

UWTSD University

Dissertation

Assessment of the Demand Situation of
Employees' Motivational Factors in The
Catering Industry—Take Haidilao as The
Research Subject

Ziqian Huang
Student ID:2304510

27th September 2024

Submitted to the University of Wales in partial fulfillment for the degree of Master of
Business Administration *University of Wales Trinity Saint David*

2024

Abstract

The competition between businesses ultimately boils down to a competition for talent (Cooper and Florida, 2005). To attract and retain excellent employees, it is essential to establish a scientifically sound and reasonable incentive mechanism, which can inspire employees' enthusiasm and creativity in their work.

The catering industry has long faced the challenge of high employee turnover due to the demanding nature of the job. Consequently, stabilising the workforce and enhancing employee loyalty has become a common issue for catering enterprises. Haidilao, established in 1994, is a large cross-province, directly operated catering company that integrates Sichuan-style hotpot with local hotpot characteristics. Its operational network covers over 100 cities across China, with branches in the UK, South Korea, Japan, Singapore, and the US. In September 2018, it was listed on the Hong Kong Stock Exchange, becoming a household name in China catering industry.

Based on a theoretical overview, this paper takes Haidilao as a case study to examine the extent to which different types of employees in the catering industry require various motivational factors. explores the key factors that influence Haidilao employees, including both financial and non-financial incentives, with a focus on analysing the impact of variables such as age, marital status, gender, and educational background. Through a comprehensive survey of 200 Haidilao employees, this study identifies trends in employee needs across different demographic characteristics. The results show that financial incentives and job security are generally important, while the emphasis on factors such as career development, work-life balance, and management support vary according to demographic characteristics. This research provides new insights into understanding employee motivation in the catering industry and offers recommendations for improving employee satisfaction and performance, ultimately aiding in the development of effective incentive systems.

Content

UWTSD University Dissertation	0
Abstract.....	1
1. Introduction	4
1.1 Research Background	4
1.2 Rationale for the study.....	6
1.3 Aims and Objectives.....	7
2. literature review.....	9
2.1 Motivation.....	9
2.2 Characteristics of motivation	10
2.3 Process of motivation	11
2.4 Models of motivation.....	12
2.4.1 Assumptions of Motivation Theory.....	12
2.4.2 Hierarchy of Needs Theory.....	13
2.4.3 ERG Theory	15
2.4.4 Two-Factor Theory.....	17
2.4.5 Self-Determination Theory.....	18
2.5.6 ABC Theory	19
3. Methodology.....	21
3.1 Research Paradigm	21
3.1.1 Epistemological & Phenomenological.....	21
3.1.2 positivism.....	22
3.2 Research Method	23
3.3 Advantages Vs Disadvantages.....	24
3.4 Disadvantages of methods rejected	27
3.5 Questionnaire Design	28
3.6 Sample	30
3.6 Ethical	30

3.7 Sending the questionnaire to respondents	31
3.8 Research Quality	31
3.9 Analysis	32
3.10 Limitations of study	32
4. Analysis of Results	34
4.1 Analysis of Results	34
4.2 Personal demographic characteristics	34
4.4 Overall Data Analysis	36
4.5 Analysis of the differences in the demand status of employee motivation factors	39
4.5.1 Different age groups	41
4.5.2 Different Marital Status	44
4.5.3 Gender-Specific	48
4.5.4 Different Educational Status	51
4.6 Comprehensive analysis	54
5. Conclusion and Recommendation	57
5.1 Conclusion	57
5.2 Recommendation	58
5.2.1 Establishing a Unified and Scientific Incentive System	58
5.2.2 Establishing a Differentiated Incentive Model	58
5.2.3 Incentive models should be more diversified	59
Bibliography	61
Appendix 1	84

1. Introduction

1.1 Research Background

The restaurant industry, as a labour-intensive sector, is characterised by low entry barriers and relatively simple working conditions. Most of the workers in this industry have low educational qualifications, and a portion of them are first-time job seekers with no prior experience or part-time university students. Consequently, restaurant companies generally have low requirements for educational background and work experience when recruiting employees (Mohamad et al., 2020). Although wages and benefits in the restaurant industry have improved in recent years, meeting the basic survival needs of employees, the industry still faces unique motivation challenges (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2023).

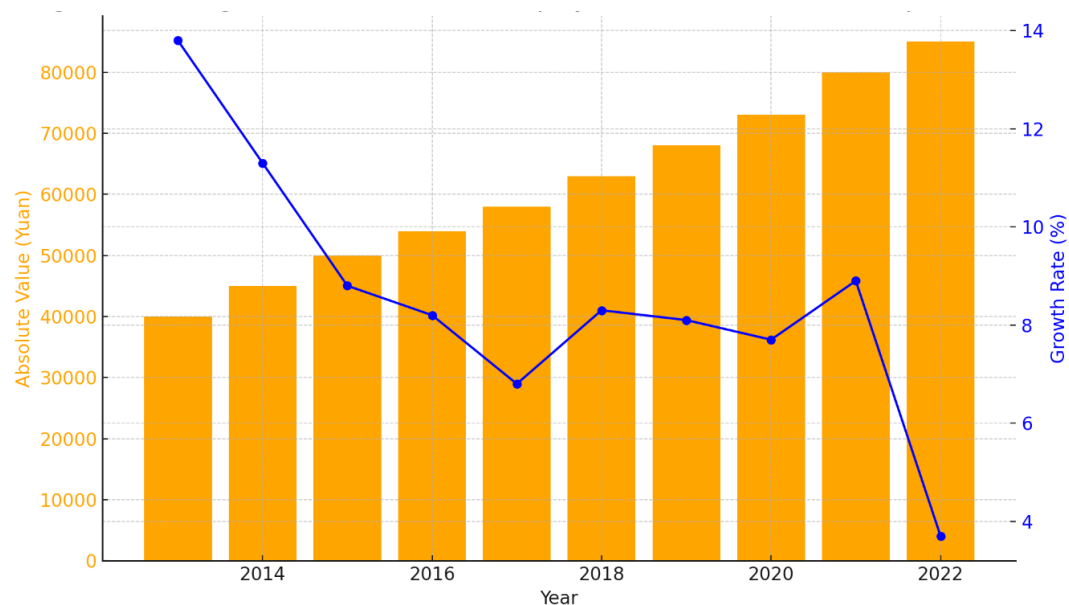


Figure 1.1 Average China Annual Wage in Urban Private Enterprises (2013-2022)

Firstly, According to Maslov's hierarchy of needs, after addressing basic survival needs, the motivational needs of employees in the restaurant industry become increasingly important (Upadhyaya, 2015). However, due to the level of industry development and external environmental constraints, companies often fail to adequately meet higher-level needs, resulting in limited opportunities for non-monetary incentives. This situation not only suppresses employee enthusiasm but also hinders the development of both the enterprise and the industry as a whole. Additionally, the restaurant industry widely adopts

standardized production and service processes. While this model ensures consistent quality, it also limits employee innovation, making it difficult for them to provide personalized services based on customer needs, leading to serious homogenization issues across the industry (Zeng, Go, & de Vries, 2012).

Secondly, restaurant industry employees, particularly waitstaff and kitchen workers, face high-intensity work environments, including long hours of standing, intensive customer interactions, and rapidly changing job demands. Employees need strong stress management abilities and efficient communication skills to perform effectively (Liming, 2009). Since service is the core competency of the restaurant industry, employees must demonstrate a high level of enthusiasm, patience, and initiative in their work to ensure customer satisfaction. However, existing incentive mechanisms often fall short of fully mobilizing employees' enthusiasm and service passion, which directly affects customer experience and the company's image.

Against this industry backdrop, the Haidilao brand, established in 1994, has grown to become one of the most well-known restaurant companies in China, primarily operating Sichuan-style hotpot. Over more than two decades of development, Haidilao International Holding Ltd. has opened 1,463 restaurants worldwide, with 1,349 located in mainland China and 114 spread across countries such as Singapore, the UK, South Korea, Japan, the US, Canada, and others (Blazyte, 2023). As a leader in the restaurant industry, Haidilao is renowned for its unique customer service experience, consistently focusing on customer needs and innovating to provide a delightful dining experience. The personalized services offered in its restaurants, including Sichuan-style face-changing performances, free manicure services for female customers, and photo printing services for group diners, all stem from employee creativity (Lau, 2023).

Haidilao's success is not only reflected in its high-quality products and services but also in its emphasis on employee motivation systems. Employees are the core force behind the company's excellent service delivery, and how to inspire employee enthusiasm and improve performance has long been a key focus for Haidilao. Therefore, this study will take Haidilao as the research subject to explore its methods and strategies for motivating employees, understand employee satisfaction with the company's incentive policies, and examine the needs of different types of employees for various motivational factors, thereby providing guidance for the development of employee incentive systems in the restaurant industry.

1.2 Rationale for the study

In recent years, the issue of employee motivation in the restaurant industry has become a focal point for both academics and practitioners. Numerous studies have explored the impact of compensation policies, work environments, and various incentive methods on employee motivation and performance. None Sari Fitri et al. (2024), through literature review and case analysis, found that fair and competitive compensation schemes play a crucial role in attracting and retaining skilled employees in the restaurant industry. The study also pointed out that non-financial benefits are an important component of compensation schemes and can have a significant impact on employee retention. While direct financial incentives are undoubtedly important, non-economic benefits such as job satisfaction and employee engagement often significantly enhance employees' overall well-being.

At the same time, it has also been shown that when the basic needs of employees are satisfied, the further satisfaction of basic psychological needs such as autonomy, competence, and relatedness can increase the work enthusiasm of employees.

The work environment, as a key factor affecting employee satisfaction, has also received widespread attention. Antoniadou, Vlastos, and Paraskevi Theofilou (2024) studied the impact of work environment incentives on employee satisfaction in the restaurant industry and found a certain relationship between the work environment and employee satisfaction, particularly noting that age has a significant impact on job satisfaction. The study showed that older employees tend to exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction, which aligns with the findings of Seema (2022), who concluded that employees with higher satisfaction levels usually demonstrate better job performance.

Furthermore, Silud et al. (2024) pointed out that a good work environment, such as being equipped with appropriate facilities, modern technology, and efficient equipment, can significantly enhance employee job satisfaction and fulfillment. The research established a significant positive correlation between motivation and the work environment, as well as between motivation and performance, emphasizing the importance of a supportive work environment and high levels of motivation for employee productivity and performance.

Regarding the impact of incentive methods on employee performance, Paul (2024) found that employee motivation is a key factor in organizational growth.

Incentive programs, whether monetary or non-monetary, can significantly boost employee productivity and encourage long-term employee retention. The study indicated that appropriate incentives could increase employee retention by 66% and improve performance by 44%.

In exploring the impact of monetary versus non-monetary incentives on employee motivation, Sorauren (2000) noted that while monetary incentives are effective in certain situations, they do not enhance employees' connection to the organization. In contrast, non-monetary incentives can stimulate employees' intrinsic motivation by making work more interesting and meaningful. Experimental research by Erkal, Gangadharan, and Koh (2018) further supported this view, showing that non-monetary incentives can also inspire high levels of effort in actual work tasks. However, the study also suggested that when the experimental design reduces the impact of non-monetary incentives, monetary incentives can significantly increase participants' effort levels.

Although there have been studies that have attempted to assess the research on different motivational approaches in terms of employee performance or job satisfaction, it can be argued that the existing research is limited as it focuses on examining the impact of motivational approaches on employee behaviour, but there is a lack of research related to the need for motivation from the employee's point of view. Therefore, this study will mainly focus on examining the extent to which different types of employees need different motivational factors.

1.3 Aims and Objectives

Aim

This study will focus on Haidilao as the subject of research, aiming to first determine the overall level of need for various motivational factors among Haidilao employees. It will then explore and analyse the differences in motivational needs across different types of employees. Based on the research findings, relevant recommendations will be provided. These recommendations are expected to offer guidance in the development of employee motivation systems within the restaurant industry.

Objectives

1. To ensure that this study aligns with real-world conditions, the overall goal will be achieved through the following objectives:
2. Analyse the differences in motivational needs among employees of different age groups
3. Analyse the impact of marital status on employees' motivational needs
4. Analyse the differences in motivational needs between male and female employees
5. Analyse the differences in motivational needs based on employees' educational backgrounds
6. Provide recommendations on the practical application of the survey results

2. literature review

2.1 Motivation

Motivation fundamentally serves as a psychological term that includes various forces designed to propel individuals into action, predominantly categorised into extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (Weiner, 2001). Extrinsic motivation arises from rewards or punishments external to the individual. These motivators usually relate to the completion of specific tasks or achieving certain standards, such as monetary rewards, promotions, praise, or conversely, punishments and criticism. On the one hand, Lepper, Henderlong and Gingras (1999) argue that extrinsic motivation drives individual behaviour through external rewards and is effective in improving employee performance in the short term. However, on the other hand, Nwannebuife et al. (2020) criticised that long-term reliance on extrinsic incentives may weaken an individual's intrinsic motivation as employees gradually lose interest in the task itself and instead become more reliant on external rewards, whereas intrinsic motivation stems from an individual's internal interest or pleasure and is not dependent on external rewards. This motivation is active when individuals engage in an activity purely because it is satisfying or enjoyable.

