to participate or not. Please take your time to read the following information carefully and feel free to ask any question if there is anything that you do not understand and/or if you need require further information. I would like to emphasize that your participation in this project is completely voluntary.

The Purpose of the Study
The objective of this study is to find and develop an effective leadership style that may help promote employee job satisfaction and reduce employee turnover in the context of Asian ethnic enterprises. High employee turnover is prevalent problem in many Asian ethnic enterprises operating in New Zealand, which reduce its productivity and competitiveness accordingly. Among many intervention measures to tackle this problem, developing an effective leadership has been suggested as one of very cost-effective and feasible solution to Asian companies that operate with limited resource and capital.

Why have you been chosen to take part?
I approached to the representative(s) of your company first to explain the research purpose, and gained the permission to conduct a research on the company. As a valuable member of the company, your opinion and thought is very important to understand the effect of different leadership styles on employee job satisfaction and turnover.

Do you have to take part?
No. Your participation is completely voluntary. Although we agree to participate in the research, you still have the right to withdraw from the research study anytime without need to provide any explanation and without incurring any disadvantage, which is clearly mentioned in the consent form (for the interview and focus group participants only).
What will happen if you take part?
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to participate in either or both surveys, interviews or/and focus group meetings. Your participation is valuable to find and develop effective leadership styles to address chronic and inherent problem of employee turnover in Asian ethnic enterprises in New Zealand. Your input may provide information that could become part of the solution.

For survey questionnaires, you will receive either a link through to your email to complete it or in a pen and paper form depending on your preference. You may need to spend around 15 minutes to complete Survey questionnaire. To those who wish to participate in interviews or focus group meeting, you may need to expect to spend another 15-20 minutes each. In these meetings, you are encouraged to provide your opinions, thought and views and you are welcome to provide your opinions at anytime throughout the study which is expected to last for 10 months from the date of your participation. The exactly same format of researches may be administered again to those who agree to after 1-3 months after your involvement.

During the interviews and focus group meetings, I may make audio recording for transcription, which I will make you aware of it before taking a recording. For the confidentiality of the participants in these meetings, I will not ask your name, age, or any other information that may help me decode your identity. In addition, a voice distortion option is available when recording for those who wish to conceal their identification further. Interviews and focus group meetings will be held at a venue(s) that is quite, private place, and will gain a permission of your managers if they will be conducted in your work sites. The venue, date and time will be decided based on your availability and convenience.

I may use some of comments made by some of you during the research in my written and oral research reports. I may paraphrase quotes or modify information in order to keep anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents if necessary.

Expenses / payments
There are no expenses or payments that will be required of you. To express my appreciation for the time spent for participating in the survey, interviews and focus group meetings, a small token of appreciation may be presented.

Are there any risks in taking part?
There are no foreseeable risks for any of the participants in this project. If you feel any discomfort at any point you are welcome to discontinue completing a survey or end an interview and/or focus group at any time.

No confidential information will be asked from you unless you would like to freely provide which will be retained confidential. It shall not be directly used in the research; instead, it may be used to help in guiding the research. In addition, No identity will not be revealed in the research, unless explicitly agreed by the participant. All information and data collected will be anonymised and will be kept securely for the required period.
Are there any benefits in taking part?
There is no direct benefit to you anticipated from participating in this study. However, it is hoped that the information gained from the study will help benefit you to have better insight on the issues being faced around the current excessively high employee turnover at personal level, and raise competitiveness of Asian ethnic enterprises that operate businesses in a limited resource at organisational level.

What will happen if I want to stop taking part?
You are free to withdraw from this research at any time without explanation. Results up to the period of withdrawal may be used if you agree to do so. Otherwise, you may request me to destroy them, and then no further use is made of them. Results may however only be withdrawn before anonymisation.

What if you are unhappy or if there is a problem?
If you are not happy, or if there is a concern, please feel free to contact me any time by my email Rebecca.sun.kim@gmail.com or +64 27-290-2808. If you are still unhappy or have a complaint which you feel you cannot come to me, then you should contact the Research Governance Officer at ethics@liv.ac.uk or Research Participant Advocate on phone by dialling +1-612-312-1210 or email address liverpoolethics@ online.liverpool.ac.uk. When contacting the Research Governance Officer or Research Participant Advocate, please provide details of the name or description of the study (so that it can be identified), the researcher(s) involved, and the details of the complaint you wish to make.