According to Al-Khaled (2014), motivation in human resource management plays a crucial role in the sustainable development of organisations. Further scholarly work in the realm of human resources has aimed at defining the essence of motivation, suggesting that "motivation generally refers to the internal rules that lead to changes in employee behaviour, essentially used to guide, stimulate, correct, and reinforce various human behaviours, representing a sum of corresponding activities. Motivating people effectively mobilises their work enthusiasm, ensuring alignment between individual actions and organisational goals" (Tohidi and Jabbari, 2012).

Increasingly, individuals recognise that humans are the most crucial resource within an enterprise (Wilford, 2022). With the rapid development of science and technology and the growing importance of information, the role of individuals in enterprises has become more significant. Recognition of work behaviours, performances, and results through evaluations is referred to as job performance (J., Opatha, and M. D., 2017). On the one hand, Job performance is mainly influenced by four factors: Ability, Motivation, Opportunity, and Environment. According to Diamantidis and Chatzoglou (2019) and Jasiyah (2018), ability

refers to job skills and capability levels influenced by factors such as physique, intelligence, education, and experience, which can be improved through training in the workplace but are difficult to change significantly in the short term. Moreover, even individuals with similar abilities can demonstrate vastly different performances. Opportunity is largely unpredictable and is the least controllable factor; relying on opportunities to enhance performance is unrealistic. On the other hand, Environment includes external elements like political, economic, technological, and natural factors that are beyond a company's control, as well as internal factors such as work conditions, corporate culture, and organisational structure (Menguc, Auh, and Ozanne, 2019). Although these factors significantly impact job performance, there are considerable differences in performance under the same environmental conditions, and changing these factors can be challenging. Motivation is the most directly effective factor; it can create a conducive work environment that allows employees to fully utilise their potential and work hard. Neglecting or mismanaging motivation can lead to even capable employees not fully committing to their work, regardless of the favourable environment or rare opportunities, thus failing to achieve good performance (QUADRI, 2022). Therefore, motivation is an extremely important factor, making research and improvement on motivation highly significant.

2.2 Characteristics of motivation

Since humans are the primary subjects of motivation, certain inherent characteristics of humans significantly shape the fundamental properties of motivation, such as systematicity, sociality, transience, limitation, and credibility.

Firstly, systematicity is crucial. The targets of motivation encompass both high and middle-level management as well as grassroots employees. The absence of any level could undermine the effectiveness of motivational efforts. Given that motivation involves high, middle, and low levels within an organization, it essentially represents a systematic engineering effort that includes the necessary foundations to ensure the successful implementation of motivational measures (Chen and Kanfer, 2006).

Secondly, sociality plays a significant role. Since individuals cannot exist independently of society, organisations must meet not only their material needs but also their psychological needs (Rocha and Pinheiro, 2020). Effective motivational measures should integrate both material and psychological incentives. In practice, the cost of material incentives usually surpasses that of

psychological incentives (Singer, Van Hoewyk, and Maher, 2000). Therefore, by fully understanding and utilising the social characteristics of humans, organizations can achieve better motivational outcomes at minimal costs.

Thirdly, motivation is characterized by its transience. The efficacy of motivational measures tends to decay over time and can be rapidly influenced by external events, which may accelerate this decay (Sullivan et al., 2022).

Fourthly, the effectiveness of motivation is limited. For an organization to maintain healthy, stable development, a certain degree of personnel turnover is normal and necessary. High-cost motivation to retain exceptionally capable individuals is often unjustifiable. The limitations of motivation are primarily determined by the balance between the costs and benefits of motivational efforts (K. Sandhya and D. Pradeep Kumar, 2011). Thus, organizations must prepare for potential talent losses due to excessive motivational costs by fostering a robust talent pipeline.

Lastly, credibility is essential in the motivational process. Organizations must first make promises to employees, then proceed with motivational measures based on circumstances, and ultimately fulfill these promises. Maintaining credibility and honoring commitments are crucial for achieving motivational outcomes; failure to do so can not only diminish the effects of motivation but may also produce adverse results (Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe, 2004).

2.3 Process of motivation

According to Tereshchenko, Frankiv and Khudoliy (2021), when employees develop a certain need that is not met, they experience a psychological state of unease and tension, known as a state of motivation. In this state of unease and tension, employees become motivated to fulfill this need. Under the influence of this motivation, employees will take corresponding actions to achieve the goal of satisfying their need. Once the need is met, the previous tension and unease dissipate, and the state of motivation is relieved. However, employee needs are complex and multifaceted, so new needs will arise. These new needs, in turn, drive the occurrence of corresponding motivations and behaviours. This cyclical process repeats itself, and this continuous loop is what constitutes the motivation process. This process can be described by the model shown in Figure 2.1.

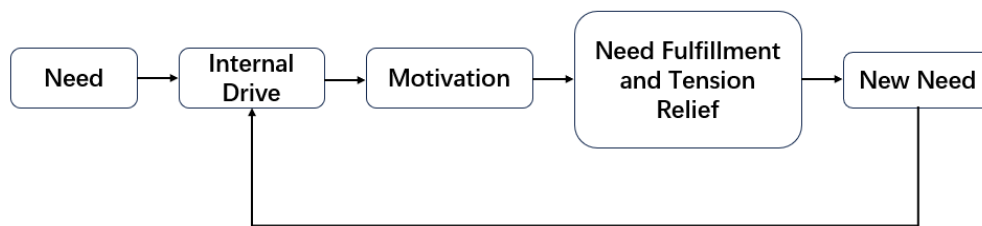


Figure 2.1 Motivation Generation Process Model

2.4 Models of motivation

2.4.1 Assumptions of Motivation Theory

The assumption underlying motivation theories, which is the assumption about human nature, can be broadly divided into three categories: "Economic Man," "Social Man," and "Goal-Oriented Man." In the view of scholars studying motivation theories, these three types of human beings have different preferences, and the motivational measures used for them also vary.

The assumption of "Economic Man" is mentioned in Taylor's scientific management theory. Taylor believed that individuals are inherently lazy, and avoiding work is a natural inclination. Taylor, who focused his research on workers, proposed that only money could motivate workers to be proactive. The "differential piece-rate system" introduced by Taylor is a typical measure of motivation through money. Under this incentive scheme, workers earn more by working more, entirely pursuing the maximization of economic benefits. Additionally, under the assumption of "Economic Man," individuals must be supervised to complete their work, and leaders must use scientific and rigorous punitive measures as the primary management tool without paying attention to the role of individuals (Wagner-Tsukamoto, 2007).

The assumption of "Social Man" was proposed by George Elton Mayo in 1945. Mayo's Hawthorne experiments, which were based on scientific management theory, revealed that good interpersonal relationships played a positive role in the workplace. Mayo believed that the best way to motivate employees was to praise them and improve their living standards, with economic incentives being of secondary importance. The "Economic Man" assumption, which neglects the role of individuals, was deemed erroneous by Mayo, who argued that leaders should pay attention to the role of individuals (Hsueh, 2002). Following the "Social Man" assumption, many scholars began to explore what individuals truly

need. Motivational methods were no longer limited to external rewards; intrinsic rewards could also effectively stimulate employees. Research based on the "Social Man" assumption broadened the scope of motivation theory. More importantly, since the Hawthorne experiments, research on motivation theory has refocused on the fundamental aspect of "human nature" (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

The assumption of "Goal-Oriented Man" is a hypothesis about human nature in the new era, suggesting that individuals are essentially conscious, organized, and concept-seeking beings. Purposefulness is regarded as the basic characteristic of behaviour. Individuals continuously activate new goals after completing one, and the accomplishment of these goals brings satisfaction. This motivation does not come from the organization or leaders but from the individual's self-recognition. However, the organization and leaders must provide the necessary conditions. Therefore, motivation theories based on the "Goal-Oriented Man" assumption not only emphasise the role of individuals but also their significance, placing higher demands on organizations and leaders in building motivational systems. The "Goal-Oriented Man" assumption lays a new foundation for comprehensive motivation theory research (Chen, Elliot, and Sheldon, 2019).

These three types of human nature assumptions were proposed in different social contexts, each representing only a part of human nature. The proposal of the "Economic Man" assumption did not disappear with the emergence of the "Social Man" assumption, as some scholars still base their motivation research on the "Economic Man" assumption, such as reinforcement motivation theory (Anselme and Robinson, 2019). Taylor's "differential piece-rate system" remains one of the methods for calculating labor compensation today, demonstrating that although scientific management theory downplays the role of individuals, it still complements other motivation theories in practical management. Therefore, in specific research, it is necessary to organically combine the assumptions of "Economic Man," "Social Man," and "Goal-Oriented Man" based on the characteristics of the research subjects.

2.4.2 Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, initially proposed by the American psychologist Abraham Maslow, stands as one of the most influential motivational theories

impacting various fields globally. This theory categorizes human needs into five primary levels, arranged from basic to more complex needs.

The foundational level comprises physiological needs, including essential requirements such as food, water, air, shelter, and other bodily needs. These are fundamental for survival and must be satisfied first before other needs can be pursued (Satter, 2007). In a workplace context, motivating employees begins with addressing these basic physiological needs, either directly through the nature of the job—including work intensity, hours, and environment—or indirectly through compensation providing the means to satisfy these needs (Ahmed, 2011).

The second level addresses safety needs, encompassing protection from physical and psychological harm. This includes desires for health, job security, and a safe environment free from disasters, providing a foundation for peace of mind at work (Legg et al., 2015). To motivate employees effectively, it is crucial to address their concerns related to safety, such as labor protection, unemployment, personal safety, and financial security. Motivational strategies here might include increasing job security or introducing competitive incentives to highlight the risks of job loss (Fischmann et al., 2018).

Social needs, or belongingness needs, represent the third level. These needs involve desires for affection, acceptance, and interaction with family, friends, colleagues, and groups. Workplaces serve not only as places of employment but also social settings where employees can fulfill these social and emotional needs (Haslam, Powell, and Turner, 2000). Motivating employees in this regard could involve enhancing team spirit, fairness in the workplace, or fostering informal social controls (Taormina, 2009).

The fourth level comprises esteem needs, which include both internal factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement, and external factors like status, recognition, and attention (NG, 2015). When these needs are activated, they can generate enduring enthusiasm for work (Decker and Van Quaquebeke, 2014).

Self-actualization needs, at the pinnacle of Maslow's hierarchy, relate to achieving one's potential and engaging in activities that fulfill one's capabilities. Stimulating these needs involves designing jobs that are enriching, challenging, and autonomous, offering training and development opportunities, and setting challenging yet attainable goals (Glaser et al., 2017).

Maslow also emphasized several key interrelations among these needs: Firstly, the needs are structured hierarchically, from physiological at the base to self-actualization at the top. Secondly, once basic needs are minimally met, individuals pursue higher-level needs. The application of Maslow's theory across various stages of employee career development highlights that satisfaction of lower-level needs (such as physiological and safety needs) is crucial before higher-level needs (such as social, esteem, and self-actualization needs) can be pursued (Singh and Behera, 2016). Thirdly, multiple needs coexist, with one typically dominating at any given time, influencing behavior. In a work setting, managers should focus on identifying and addressing these dominant needs to effectively motivate employees (Upadhyaya, 2014). Fourthly, lower-level needs do not disappear as higher-level needs are developed; their influence simply diminishes. Lastly, unsatisfied needs motivate while satisfied needs only provide contentment (Benson and Dundis, 2003). Managers should therefore concentrate on identifying and fulfilling unmet needs to maximize motivation at work.



Figure 2.2 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

2.4.3 ERG Theory

Although Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory has been widely influential in motivation research, it has been criticised because it assumes that the hierarchy of needs is fixed. In reality, different cultural backgrounds and individual differences may result in a hierarchy of needs that does not follow a

fixed order (Cheng-Liang Yang, 2011). Alderfer's ERG theory, on the other hand, breaks through this limitation by suggesting that a variety of needs can co-exist, which provides more flexibility in the practical application of motivational models (Bilal, Jangir, & Bhakar, 2014)

The primary difference between this theory and Maslow's hierarchy of needs lies in the fact that "existence needs" refer to the material needs that satisfy people's daily life requirements, which include the physiological and safety needs in Maslow's hierarchy. In daily life, these are manifested in the needs for clothing, food, housing, transportation, and other basic survival needs. On the other hand, "relatedness needs" refer to the need for people to connect, communicate, and interact with others in life. To achieve these goals, individuals must maintain certain interpersonal relationships, corresponding to Maslow's needs for love, belonging, and esteem. This implies that employees within an organization hope to have harmonious relationships with supervisors, colleagues, and others, characterized by mutual understanding and respect. Lastly, the "growth needs" in Alderfer's ERG theory correspond to the need for personal development and progress within an organization, which is primarily related to Maslow's concept of esteem needs (Bilal, Jangir, & Bhakar, 2014).

Alderfer's ERG theory of existence, relatedness, and growth needs replaced Maslow's five levels of needs, offering a more practically applicable interpretation of needs based on Maslow's foundational work. While Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is considered a general principle with universal applicability, the ERG theory places more emphasis on individual differences. It does not follow a rigid hierarchical progression, meaning that higher-level needs can arise even before lower-level needs are fully satisfied (Cheng-Liang Yang, 2011). The ERG theory posits that multiple needs can simultaneously act as motivators, with existence, relatedness, and growth needs potentially all being active at the same time (Yin & Zeng, 2020). Additionally, the ERG theory introduces the concept of "frustration-regression," where an individual, when frustrated in pursuing higher-level needs, may intensify their focus on lower-level needs. Since multiple needs can simultaneously act as motivators, to avoid the "frustration-regression" phenomenon within an organization, leaders must adapt their management strategies to the changing needs of employees. This helps prevent employees from regressing to lower-level needs when their pursuit of higher-level needs is frustrated (Chen et al., 2023).

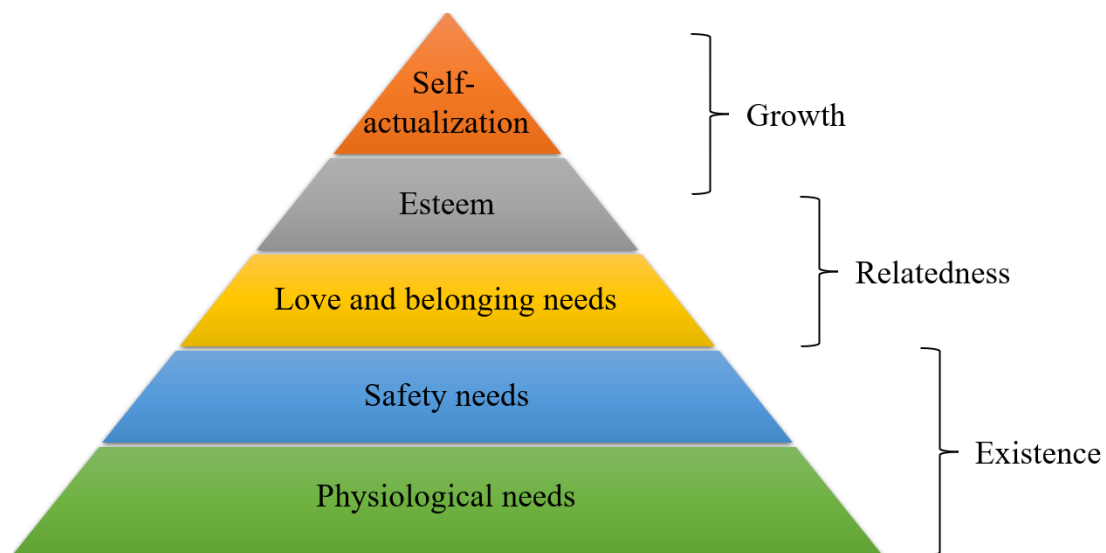


Figure 2.3 ERG Theory of Motivation

2.4.4 Two-Factor Theory

Another very well-known and widely accepted model of motivation is Two-Factor Theory. In the late 1950s, American psychologist Frederick Herzberg proposed the Two-Factor Theory following a survey conducted at the Pittsburgh Psychoanalytic Institute. The survey involved 200 engineers and accountants from 11 different industrial and commercial institutions in the region. Participants were asked to describe incidents that resulted in either satisfaction or dissatisfaction at work. The responses were meticulously categorized and analyzed to distinguish between satisfiers and dissatisfiers, leading Herzberg to identify two primary types of factors: hygiene factors and motivators (Herzberg, 1959).

Hygiene factors are those that can lead to dissatisfaction if absent but do not necessarily motivate when improved (Maidani, 1991). These factors have a preventative and maintenance role in keeping an individual's enthusiasm for work and include aspects such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations with peers and subordinates, work conditions, salary, personal life, status, and job security (Byrne, 2006). The primary purpose of addressing hygiene factors within an organization is to eliminate dissatisfaction and prevent its emergence, thereby setting a fundamental baseline that indirectly motivates employees. This is akin to creating a clean, disease-free environment which, while it does not guarantee health, provides a conducive setting for it.

Motivators, on the other hand, are factors that can lead to job satisfaction and are intrinsic to the work itself, stimulating an individual's engagement and maximizing personal capabilities. These factors relate directly to the characteristics of the job and include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and personal growth (Smerek and Peterson, 2006; Alrawahi et al., 2020; Yousaf, 2019). Motivational methods related to these factors aim to elevate job satisfaction and directly motivate employees, similar to how a healthy lifestyle complemented by exercise and nutritious food enhances physical health.

Herzberg also challenged the traditional view that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are opposites, suggesting instead that the opposite of dissatisfaction is the absence of dissatisfaction and the opposite of satisfaction is the absence of satisfaction (SERGIOVANNI, 1967). Thus, hygiene factors transform dissatisfaction into a neutral state, addressing basic physiological and psychological needs; motivators, conversely, transform a neutral state into satisfaction, stimulating higher-level needs. The Two-Factor Theory provides a framework for treating these categories separately, which is beneficial for crafting differentiated motivational policies and analyzing the impact of various events within organizational settings.

2.4.5 Self-Determination Theory

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) was formally introduced in the 1980s by American psychologists Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan among others. This motivational process theory posits that humans are proactive organisms with inherent potential for psychological growth and development. Self-determination refers to the potential for making choices about one's experiences, predicated on a thorough understanding of personal needs and environmental information (Deci and Ryan, 2017). SDT has since been widely applied across disciplines such as psychology, management, and business.

According to Ryan and Deci (2017), SDT comprises five sub-theories: Basic Psychological Needs Theory, Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Organismic Integration Theory, Causality Orientation Theory, and Goal Content Theory. The Basic Psychological Needs Theory elucidates the three fundamental psychological needs of humans and their relationship to subjective well-being. Cognitive Evaluation Theory discusses how social environmental factors influence intrinsic motivation. Organismic Integration Theory explores the types

and conditions for the internalization of extrinsic motivations. Causality Orientation Theory suggests that individuals have a developmental tendency to orient themselves towards environments that support self-determination. Goal Content Theory posits that intrinsic goals (e.g., community, intimacy, personal growth) satisfy more psychological needs compared to extrinsic goals (e.g., financial success, appearance, fame).

2.5.6 ABC Theory

The ABC Theory is a sub-theoretical framework within SDT that articulates the concept of psychological needs and their relationship with well-being. the ABC model not only takes into account the individual's autonomy, competence and sense of belonging, but also provides a dynamic and individualised approach to motivation. By fulfilling these three needs, organisations are able to find a balance between increasing employee job satisfaction and improving organisational performance (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). (Van den Broeck et al., 2016).

The ABC Model within BPNT highlights three core needs:

Autonomy: Autonomy refers to the capacity to make choices that align with one's true self, respecting individual will. The fulfillment of autonomy needs leads to a sense of autonomy, and scholars suggest that autonomous motivation can lead individuals to engage in activities of interest, enhancing personal capability and constituting an intrinsic motivational drive (Kusurkar, Croiset, and Ten Cate, 2011). Ryan and Deci (2000) state that autonomy needs highlight individuals' right to make their own choices regarding work-related matters, with chosen activities fulfilling their basic psychological needs.

Belongingness: In SDT, belongingness needs refer to the extent of connection an individual has with others in social interactions. The fulfillment of belongingness needs engenders a sense of connection with society (Nalipay, King, and Cai, 2020). According to Guo (2023), belongingness needs in learning contexts involve mutual care, support, collaboration, and understanding among peers. When these needs are met, individuals may develop a sense of identification with an organization, thereby enhancing their motivation at work. In this study, relatedness is defined as the feeling of connection employees gain through internal social activities or interactions with clients.

Competence: Competence needs refer to individuals' necessity to control their external environment and anticipate outcomes in activities, defined within SDT as the recognition of one's capabilities in activities, thus fostering a sense of competence (Levesque et al., 2004). For instance, when students effectively accomplish various segments of a learning activity or achieve their learning objectives, their competence needs are satisfied, leading to a sense of competence in their learning. In this paper, competence is defined as the positive feedback employees receive from clients after organisational training.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Paradigm

The focus of this study is on the status of motivational factor needs of employees in Haidilao. In addition, the purpose of this study aims to understand the direct relationship between different types of employees and different motivational factor needs. As mentioned in the introduction and literature review, there is now an increasing focus on motivational aspects of research across all industries, and considering this and its implications for the results and analysis of any subsequent primary data collection, it is vital to fully consider the research paradigm of this study (Rahman, 2023)

3.1.1 Epistemological & Phenomenological.

Objectivist methods are preferred when conducting research where the researcher needs to remain objective in analysing the results. This approach emphasises the distance between the researcher and the subject of the study to ensure that the process of observation and analysis is not interfered with by personal bias, which refers to the positivist paradigm in general (Park, Konge and Artino, 2020). Positivism is a product of foundationalism and empiricism, requiring the researcher to verify hypotheses through experience and logic to ensure the reliability and general applicability of findings (Blackwell, 2018).

Within this epistemological framework, the positivist paradigm emphasises the empirical analysis of social phenomena, i.e. the transformation of abstract theories into 'tangible social reality' through systematic observation, experimentation and data collection. This approach focuses not only on describing the phenomena, but also on revealing the underlying causal relationships and presenting them in the form of data through quantitative analyses (Chirkov and Anderson, 2018).

Another 'school of thought' is known as the phenomenological paradigm. Instead, this approach emphasizes the close connection between behaviour and its social and environmental context and focuses more on the understanding of human behaviour (Buriro, Ednut and Khatoon, 2021). Phenomenological approaches tend to explore and interpret findings in depth, aiming to reveal the reasons why people behave in certain ways in society,

rather than focusing on statistical data and other indicators as metrics for establishing and explaining these behaviours (Knaack, 1984).

The phenomenological paradigm, also known as epistemological interpretivism or social constructivism, is the main paradigm of phenomenological research. With the widespread use of qualitative research methods, phenomenology has shown a clear upward trend in the fields of business and management, and is especially prevalent in modern management research (Towers et al., 2020). This paradigm is more suited to in-depth information-gathering methods, such as in-depth interviews, participant observation and textual analyses, in order to gain a deep understanding of human experience and social phenomena (Smith and Osborn, 2008).

Considering the objectivity of the study and the information that needs to be ascertained throughout the study, this study will use the positivist paradigm as the logical method of data collection, which will be described in more detail below.

3.1.2 positivism

Positivism stems from the philosophical ontology of realism, which states that reality is real and knowable, and that things themselves have intrinsically fixed, repeatable patterns. Positivism assumes that people's behaviour is intrinsically linked and that they are clear about their motivations and meanings; if rigorous methods (e.g., construals, measurements, etc.) are adopted, the researcher can understand and make sense of the insider's behaviour and interpretation of meaning (Shah, 2021).

Auguste Comte, the founder of positivist philosophy, explicitly declared that the true spirit of positivism is far removed from mysticism, and also from empiricism. He argued that the Spirit of true philosophy could be described as the basic meaning of the term 'positivism' - a term that, after 'comprehensive cultivation over a period of nearly three hundred years, has increasingly led to the development of the term'. The full cultivation of the term over a period of nearly three hundred years has increasingly given it a valuable attribute that best summarizes its essential character.

Regarding the meaning of "positivism," Comte emphasized its opposition to concepts such as "illusory," "useless," "doubtful," "ambiguous," and "negative."

He defined its attributes as "real," "useful," "affirmative," "precise," and "just" (that is, "fair" or "relative," "objective," and "tolerant"). These attributes align with the essential qualities of science and logic.

Thus, on the basis of his rejection of all metaphysics, Comte synthesised these higher attributes of human intelligence and proposed that positivism is a philosophy that provides people with really useful and precise knowledge (Clauzade, 2020).