Will my participation be kept confidential?
All collected data from your participation will be kept confidential, and will be store securely as possible. To minimize the risks to confidentiality, all data will be anonymised and a voice distortion option will be offered to interview and focus group participants, so the data will not be identifiable from the results unless they have consented to being so. If the need arises to reveal any identity, explicit written approval from the concerned participant shall be obtained (formal request that will clearly show the agreement in writing of the participant to use his/her identity).

What will happen to the results of the study?
The results of the study project will be utilized to improve the employee turnover problems for the company as well as may suggest a solution to tackle high employee turnover to other similar industry. The final outcome will be available as a thesis document posted in the public domain.

Who can I contact if I have further questions?
Please feel free to contact me directly via email Rebecca.sun.kim@gmail.com or at mobile phone, +64-27-290-2808.

Thank you very much!
**Appendix F: Participant Consent Form**

**Committee on Research Ethics**

---

**PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM**

**Title of Research Project:**
Mixed Methods Action Research: Intervention measure to reduce employee turnover intention and promote employee job satisfaction in Asian ethnic enterprises in New Zealand

**Researcher(s):** Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim

---

1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the information sheet dated 12 October 2015 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

---

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my rights being affected. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.

---

3. I understand that, under the Data Protection Act, I can at any time ask for access to the information I provide and I can also request the destruction of that information if I wish.

---

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Name (참여자 성함)</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Signature (서명)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim</td>
<td>12 Oct 2015</td>
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<th>Name of Person taking consent (동의요청자 성명)</th>
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<td>Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim</td>
<td>12 Oct 2015</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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**Principal Investigator:**
Name: Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim  
Work Address: 2/13 Omahu Rd, Remuera, Auckland, New Zealand  
Work Telephone: 64-9-520-6727  
Work Email: Rebecca.sun.kim@gmail.com

**Student Researcher:**
Name: Sunmi (Rebecca) Kim  
Work Address: 2/13 Omahu Rd, Remuera, Auckland, New Zealand  
Work Telephone: 64-9-520-6727  
Work Email: Rebecca.sun.kim@gmail.com

Version 2.1  
Oct 2015
Appendix G: Interview Questions for ABC’s Employees

Interview Questions for Employees

I. Leadership behaviours
   1. How would you characterize the leadership styles of your company head (The way he get people to follow him)
   2. What aspects of his leadership do you like the most? Why?
   3. What aspects of his leadership do you like the least? Why?
   4. What describe the leadership of the owner/head of the company the most in the following statements.
      - Directive
      - Supportive
      - Participative
      - Transactional
      - Transformational

   5. If you could change one thing about your leader’s behaviours, what would it be?
   6. How do you like to introduce your leader to new hire at the company?
   6. Any additional information would you like to add?

II. Job Satisfaction
   1. How would you describe your working relationship with owner of your company head?
   2. What aspect of your jobs do you like the most in your work? Why?
   3. What aspect of your jobs do you like the least in your work? Why?
   4. What aspect of your company head’s leadership behaviours have the most impact on your job satisfaction?
   5. What do you think the company could do to improve your job satisfaction?
   6. Any additional information would you like to add?

III. Turnover intention
   7. Do you ever think of leaving the company? How long have you been thinking? How often do you think of leaving?
   8. What would be the main reasons for you to think of leaving?
   9. What company can do to retain you?
   10. What additional information would you like to add?
Appendix H: Scatter Plots

Univariate Scatter plots (Turnover Intention)
Univariate Scatter plots (Job Satisfaction)
Multi-variate Scatter plots

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: Part2 Mean

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: Part3 Mean
Appendix I: Interview outcomes – Thematic Matrix (Sample)

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<th>Leadership cycle of our company</th>
<th>Me the way</th>
<th>Me the person</th>
<th>What describes the leadership</th>
<th>Change one thing about your leader</th>
<th>Additional information</th>
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Notes:

- 1. Increased self-awareness.
- 2. Improved communication skills.
- 3. Enhanced collaborative abilities.
- 4. Strengthened decision-making process.
- 5. Improved performance metrics.
- 6. Enhanced team cohesion.
- 7. Strengthened strategic planning.
- 8. Improved customer satisfaction.

Voluntary Employee Turnover Decision path #1, #2, #4

FIGURE 2
Decision Paths #1, #2, and #4

Voluntary Employee Turnover Decision path #3.

FIGURE 3
Decision Path #3


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