Chiew (2022) explores Comte's views on science, history and 'progress', particularly as applied to science and social theory, and highlights the importance of Comte's positivist approach in sociology, including the application of mathematics and experimentation to the analysis of social phenomena. The positivist definition of theory as propositions linking abstract concepts is a widely used definition; positivist theory focuses on the search for causes and explanations that support causation (explanation), and emphasises the generalisation and universality of theory (Turner, 1985).

The strength of the positivist paradigm lies in its emphasis on the objectivity and scientific nature of the research, ensuring the reliability and general applicability of the findings through rigorous experimental design and quantitative analysis. By systematically collecting and validating data, this paradigm is able to reveal causal relationships between variables and construct theories in a clear and reproducible manner (Aliyu et al., 2014). In addition, the normative and rigorous nature of positivism makes it easy to learn and master, and it is particularly suitable for use in large-scale studies and cross-case comparisons, providing researchers with a clear set of operational procedures and evaluation criteria, which greatly enhances the credibility and validity of research findings (Alhoussawi, 2023).

3.2 Research Method

According to Creswell (2014) the definition of research methodology is 'the specific steps and strategies adopted by the researcher in carrying out data collection, analysis and interpretation'. The use of positivist paradigm in this study leads to quantitative methodology. In this study, primary data will be collected through quantitative methods in the form of online questionnaires. These will be sent to the employees who are working or have worked in this company from July 2024 to September 2024 in Haidilao Company.

Questionnaire research methodology refers to a form of social research that uses self-administered questionnaires or structured interviews to systematically and directly collect information from a sample taken from a total population and statistically analyse the information in order to understand social phenomena and their patterns, such as lists of questions or items that collect data from respondents about their attitudes, experiences or opinions (Bhandari, 2021).

3.3 Advantages Vs Disadvantages

Based on Brewer, Torrisi-Steele, and Wang (2015), Saris and Revilla (2015), and Bethlehem (2009), the main advantages of using questionnaires in research are as follows:

Cost-Effectiveness:

Questionnaires can gather a large amount of research data while incurring relatively low material, financial, and time costs.

Ease of Administration:

Compared to personal interviews, questionnaires are easier to administer. In fact, there is no need for scheduling, as the questionnaire can simply be distributed to participants (although some researchers may contact respondents via phone, email, or letter before sending out the questionnaire to increase the response rate).

Standardized Responses:

All respondents receive exactly the same questions—eliminating the variability that can occur in face-to-face interactions with researchers. This standardization reduces the likelihood that the data will be influenced by variations in question wording or the way questions are posed. The impact of personal factors on the data is minimized.

Pre-Coded Answers:

Another significant advantage of questionnaires is the use of pre-coded answers. Although pre-coded answers are not a necessary feature of questionnaires (since open-ended responses can also be included), they maximize the value of the data. Respondents' answers are aligned with the range of options provided by the researcher, allowing for rapid data collection and analysis. This also benefits respondents, who can complete the relatively simple task of selecting one or more answers from the given options without needing to consider how to articulate their thoughts.

However, questionnaires also have certain disadvantages, the most significant being low response rates, limitations and fixed answers, and the inability to verify the authenticity of the answers (Stratton, 2015).

Low Response Rates:

Pre-coded questions may frustrate respondents, discouraging them from completing the questionnaire. While the use of pre-coded questions provides benefits to researchers, it can also present potential drawbacks. Respondents may feel that merely checking off answers is too limiting, leading to feelings of restriction and frustration. Therefore, the design of the options needs to be done carefully to encourage participation rather than creating negative emotions that discourage respondents from engaging in the research.

Limited and Fixed Answers:

Pre-coded questions may reflect the researcher's perspective rather than the respondents' own views. The nature of questionnaires imposes a fixed structure on the answers, causing them to reflect the researcher's thinking rather than the respondents'. Good research practices can minimize this effect, but respondents will always be somewhat guided by the options provided, which may divert them from their own feelings to align with the researcher's intended direction.

Inability to Verify Answer Authenticity:

Questionnaires provide researchers with little opportunity to verify the authenticity of respondents' answers. Because researchers do not meet respondents in person and answers are provided from a distance, questionnaire researchers cannot rely on a range of cues to judge the honesty of respondents, as interviewers might. For instance, if a respondent claims their occupation is "dentist," the researcher has little choice but to believe them. Similarly, whether dealing with statements of fact or opinion, as long as respondents answer along a specific line, questionnaire researchers have little solid basis to dispute these answers, making reliability and validity checks necessary.

With the advancement of computer technology and communication methods, more scholars are opting to use online questionnaires for research. Online surveys offer significant efficiency advantages over traditional paper questionnaires. Through online platforms, researchers can quickly design, distribute questionnaires, and instantly collect and analyze data. Respondents can participate in the survey anytime, anywhere, using devices such as

computers or mobile phones, without the need for face-to-face contact, greatly expanding the reach and participation rate of the survey (Alessi and Martin, 2010). Moreover, online surveys can automatically import completed data into data files, eliminating the need for manual data entry and the inevitable human errors associated with it. Modern data analysis tools can analyze the collected data in real-time, reducing manual input errors and ensuring data accuracy and reliability (Chang, 2013).

Finally, online questionnaires can embed various interactive elements, such as multimedia content (videos, audio, images) and dynamic questioning. These elements not only increase respondents' interest and participation but also enhance the richness of the data by gathering information from multiple dimensions. Additionally, online questionnaires can be quickly adjusted and optimized to meet different research needs and goals (Revilla, Ochoa, and Turbina, 2016).

As described above, online questionnaires are generally considered to have many advantages. However, they also have some drawbacks. According to Ball (2019) and Dudek (2018), the disadvantages of online questionnaires include:

Low Response Rate:

Although online questionnaires reach a broad audience, their non-compulsory and casual nature often results in lower response rates. Some respondents may drop out halfway due to the length of the questionnaire or lack of interest, leading to insufficient valid responses.

Data Bias:

The audience for online questionnaires heavily depends on internet accessibility, which may lead to unrepresentative samples. For example, online questionnaires that favor younger and urban populations might overlook the opinions of rural or elderly populations. Additionally, respondents may provide subjective or inaccurate answers, which could introduce bias into the data analysis.

Privacy and Security Concerns:

In the digital age, data privacy and security have become significant concerns. Respondents often need to provide personal information when completing online questionnaires, which, if leaked, could pose privacy risks and financial losses.

Dependence on Technology:

The implementation of online questionnaires is highly dependent on the stability

and functionality of the technological platform. If the survey platform experiences technical issues or is subject to cyberattacks, the research might be disrupted, or data could be lost.

3.4 Disadvantages of methods rejected

In addition to surveys, many other forms of research methods can be employed, such as interviews, focus groups, observation, and case studies. However, these research methods were not adopted in this study for the following reasons:

Interviews

Firstly, during the interview process, the researcher's attitude, body language, verbal behaviour, attire, and questioning style can all influence the respondent's answers. This requires the researcher to possess a certain level of interview knowledge and sufficient experience in conducting interviews (Murphy et al., 2011).

Secondly, since interviews often involve face-to-face communication, it is necessary to arrange specific interview locations. This, along with travel time and expenses, can consume a considerable amount of the researcher's time, energy, and resources. Moreover, there is a possibility of encountering situations where the interviewee declines or is unavailable for the interview. Therefore, interviews are more suitable for small sample studies and are less appropriate for large-scale research (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006).

Finally, while interviews offer flexibility, they also bring a certain degree of arbitrariness. When the researcher adjusts the interview outline content during the process, it can result in varied responses from interviewees, lacking a uniform standard. The relatively low level of standardization makes it difficult to organize and analyse interview results (Palmieri, 2017).

Focus Groups

Focus group interviews, also known as focus group discussion methods, involve collecting data through unstructured, direct questioning and dialogue in a small group setting focused on a specific topic (Parker & Tritter, 2021). The reasons for not choosing this method are as follows:

(1) It is only suitable for collecting qualitative data. The data tends to be disorganized and primarily consists of colloquial descriptions. Moreover, the statements made by participants may not be typical, leading to erroneous judgments and increasing the difficulty of data analysis and conclusion drawing (Gill et al., 2008).

(2) It is challenging to obtain in-depth information related to privacy or confidentiality. In a group setting, some participants may be reluctant or afraid to speak freely, particularly on issues involving privacy or confidentiality, thus limiting the data collected (Wellings, Branigan & Mitchell, 2000).

(3) The method places high demands on the moderator. The quality of the data collected and the overall process heavily depend on the moderator, making it challenging to select an ideal moderator (McLafferty, 2004).

Observation

The observation method involves researchers directly observing and recording the behaviour of subjects under natural conditions using their senses or scientific instruments to obtain statistical data.

The main reason for rejecting the observation method is that the presence of the observer may influence the behaviour of the subjects, making them act unnaturally, thereby affecting the authenticity and accuracy of the data. This effect is known as the observer effect (Tanaka & Kawaguchi, 2016). Furthermore, observation often involves a large amount of unstructured data (such as colloquial descriptions and behavioural records), making data organization and analysis complex and difficult to standardize. Additionally, the recording and analysis process in observation may be influenced by the observer's personal biases, leading to interpretation bias, which is often considered too subjective. Not all research subjects are suitable for observational studies (Renninger & Bachrach, 2015).

Case Studies

Finally, due to the difficulty in finding suitable research subjects, the case study method is deemed unsuitable for this research. Additionally, Ruzzene (2011) pointed out that case studies lack scientific rigor and are highly subjective. First, because case studies typically focus on individual cases, the generalizability and applicability of the research findings may be limited. Second, deriving general rules from a single case can lead to overgeneralization. Furthermore, the subjective factors of the researcher during the design and execution phases may influence the results, weakening the credibility of the study (Ruzzene, 2011).

3.5 Questionnaire Design

Ensuring the validity and reliability of a questionnaire is crucial when designing a survey. First, the design of the questionnaire should clearly define the

research objectives and questions. By precisely identifying the information you wish to obtain from the questionnaire, you can create questions that effectively meet these objectives. This approach not only helps in gathering targeted data but also enhances the applicability of the research findings. Additionally, the questionnaire should be concise and straightforward, avoiding complex or ambiguous language, to ensure that respondents can easily comprehend and accurately answer the questions. Such clarity in design contributes to higher response rates and the accuracy of the data collected (Boynton & Greenhalgh, 2004).

Furthermore, the questionnaire design should avoid any form of bias, with questions phrased in a neutral manner that does not imply specific answers or contain subjective influences. Logical sequencing is another important factor to consider during the design process; questions should be organized in a coherent order that allows respondents to answer naturally. Moreover, the use of open-ended questions should be minimized, as these may result in responses that are less precise or incomplete. Instead, closed-ended questions are recommended, as they provide predefined options for respondents to choose from, ensuring comparability of data and ease of analysis (McColl et al., 2001).

By integrating these design principles, the quality of the questionnaire can be significantly improved, ensuring that the collected data is both reliable and valid.

Therefore, I first plan to understand their basic information by asking a few questions related to their age, gender, marital status, and educational background. After that, these employees will complete a questionnaire, based on the Likert scale, primarily aimed at assessing the extent of their need for different types of motivational factors. The scale ranges from 1 = very unnecessary to 7 = very necessary (South et al., 2022).

This study categorises employees based on factors such as age, marital status, gender, and educational background, and examines the differences in their motivational needs. These factors may influence employees' work preferences, needs, and values. For instance, younger employees may place greater emphasis on career development opportunities and a dynamic work environment, while older employees tend to prioritise job security and work-life balance. Similarly, married employees might prioritise stability and benefits, whereas single employees may focus more on career advancement and personal growth (Riak and Bill, 2022) (Li, 2023).

3.6 Sample

In statistics, sample size refers to the number of individuals randomly selected from a given population (i.e., the entire population of a study, such as all residents of a city). It is one of the key factors in conducting effective statistical analyses. The size of the sample size directly affects the accuracy and reliability of the findings; too small a sample content causes an increase in sampling error, which reduces the efficacy of the test and leads to questioning the validity of the findings or providing inaccurate answers ultimately leading to failure to answer the research question (Das, Mitra and Mandal, 2016); too large a sample content increases the workload of the researcher and creates many difficulties for the researcher (Burmeister and Aitken, 2012). So the right sample size should be determined and also resources can be saved. Considering the above two points as well as logistical constraints such as time, convenience and finances, a sample size of 200 was chosen for this study. According to Faber and Fonseca (2014) smaller sample sizes (e.g., 200) can still provide reliable data when well-designed and when the research questions are specific and clear. Therefore, setting the sample size at 200 will be reasonable and reliable.

3.6 Ethical

This study strictly adheres to the ethical standards of academic research. The questionnaire used in the study is designed to assess the motivational needs of Haidilao employees and their satisfaction with the company's motivational policies. Throughout the research process, we will strictly protect the privacy and personal information of all respondents. All questionnaire data will be processed anonymously, and no individual can be identified from the results.

Furthermore, participation in the study is entirely voluntary, and respondents have the right to withdraw from the survey at any stage without providing a reason. We ensure that all data collected will be used solely for academic research purposes and not for any other use. If respondents have any queries or concerns before completing or submitting the questionnaire, they are welcome to contact us via email.

3.7 Sending the questionnaire to respondents

The study will distribute the questionnaire online using a popular web-based survey platform. The questionnaire link will be sent directly to individuals who are currently working at Haidilao or have previous work experience with the company, identified through job recruitment websites. This method ensures that the data collected is both reliable and relevant to the research objectives.

For the convenience of employees, the link will be shared via email or other suitable digital communication channels. Respondents will be encouraged to complete the survey within the specified timeframe to ensure the target sample size of 200 is met. The distribution of the questionnaire will begin on July 3, 2024, with a completion deadline set for August 30, 2024, or until the target sample size is reached, whichever comes first. Participants will be notified once the survey has concluded.

3.8 Research Quality

Reliability measures the consistency and repeatability of a questionnaire. High reliability means that if the same questionnaire is administered multiple times, the results will be similar. Reliability analysis focuses on whether the research data is genuinely reliable, also known as "reliability analysis." In simple terms, it examines whether the respondents have truthfully answered the questions and whether they have taken the survey seriously. Specifically, it assesses the consistency of the results obtained when the questionnaire is used to repeatedly measure the research subjects (Marsden, 2011). While conducting surveys on online platforms offers advantages such as cost-effectiveness (as previously discussed), this method inherently limits the ability to understand the specific circumstances of respondents when completing the questionnaire.

Research participants usually expect to receive sufficient information in the informed consent form to make an informed decision about their participation. However, the importance of different elements of information varies among participants, especially when it comes to the risks and benefits of the study, which are considered particularly crucial (Karbwang et al., 2018). To address this issue and to eliminate any potential bias among participants, a clear and comprehensive description of the questionnaire, along with a statement ensuring the protection of participants' rights, was included in the survey link. This was done to ensure that respondents have a basic understanding of the

overall purpose of the study and to guarantee that they cannot be identified in the results (see Appendix 1).

Validity measures whether the questionnaire accurately assesses the construct or characteristic it is designed to measure. High validity means that the questionnaire results accurately reflect the research objectives. Validity analysis focuses on whether the survey items effectively convey the conceptual information of the research variables or dimensions. In simple terms, it assesses whether the survey items are appropriately designed, and whether they adequately represent a particular variable (Bolarinwa, 2015). To ensure the quality of the questionnaire, a small sample will be collected for reliability or validity analysis after the initial questionnaire design. This will help identify any issues with the items, and necessary revisions will be made to finalize the questionnaire before conducting the formal survey. If both reliability and validity meet the required standards, no further modifications will be made.

3.9 Analysis

The results of this survey will be analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) to determine the extent to which different types of employees require various incentive factors such as financial incentives and promotion incentives. SPSS is a widely used statistical tool for data analysis, particularly suited to research in the social sciences. It possesses robust data management and analytical capabilities, allowing for a range of operations from basic descriptive statistics to complex multivariate analyses, as well as generating various charts and reports (Alili and Krstev, 2019). The analysis will output statistics including means, p-values, and X^2 , which will help me understand the direct variability of each incentive factor and its statistical significance (Ganesh Prasad Adhikari, 2022).

3.10 Limitations of study

The limitations of this study primarily lie in three aspects: the representativeness of the sample, the limitations of the data collection method, and time constraints. First, the representativeness of the sample may be limited. Although the sample size of this study meets statistical requirements, it is still much smaller than the population it aims to represent, which may affect the generalizability and applicability of the results. Second, the reliance on a single data collection method is another limitation. This study mainly depends on an

online questionnaire, which, while convenient, restricts the types of data that can be collected and fails to capture more in-depth qualitative information. Additionally, the format of the online questionnaire may result in some respondents providing less detailed or thorough answers, thereby affecting the richness and comprehensiveness of the data. Finally, time constraints also impacted the scope and depth of this study. Due to the limited time available to the researchers, the timeframe for data collection and analysis was relatively short, which may have led to certain variables not being fully considered, thus potentially affecting the reliability of the study's results. These limitations could influence the reliability and accuracy of the findings.

4. Analysis of Results

4.1 Analysis of Results

This chapter aims to assess the differences in the demand for various motivational factors among different types of employees at Haidilao. The study is based on original data collected from respondents through an online survey, and the survey results have been analysed. Firstly, the characteristics of the employees will be examined, such as gender, age, marital status, length of employment at the company, salary, and educational background, as these factors may influence their motivational needs. The analysis will then focus on the differences in motivational needs among different types of employees, which can be divided into four main sections: differences in motivational needs based on age, marital status, gender, and educational background.

4.2 Personal demographic characteristics

A total of 223 questionnaires were distributed, of which 200 were actually valid, with a recovery rate of 89.7%. After the questionnaires were collected, the questionnaires were sorted out in strict accordance with the following procedures, and the data were entered into the statistical software with the help of SPSS: First, a unified database format was established, and the relevant data were entered into the software; second, the data were sorted out.

Firstly, establish a unified database format and enter the relevant data into the software; secondly, sort out the entered data. Invalid data were eliminated and valid data were retained to facilitate the use of statistics.

Third, sampling test to ensure the accuracy of data entry and analyse the validity of the questionnaire, which also provides a certain data base for future related research.

The whole process of distributing the questionnaire was supported and helped by the supervisors of several Hai Di Lao restaurants, various departments and all the staff. The online questionnaires were distributed with the assistance of the staff of the Group's Human Resources Department and were uniformly recovered up, and the results of the required data were finally tallied in order to provide a strong data guarantee for the conclusions of the later survey. Information about the scope of sample collection is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Demographic Statistics

Name	Option	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
Gender	Female	122	61	61
	Male	78	39	100
	Sum	200	100	100
Age	18-25	90	45	45
	36-45	52	26	71
	26-35	50	25	96
	46-55	8	4	100
	Sum	200	100	100
Tenure	4-6 years	76	38	38
	1-3 years	61	30.5	68.5
	7-10 years	28	14	82.5
	Less than a year	27	13.5	96
	More than 10 years	8	4	100
	Sum	200	100	100
Marital Status	Married	99	49.254	49.254
	Single	80	39.801	89.055
	Separated/Divorced	21	10.448	99.502
	Sum	201	100	100
Education	Associate degree	92	46	46
	High school or below	68	34	80
	Bachelor's degree	36	18	98
	Master's degree or above	4	2	100
	Sum	200	100	100
Role	Employee	145	72.5	72.5
	Supervisor	33	16.5	89
	Manager	17	8.5	97.5
	Senior Management	5	2.5	100
	Sum	200	100	100
Salary	3001-6000 RMB	64	32	32
	6001-9000 RMB	60	30	62
	9001-12000 RMB	44	22	84
	Below 3000 RMB	18	9	93
	above 12000 RMB	14	7	100
	Sum	200	100	100

According to the demographic data of Haidilao's restaurant employees provided in Table 4.1, the employee group presents the following characteristics: firstly, in terms of gender distribution, female employees account for 61% and male employees account for 39%, with significantly more female than male employees, which is a more common phenomenon in the service industry, probably due to the fact that females are more advantageous in terms of communication and customer service. In terms of age, employees are mainly concentrated in 18-25 years old, accounting for 45%, followed by 26-35 years old and 36-45 years old, which indicates that Haidilao's employee group is dominated by young people, which is consistent with the trend that the catering industry generally favours a young and energetic workforce. In terms of length

of service, employees with 1-6 years of service accounted for the majority, indicating a high mobility of employees, but there are still some employees who have worked here for a longer period of time, and the percentage of employees with more than 10 years of service is only 4%, which is in line with the higher mobility of personnel in the service industry.

In terms of marital status, the proportions of married employees and single employees are close to each other, each accounting for 49.254% and 39.801%, which indicates that Haidilao's employee groups have various marital statuses, but married employees have a slight advantage. In terms of education level, most employees have college or high school education or below, accounting for 46% and 34% respectively, which is consistent with the status quo of the catering service industry that requires less high education. Ordinary employees account for 72.5% of the total number of employees, while the proportion of management is low, with senior management accounting for only 2.5%, which reflects the hierarchical structure of the enterprise as well as the numerical superiority of grassroots employees. In terms of salary levels, employees' salaries are mainly concentrated in the range of 3001-9000 RMB, which is in line with the salary standards of the catering industry, with a relatively small proportion of higher and lower-income employees.

Overall, these figures are reasonable in the context of the catering service industry, reflecting the industry's requirements and actual situation in terms of gender, age and education level of employees. The youthfulness of the employee group, the predominance of low to medium levels of education, the concentration of salary levels in the low to medium range, and the higher mobility are all common phenomena in the industry.

4.4 Overall Data Analysis

According to the data presented in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1, Haidilao employees generally place a high level of importance on various motivational factors, with all factors scoring an average of over 5 out of 7. Among these, financial incentives (average score of 5.8) and social security and health insurance (average score of 5.615) are considered the most important by employees, highlighting their strong emphasis on salary and benefits. Work-life balance (average score of 5.43) and career development (average score of 5.585) are also highly valued, indicating that these factors play a key role in employees' career choices. In contrast, the scores for work environment

(average score of 5.305) and management support (average score of 5.3) are slightly lower, suggesting that employees place relatively less importance on these factors. The analysis of standard deviation and variance reveals significant differences in employees' views on career development and management support, indicating that perceptions of these factors vary among employees. Overall, the data is reasonable, reflecting the high priority employees place on salary, benefits, career development, and work-life balance, while also suggesting areas for improvement in work environment and management support to better meet employee needs and expectations.

Table 4.2 General data

Name	Sample size	Max	Min	Ave	Standard deviation	Variance
Financial Incentive	200	7	3	5.8	1.003	1.005
Career Development	200	7	1	5.585	1.293	1.671
Job Security	200	7	2	5.53	1.169	1.366
Work Environment	200	7	2	5.305	0.968	0.937
Support from Management	200	7	1	5.3	1.165	1.357
Work-life Balance	200	7	2	5.43	1.025	1.05
Social Security and Health Insurance	200	7	4	5.615	1.059	1.122

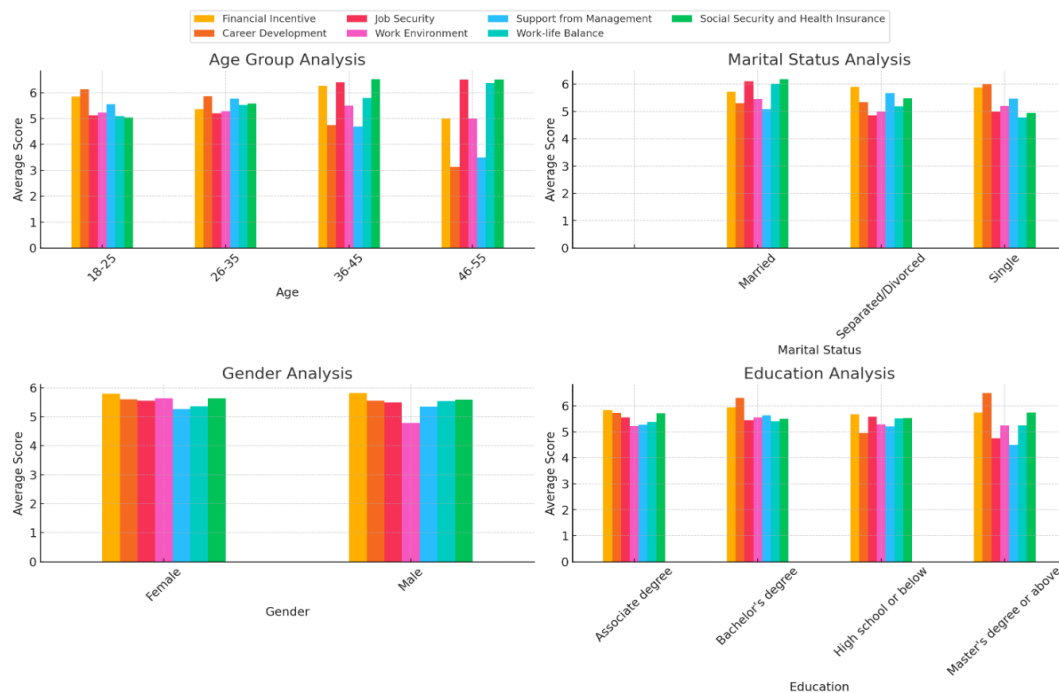


Figure 4.1 Ave socre

Specifically, the average score for financial incentives is 5.8, the highest of all factors, indicating that employees place great importance on salary and compensation. This high level of importance reflects the significant role financial incentives play in employees' minds. The relatively low standard deviation and variance suggest that most employees are in agreement on this point, with the majority viewing salary incentives as a key concern (Ou and Wang, 2007). The average score for social security incentives is 5.615, showing that employees value these benefits highly. This factor, with the second-highest score after financial incentives, reflects the importance employees place on health and long-term security. The low standard deviation and variance indicate that employees generally agree on the importance of this benefit, with most considering it an essential part of their work life.

The average score for career development is 5.585, showing that employees also place significant value on career advancement opportunities. However, the higher standard deviation and variance reveal that there is considerable variation in employees' views on career development; some employees may view it as very important, while others may not prioritise it as highly. This could be related to differences in employees' personal career plans and development expectations, which aligns with Kamau's (2017) findings that employees' views on career development vary greatly, especially regarding training and development opportunities. Some employees are very satisfied with the

company's training and development opportunities, while others are less so, and a more detailed analysis of these differences will follow.

The average score for job security is 5.53, demonstrating that employees place a high value on stability in their work. The moderate standard deviation and variance indicate that most employees hold a similar view on the importance of job security, reflecting its significance in the current economic environment (Hur, 2019). The average score for work-life balance is 5.43, indicating that employees generally value balance between their professional and personal lives. The moderate standard deviation and variance show that employees' views on this factor are fairly consistent, highlighting the widespread concern among modern employees about quality of life and managing work-related stress. According to Kim (2014), employees' pursuit of work-life balance is closely linked to their job performance, and the consistent importance they place on this factor is reflected in the moderate standard deviation and variance, which are also associated with higher job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The average score for work environment is 5.305, which, although slightly lower than the other factors, still shows that employees place considerable importance on the work environment. The low standard deviation and variance indicate that employees have fairly consistent views on this factor, with most believing that the work environment plays an important role in job satisfaction, although its importance is somewhat lower compared to the other motivational factors. The average score for management support is 5.3, the lowest of all the factors, indicating that employees have more varied views on the importance of support from management. While the majority of employees recognise the importance of management support, the higher standard deviation and variance suggest that some employees may not see it as being as crucial to their work experience as other factors. According to Moyle (1998), this could be related to employees' perceptions of role ambiguity and control.

4.5 Analysis of the differences in the demand status of employee motivation factors

This study employs Pearson's chi-square test with the aim of analysing whether there are significant differences in the needs of employees across different age groups regarding several key motivational factors. The chi-square test is a non-parametric statistical method suitable for examining whether there is a

significant association between two categorical variables (Msuha and Mdendemi, 2019). Given that the data in this study includes multiple categories of employees (such as employees from different age groups, positions, income levels, and educational backgrounds) and their ratings on various factors, these variables are all categorical in nature, making the chi-square test the most appropriate choice.

The chi-square test determines whether there is a significant difference between observed and expected frequencies to assess the association between variables. When the p-value is less than the predetermined significance level of 0.05, it indicates a significant association between the variables, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis (Fraser, 2013). This process allows us to determine whether there are significant differences in the opinions of employees from different age groups regarding various factors.

4.5.1 Different age groups

Table 4.3 Differences in motivational needs of employees of different age groups

Topic	Mark	Age				Total	Test Method	X²	P	Crammer's V
		18-25	26-35	36-45	46-55					
Financial Incentive	3	2	0	1	0	3	Pearson's Chi-square test	40.649	0.000***	0.26
	4	2	7	1	2	12				
	5	32	24	10	4	70				
	6	26	13	11	2	52				
	7	28	6	29	0	63				
Total		90	50	52	8	200				
Career Development	1	0	0	0	1	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	101.707	0.000***	0.412
	2	0	0	1	1	2				
	3	1	2	9	3	15				
	4	2	5	13	2	22				
	5	14	5	14	1	34				
	6	40	24	9	0	73				
	7	33	14	6	0	53				
Total		90	50	52	8	200				
Job Security	2	1	0	0	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	74.318	0.000***	0.352
	3	7	7	1	0	15				
	4	12	2	1	0	15				
	5	38	20	1	1	60				
	6	24	16	22	2	64				
	7	8	5	27	5	45				
Total		90	50	52	8	200				
Work Environment	2	0	0	0	1	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	34.313	0.003***	0.239
	3	3	0	1	0	4				
	4	23	10	6	1	40				
	5	20	18	16	3	57				
	6	38	20	24	2	84				
	7	6	2	5	1	14				
Total		90	50	52	8	200				
Support from Management	1	1	0	0	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	85.447	0.000***	0.377
	2	2	0	2	1	5				
	3	2	0	3	3	8				
	4	3	3	20	3	29				
	5	28	11	14	1	54				
	6	41	31	10	0	82				
	7	13	5	3	0	21				
Total		90	50	52	8	200				
Work-life Balance	2	1	0	0	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	37.574	0.001***	0.25
	3	1	0	0	0	1				
	4	24	11	5	0	40				
	5	37	10	10	1	58				
	6	17	21	28	3	69				
	7	10	8	9	4	31				
Total		90	50	52	8	200				
Social Security and Health Insurance	4	24	13	0	0	37	Pearson's Chi-square test	92.44	0.000***	0.393
	5	45	9	0	0	54				
	6	15	14	25	4	58				
	7	6	14	27	4	51				
Total		90	50	52	8	200				

Note: ***, **, * represent 1 %, 5 % and 10% level of significance, respectively.

In conducting the analysis of differences in the motivational needs of employees from various age groups, this study divided employees into four age groups: 18-25 years, 26-35 years, 36-45 years, and 46-55 years. The analysis focused on their ratings of seven key work factors: financial incentives, career development, job security, work environment, management support, work-life balance, and social security and health insurance. A chi-square test was employed to assess whether there were significant differences in the ratings

across age groups, with further evaluation of the strength of these differences using effect size metrics such as Cramér's V coefficient (McHugh, 2013).

In terms of financial incentives, the Cramér's V value of 0.26 and a p-value of 0.000*** indicate a moderate difference in the importance placed on financial incentives by employees of different age groups. The results for career development showed a Cramér's V value of 0.412 and a p-value of 0.000***, suggesting a moderately strong difference between age groups concerning career development. For job security, the Cramér's V value was 0.352 with a p-value of 0.000***, indicating a moderate difference in how different age groups value job security. The analysis of the work environment revealed a Cramér's V value of 0.239 and a p-value of 0.003***, showing some differences in how age groups view the work environment, though the relationship was relatively weak. Regarding management support, a Cramér's V value of 0.377 and a p-value of 0.000*** indicated a moderately strong difference between age groups. The analysis of work-life balance returned a Cramér's V value of 0.25 and a p-value of 0.001***, indicating moderate differences in how different age groups prioritise work-life balance. Finally, the results for social security and health insurance showed a Cramér's V value of 0.393 and a p-value of 0.000***, demonstrating significant differences in the needs for social security and health insurance across age groups.

For employees aged 18-25, career development emerged as a particularly important factor. This group is in the early stages of their careers, and they are keen to continuously learn and develop their skills in order to achieve their career goals (Ilieva and Vitanova, 2019). Therefore, career development was highly valued by this group (p-value of 0.000***, Cramér's V value of 0.412). Financial incentives were also a primary concern for this age group. As they are new to the workforce, they typically face basic economic needs such as housing, transportation, and leisure, making financial incentives crucial for their economic stability, despite the overall differences being moderate (Cramér's V value of 0.26).

Employees aged 26-35 are typically in a phase where they are balancing career advancement and personal life. At this stage, many employees take on more family responsibilities, such as buying a house and raising children, leading to stronger demands for financial incentives and job security (p-value of 0.000***, Cramér's V value of 0.352). Career development remains important for this age group, but its priority may be slightly lower compared to financial incentives and job security. These employees seek to make progress in their careers while

also securing a stable income and job security. Additionally, as family responsibilities increase, they gradually place greater emphasis on work-life balance (Cramér's V value of 0.25), aiming to strike a reasonable balance between their professional and personal lives.

For employees aged 36-45, job security becomes the most important need (p-value of 0.000***, Cramér's V value of 0.352). This age group tends to have achieved a certain level of career success and often faces significant family responsibilities, such as children's education and financial planning, making them more focused on job stability and long-term career development (Finegold, Mohrman, and Spreitzer, 2002). Management support is of relatively lower importance to this group (Cramér's V value of 0.377), as they have accumulated extensive work experience and skills, leading to a preference for more autonomous work. Furthermore, work-life balance remains crucial, especially as they face the dual challenges of work pressure and family responsibilities (Parkes and Langford, 2008).

For employees aged 46-55, social security and health insurance are the most important factors (p-value of 0.000***, Cramér's V value of 0.393). As they age, their health risks increase, and their need for retirement security rises. This age group is typically in the later stages of their careers, with career development and financial incentives becoming relatively less important, while job security, health insurance, and retirement benefits become more critical. Moreover, they place a high value on work-life balance (Cramér's V value of 0.25), aiming to maintain health and quality of life as they approach the end of their professional careers.

In conclusion, the analysis of differences in motivational needs across age groups for factors such as financial incentives, career development, job security, work environment, management support, work-life balance, and social security and health insurance reveals that employees' needs and priorities change significantly as they progress through different stages of their careers and lives. Younger employees tend to prioritise career development and financial incentives, while older employees place greater emphasis on job security, social security, and health insurance. Managers can use these insights to design more targeted motivational policies that meet the needs of employees at different career stages, thus improving employee satisfaction and overall organisational effectiveness.

4.5.2 Different Marital Status

Table 4.4 Differences in motivational needs of employees of different Marital Status

Topic	Mark	Marital Status			Total	Test Method	X ²	P	Crammer's V
		Single	Married	Separated/Divorced					
Financial Incentive	3	1	2	0	3	Pearson's Chi-square test	4.925	0.766	0.111
	4	2	9	1	12				
	5	28	35	7	70				
	6	24	22	6	52				
	7	25	31	7	63				
Total	80	99	21	200					
Career Development	1	0	1	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	39.029	0.000***	0.312
	2	0	0	2	2				
	3	2	12	1	15				
	4	2	17	3	22				
	5	14	18	2	34				
	6	38	27	8	73				
	7	24	24	5	53				
Total	80	99	21	200					
Job Security	2	1	0	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	60.816	0.000***	0.39
	3	9	1	5	15				
	4	12	1	2	15				
	5	35	18	7	60				
	6	13	46	5	64				
	7	10	33	2	45				
	Total	80	99	21	200				
Work Environment	2	0	0	1	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	26.793	0.003***	0.259
	3	3	0	1	4				
	4	23	12	5	40				
	5	17	34	6	57				
	6	29	49	6	84				
	7	8	4	2	14				
	Total	80	99	21	200				
Support from Management	1	0	1	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	11.079	0.522	0.166
	2	2	3	0	5				
	3	2	5	1	8				
	4	9	19	1	29				
	5	19	29	6	54				
	6	40	33	9	82				
	7	8	9	4	21				
Total	80	99	21	200					
Work-life Balance	2	1	0	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	80.124	0.000***	0.448
	3	1	0	0	1				
	4	27	7	6	40				
	5	39	12	7	58				
	6	10	53	6	69				
	7	2	27	2	31				
	Total	80	99	21	200				
Social Security and Health Insurance	4	28	6	3	37	Pearson's Chi-square test	74.051	0.000***	0.43
	5	34	10	10	54				
	6	12	43	3	58				
	7	6	40	5	51				
	Total	80	99	21	200				

Note: ***, **, * represent 1 %, 5 % and 10% level of significance, respectively.

In this analysis, we utilised Pearson's chi-square test to explore the relationship between employees' marital status (single, married, divorced/separated) and several key work factors, such as financial incentives, career development, job security, work environment, management support, work-life balance, and social security and health insurance.

Regarding financial incentives, the chi-square test results showed a p-value of 0.766 and a Cramér's V value of 0.111, indicating no significant difference between marital status and financial incentives. The results for career

development indicated a p-value of 0.000*** and a Cramér's V value of 0.312, suggesting a significant difference between marital status and career development, with a moderate degree of variation. For job security, the chi-square test returned a p-value of 0.000*** and a Cramér's V value of 0.39, showing a significant difference between marital status and job security, also with a moderate degree of variation. The results for the work environment showed a p-value of 0.003*** and a Cramér's V value of 0.259, indicating a significant difference between marital status and the work environment, although the degree of variation was relatively weak. Regarding management support, the chi-square test yielded a p-value of 0.522 and a Cramér's V value of 0.166, indicating no significant difference between marital status and management support. The analysis of work-life balance showed a p-value of 0.000*** and a Cramér's V value of 0.448, demonstrating a significant difference between marital status and work-life balance, with a moderate degree of variation. Finally, the results for social security and health insurance showed a p-value of 0.000*** and a Cramér's V value of 0.43, indicating a significant difference between marital status and social security and health insurance, with a moderate degree of variation.

The chi-square test revealed no significant difference between marital status and financial incentives, with a weak degree of variation. This suggests that employees across different marital statuses place a relatively consistent level of importance on financial incentives. This could be because financial incentives (such as salary and bonuses) are a basic need for employees at work, falling under Maslow's hierarchy of needs, where salary is seen as a means to fulfil basic needs. Regardless of marital status, employees need income to meet their living and financial goals, hence their demand for financial incentives remains consistent (Gorman, 2000). There was a significant difference between marital status and career development, with a moderate degree of variation. This may be because career development opportunities hold different priorities for employees based on their marital status. Single employees may be more inclined to pursue career development opportunities, as they generally bear fewer family responsibilities and can dedicate more time and energy to career growth. In contrast, married employees, particularly those with family obligations, may prioritise work-life balance over career development (Agrawal and Singh, 2021).

The significant difference between marital status and job security, especially among married employees, may be because married employees typically bear

greater economic and family responsibilities, and thus require more stable employment to ensure their family's financial security. Conversely, single employees may be more willing to embrace career changes and risks, resulting in a relatively lower demand for job security (Emmenegger, 2010). Although there is a difference between marital status and the work environment, the degree of variation is weak. This could indicate that employees, regardless of marital status, share a similar demand for a good work environment. A positive work environment can enhance job satisfaction and efficiency, making it a universal need. However, married employees may place more emphasis on the convenience and stability of their work, while single employees may focus more on the innovation and flexibility of the work environment (Arredondo-Trapero, Vázquez-Parra, and González-Arredondo, 2021).

There was no significant difference between marital status and management support, with a weak degree of variation. Management support, as a general need, is important to employees across different marital statuses. This could be because management support directly influences employees' job satisfaction and career development. Regardless of their marital status, employees expect guidance and recognition from their superiors to ensure their career growth and work efficiency (Renee Barnett and Bradley, 2007). A significant difference was found between marital status and work-life balance, with a moderate degree of variation. Married employees typically face more family responsibilities and thus have a greater need for work-life balance. They may need to balance work and family life to ensure family happiness and personal well-being. In contrast, single employees may be more flexible, willing to invest more time in work and pursue career development.

There was also a significant difference between marital status and social security and health insurance, with a moderate degree of variation. This could be because married employees, especially those with family responsibilities, have a greater demand for social security and health insurance. They need to ensure the health and safety of themselves and their families, thus placing more importance on these benefits. Divorced or separated employees may also place a high value on these benefits, as personal health and financial security remain crucial (Gopi Shah Goda, Shoven, and Sita Nataraj Slavov, 2007).

Overall, employees' marital status has a significant impact on their work needs and priorities. Married employees, due to greater family responsibilities, tend to prioritise job security, work-life balance, and social security and health insurance. In contrast, single employees are more likely to focus on career

development and the innovation of the work environment. When designing policies and motivational measures, managers should consider employees' marital status to provide support that meets their specific needs, thereby enhancing employee satisfaction and work efficiency.

4.5.3 Gender-Specific

Table 4.5 Differences in motivational needs of employees of different Gender

Topic	Mark	Gender		Total	Test Method	X²	P	Crammer's V
		Male	Female					
Financial Incentive	3	1	2	3	Pearson's Chi-square test	4.289	0.368	0.146
	4	2	10	12				
	5	29	41	70				
	6	24	28	52				
	7	22	41	63				
Total		78	122	200				
Career Development	1	0	1	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	2.196	0.901	0.105
	2	1	1	2				
	3	6	9	15				
	4	11	11	22				
	5	12	22	34				
	6	27	46	73				
	7	21	32	53				
Total		78	122	200				
Job Security	2	0	1	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	5.049	0.41	0.159
	3	7	8	15				
	4	9	6	15				
	5	20	40	60				
	6	23	41	64				
	7	19	26	45				
Total		78	122	200				
Work Environment	2	1	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	41.744	0.000***	0.457
	3	4	0	4				
	4	30	10	40				
	5	20	37	57				
	6	22	62	84				
	7	1	13	14				
Total		78	122	200				
Support from Management	1	1	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	3.649	0.724	0.135
	2	1	4	5				
	3	4	4	8				
	4	10	19	29				
	5	19	35	54				
	6	34	48	82				
	7	9	12	21				
Total		78	122	200				
Work-life Balance	2	0	1	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	3.64	0.602	0.135
	3	0	1	1				
	4	15	25	40				
	5	22	36	58				
	6	25	44	69				
	7	16	15	31				
Total		78	122	200				
Social Security and Health Insurance	4	15	22	37	Pearson's Chi-square test	3.366	0.339	0.13
	5	24	30	54				
	6	17	41	58				
	7	22	29	51				
Total		78	122	200				

Note: ***, **, * represent 1 %, 5 % and 10% level of significance, respectively.

In this analysis, we examined the differences in how male and female employees prioritise several key work factors, including financial incentives, career development, job security, work environment, management support, work-life balance, and social security and health insurance. The results

indicated that, with the exception of the work environment, there were no significant differences in how these factors were valued by men and women.

The analysis revealed that there was no significant gender difference in terms of financial incentives, with a Cramér's V value of 0.146 and a p-value of 0.368, indicating a weak association between gender and financial incentives. Similarly, in terms of career development, there was no significant difference between men and women, with a Cramér's V value of 0.105 and a p-value of 0.901, suggesting that gender plays a minimal role in career development.

The results for job security were comparable, with a Cramér's V value of 0.159 and a p-value of 0.410, showing that gender does not have a significant impact on the importance placed on job security. Likewise, there was no significant difference between genders in terms of management support and work-life balance, with Cramér's V values of 0.135 (p-value of 0.724) and 0.135 (p-value of 0.602), respectively. This indicates that men and women have largely similar needs in these areas, and that gender has a minimal influence on these factors. Furthermore, no significant difference was found between genders in the importance placed on social security and health insurance, with a Cramér's V value of 0.13 and a p-value of 0.339, further supporting the conclusion that gender has little effect on this factor.

However, in terms of the work environment, the analysis showed a significant difference between men and women, with a Cramér's V value of 0.457 and a p-value of 0.000***, indicating a large gender difference in this factor. Specifically, female employees place significantly more importance on the work environment than their male counterparts. This may be due to women generally placing greater emphasis on workplace safety, comfort, and social support, which could be linked to their higher expectations for stability and friendliness in the work environment when balancing professional and family responsibilities (Neil and Snizek, 1987). This finding suggests that when formulating related policies, companies should pay particular attention to the needs of female employees in relation to the work environment, providing safer, more comfortable, and supportive working conditions to enhance both satisfaction and productivity among female staff.

Overall, while there is a significant gender difference in how the work environment is valued, the differences in other factors are minimal. This indicates that, in the modern workplace, the needs of male and female employees in terms of most key motivational factors are becoming increasingly

similar, providing a basis for companies to create universally applicable motivational policies. At the same time, adjustments in areas such as the work environment should be made to cater to the specific needs of different genders, ensuring that all employees can enjoy a satisfactory work experience.

4.5.4 Different Educational Status

Table 4.6 Differences in motivational needs of employees of different Educational Status

Topic	Mark	Education				Total	Test Method	X ²	P	Crammer's V
		High school or below	Associate degree	Bachelor's degree	Master's degree or above					
Financial Incentive	3	1	2	0	0	3	Pearson's Chi-square test	4.535	0.972	0.087
	4	5	5	2	0	12				
	5	27	31	10	2	70				
	6	17	22	12	1	52				
	7	18	32	12	1	63				
Total	68	92	36	4	200					
Career Development	1	1	0	0	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	42.959	0.001***	0.268
	2	0	2	0	0	2				
	3	11	4	0	0	15				
	4	12	9	1	0	22				
	5	17	16	1	0	34				
	6	19	32	20	2	73				
	7	8	29	14	2	53				
Total	68	92	36	4	200					
Job Security	2	0	0	1	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	15.33	0.428	0.16
	3	6	7	1	1	15				
	4	3	9	3	0	15				
	5	18	27	13	2	60				
	6	27	24	12	1	64				
	7	14	25	6	0	45				
Total	68	92	36	4	200					
Work Environment	2	0	1	0	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	5.751	0.984	0.098
	3	2	2	0	0	4				
	4	15	19	5	1	40				
	5	17	29	10	1	57				
	6	29	36	17	2	84				
	7	5	5	4	0	14				
Total	68	92	36	4	200					
Support from Management	1	0	0	0	1	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	61.937	0.000***	0.321
	2	3	2	0	0	5				
	3	4	4	0	0	8				
	4	9	16	4	0	29				
	5	16	25	11	2	54				
	6	32	35	15	0	82				
	7	4	10	6	1	21				
Total	68	92	36	4	200					
Work-life Balance	2	1	0	0	0	1	Pearson's Chi-square test	13.226	0.585	0.148
	3	0	1	0	0	1				
	4	11	21	6	2	40				
	5	22	24	12	0	58				
	6	19	34	15	1	69				
	7	15	12	3	1	31				
Total	68	92	36	4	200					
Social Security and Health Insurance	4	18	13	6	0	37	Pearson's Chi-square test	9.169	0.422	0.124
	5	13	27	12	2	54				
	6	20	25	12	1	58				
	7	17	27	6	1	51				
Total	68	92	36	4	200					

Note: ***, **, * represent 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance, respectively.

In this analysis, we found significant differences between employees with different levels of education in terms of career development and management support, while no significant differences were observed in other work factors, such as financial incentives, job security, work environment, work-life balance, and social security and health insurance. Specifically, the p-value for education level and career development was 0.001***, indicating a significant difference, and the Cramér's V value of 0.268 suggests a moderate correlation. This means that employees with higher education levels tend to place greater emphasis on

career development opportunities, which may be related to their higher career ambitions and expectations for personal growth. However, the strength of this correlation is moderate, suggesting that although education level is an important factor in shaping attitudes towards career development, it is not the only determinant.

For management support, the p-value for education level and management support was 0.000***, indicating a significant difference, with a Cramér's V value of 0.321, showing a moderate correlation between education level and the importance placed on management support. Employees with higher education levels value management support more, likely because they have a greater need for participation in decision-making and career development. However, while the difference is significant, the strength of the correlation is moderate, indicating that other factors may also play a role in shaping the need for management support.

For other work factors, such as financial incentives, job security, work environment, work-life balance, social security and health insurance, the analysis showed that employees from different educational backgrounds had largely similar attitudes, with no significant differences observed. The lower Cramér's V values further support the conclusion that these factors have a relatively consistent impact across different educational levels. Overall, education level has a notable influence on career development and management support, while its impact on other factors is weaker or non-existent. This suggests that employees with higher education levels place greater importance on career development and management support, while other fundamental work factors, such as financial incentives and job security, are common concerns across employees of all educational backgrounds.

The significant relationship between education level and both career development and management support may reflect the higher expectations for career growth and organisational support among employees with higher education levels. Higher education is typically associated with greater career goals and development potential, and these employees tend to seek more learning and growth opportunities at work. They expect their organisation to provide clear career development pathways and adequate management support to help them achieve their professional goals. Therefore, they place more value on career development and management support, and if these needs are not met, their job satisfaction may decrease significantly (Ismail, Adnan and Bakar, 2014).

Additionally, the importance of management support is particularly pronounced for highly educated employees, as they often take on greater responsibilities within the organisation and may require more guidance and support from management in the decision-making process. These employees expect to receive recognition and assistance from management throughout their career, not only in terms of daily tasks but also in career development and promotion opportunities. As such, management support is crucial to their job satisfaction and career success (Sinha, 2020).

On the other hand, the weaker relationship between education level and factors such as financial incentives, job security, work environment, work-life balance, social security and health insurance may be due to these factors being considered basic requirements or universal needs. Regardless of educational background, employees are likely to prioritise these factors. Financial incentives and job security are fundamental concerns for all employees, as they directly impact personal financial security and life stability. Similarly, work environment and work-life balance are common concerns, as a good work environment and a reasonable work-life balance can improve job satisfaction and overall quality of life. Social security and health insurance are also basic benefits that all employees expect, and these factors typically do not vary significantly based on education level.

4.6 Comprehensive analysis

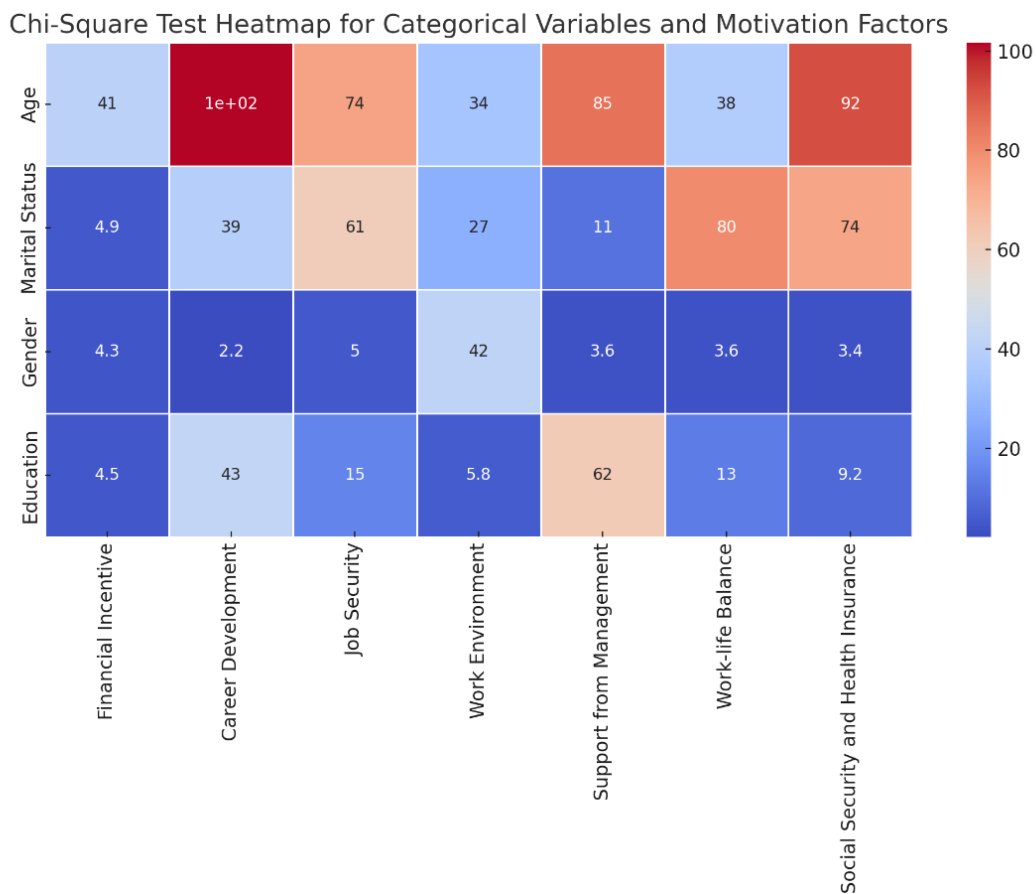


Figure 4.2 Chi-Square Test Heatmap

Based on the previous data and related analysis, employee prioritisation of different motivational factors can be systematically analysed using various motivational theories. Maslow's hierarchy of needs reveals the progression of employee needs, from basic physiological needs to self-actualisation. Financial incentives and social security and health insurance are the most important factors for employees, highlighting their focus on physiological and safety needs. These factors scored highly, indicating that salary and benefits are central concerns for employees. Job security also falls under safety needs, especially for older employees, for whom job stability becomes a primary consideration. These needs reflect employees' fundamental demands for economic security.

Furthermore, management support and work environment can be viewed as fulfilling employees' social and belonging needs. Although these two factors scored slightly lower than others, they still play an important role in overall job satisfaction (Singh and Behera, 2016). Gender analysis shows that female

employees place significantly more importance on the work environment than their male counterparts. This may be because women often have higher expectations for comfort and safety in the workplace when balancing professional and family responsibilities, According to Wraw (2024), Health has become a top priority for workplace and HR managers. Career development reflects employees' pursuit of esteem and recognition needs, especially for younger and more highly educated employees. These groups place greater value on career development, seeking to enhance their skills and advance their careers to achieve personal goals.

In line with Herzberg's two-factor theory, financial incentives, job security, and social security are hygiene factors. If these needs are not met, employee job satisfaction may be negatively impacted. Conversely, career development and management support are motivators, playing a decisive role in employees' sense of accomplishment at work. There is significant variation in how employees from different age groups and educational backgrounds prioritise career development, with younger and more highly educated employees placing greater importance on this factor, reflecting their desire for personal growth and achievement. At the same time, financial incentives are crucial for all employees, particularly for those who are just entering the workforce, as their economic needs are more pressing (Matei and Abrudan, 2016).

The self-determination theory's ABC model also helps to explain employees' responses to motivational factors. Career development and management support fulfil employees' needs for autonomy and competence, particularly for highly educated employees who seek greater autonomy and decision-making power in their roles. These employees place more value on management support than others. Among middle-aged employees, the need for work-life balance rises as family responsibilities increase. Additionally, the need for belonging, reflected in work environment and management support, shows a notable gender difference, with female employees placing greater emphasis on workplace safety and comfort. This indicates that businesses should focus on improving the work environment, especially by creating more supportive conditions for female employees (Skrok et al., 2023).

Overall, employees' needs for different motivational factors not only reflect their fundamental and safety requirements in the workplace but also demonstrate their higher expectations for career development and personal growth. Managers should tailor motivational policies to address these differences,

ensuring that the needs of employees at various career and life stages are met, thereby improving overall job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusion

This study reveals the differences in the demand for various motivational factors among Haidilao employees, both overall and across groups divided by age, marital status, gender, and education level.

All employees place a high level of importance on financial incentives (average score of 5.8) and social security/health insurance (average score of 5.615), highlighting their strong focus on salary and benefits. Career development (5.585), job security (5.53), and work-life balance (5.43) are also valued, while the work environment (5.305) and management support (5.3) received the lowest scores.

Younger employees prioritise financial incentives and career development, while older employees focus more on job security and benefits, reflecting how their needs shift across different stages of their careers.

Married employees place greater emphasis on job security, work-life balance, and social benefits, likely due to increased family responsibilities, whereas single employees tend to focus on career development and a more dynamic work environment.

Although financial incentives and job security are equally important to both male and female employees, female employees place more importance on the work environment.

Employees with higher education levels place more emphasis on career development and management support, as they expect more opportunities for promotion and involvement in decision-making. However, financial incentives, job security, and work-life balance are common priorities for employees across all educational backgrounds.

Overall, the data shows that financial incentives, job security, and social benefits are the top motivational factors for employees. These insights suggest that management should design more targeted incentive policies to meet the diverse needs of employees based on their career stage, personal circumstances, and educational background. Focusing on improving work-life balance, offering career development opportunities, and creating a supportive

work environment can help boost employee satisfaction and organisational effectiveness.

5.2 Recommendation

5.2.1 Establishing a Unified and Scientific Incentive System

The goal of designing an incentive model is to ensure that the remuneration employees receive is proportional to their contributions. By evaluating employees' performance, companies can quantify promotion or demotion between positions, encouraging employees to focus on working harder and improving their performance. In the eyes of employees, salary is not just their labour income, but also represents their personal value and the company's recognition of their work to some extent. Therefore, when companies formulate incentive models, they should not only emphasise financial incentives but also consider promotion and non-monetary incentives. This can significantly enhance employee motivation, thereby increasing the efficiency of the organisation (Mittal, 2023). In this context, companies must establish a unified and scientific incentive system, which should include the following key elements: establishing fairness within the organisation by reasonably determining the relative value of each position, which is the premise of formulating incentive models; Adopting a data-driven approach when establishing employee incentive models to enhance fairness. By collecting and analysing data on employee performance, productivity, and other factors, businesses can create personalised incentive schemes that more accurately reflect individual contributions. Additionally, implementing real-time feedback mechanisms and regularly assessing and adjusting incentive measures will ensure their effectiveness and adaptability. Furthermore, improving communication with employees and encouraging their involvement in the design of incentive schemes will help enhance transparency and fairness (Downes,2024).

5.2.2 Establishing a Differentiated Incentive Model

Incentive design involves the selection, implementation, and adjustment of systems, mechanisms, policies, and measures to meet individual needs, encouraging individuals to act towards predetermined goals. Since individual needs differ, incentives must also adapt to these differences (Kullgren et al.,

2016). Differentiation primarily manifests in the provision of special treatment for individual employees, based on their needs, within the scope allowed by corporate management. For example, within the workforce, there will inevitably be both married and unmarried employees, and when designing incentive models, companies must account for the differences between these two groups. In such cases, a more flexible approach within a broader incentive environment is often necessary. Therefore, when optimising incentive models, companies must do the following: create an incentive system that accommodates differences in needs, fundamentally based on objective conditions and changing references. Continuous adjustment is required to ensure that employees are fully motivated. Establishing incentive models that cater to different needs and encouraging employee mobility within the organisation are also crucial.

5.2.3 Incentive models should be more diversified

Diversity is a big problem to solve, but if we don't try we won't make a difference (Whitehouse, 2024). When designing employee incentive models, companies should exhibit diversity by adopting different remuneration strategies for different employees (Antoni et al., 2017). For example, equity incentives can be offered to management staff, while profit-sharing incentives can be provided to general employees. Furthermore, companies can design various employee incentive plans: direct economic incentives, including basic salary, performance bonuses, and various allowances; and indirect economic incentives, such as insurance and benefits. Additionally, a time-variable performance-based pay incentive plan can be introduced, where the increase in salary is determined by the company's financial performance and employees' productivity, incorporating time as a variable. This flexible incentive model can meet the diverse needs of employees, combining both material and spiritual incentives, thereby maximising the role of corporate culture's cohesion and internal motivation. In the end, assigning employees more responsibilities, where feasible, can make them feel valued. Redesigning job roles to make tasks more varied and challenging can also provide employees with a sense of achievement once the task is completed. When possible, considering personal

hobbies and specialisations when assigning roles helps meet employees' multilayered needs and stimulates their work motivation. Companies should strive to find ways for employees to achieve self-actualisation, utilise their intelligence, and experience a sense of accomplishment (Tierney and Farmer, 2011)

Bibliography

Adam, S., Amir, N., Jantan Anua Jah, N., Rahmat, N.H., Soopar, A.A. and Ahmad, M.K. (2021). Exploring Psychological and Self-Fulfilment Needs at the Workplace. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 11(8). doi:<https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v11-i8/10500>.

Agrawal, S. and Singh, S. (2021). Predictors of subjective career success amongst women employees: moderating role of perceived organizational support and marital status. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, ahead-of-print(ahead-of-print). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/gm-06-2020-0187>.

Ahmed, I. (2011). Relationship between Motivation and Job Satisfaction: A Study of Higher Educational Institutions. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, 3(2), pp.94–100. doi:<https://doi.org/10.22610/jebss.v3i2.259>.

Alderfer, C.P. (1989). Theories Reflecting My Personal Experience and Life Development. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 25(4), pp.351–365. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/002188638902500404>.

Alessi, E.J. and Martin, J.I. (2010). Conducting an Internet-based Survey: Benefits, Pitfalls, and Lessons Learned. *Social Work Research*, 34(2), pp.122–128. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/swr/34.2.122>.

Alhoussawi, H. (2023). Perspectives on Research Paradigms: A Guide for Education Researchers. *International Research in Education*, [online] 11(2), p.106. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5296/ire.v11i2.21445>.

Aliyu, A.A., Bello, M.U., Kasim, R. and Martin, D. (2014). Positivist and Non-Positivist Paradigm in Social Science Research: Conflicting Paradigms or Perfect Partners? *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 4(3), pp.79–95. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5539/jms.v4n3p79>.

- Al-Khaled, A.A.Raqeb. (2014). The Effects of Human Resource Management Practices on Employees' Motivation and Retention. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2407263>.
- Alrawahi, S., Sellgren, S.F., Altouby, S., Alwahaibi, N. and Brommels, M. (2020). The application of Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation to job satisfaction in clinical laboratories in Omani hospitals. *Heliyon*, [online] 6(9). Available at: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7486437/>.
- Anselme, P. and Robinson, M.J.F. (2019). Incentive Motivation. *The Cambridge Handbook of Motivation and Learning*, pp.163–182. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316823279.009>.
- Antoni, C.H., Baeten, X., Perkins, S.J., Shaw, J.D. and Vartiainen, M. (2017). Reward management: Linking Employee Motivation and Organizational Performance. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 16(2), pp.57–60. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000187>.
- Arredondo-Trapero, F.G., Vázquez-Parra, J.C. and González-Arredondo, A.S. (2021). Organizational citizenship behavior and job flexibility in Family-Responsible Companies: a study from the perspective of employee family situation. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 49(2), pp.251–267. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/ijse-05-2021-0269>.
- Ball, H.L. (2019). Conducting Online Surveys. *Journal of Human Lactation*, 35(3), pp.413–417. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0890334419848734>.
- Benson, S.G. and Dundis, S.P. (2003). Understanding and Motivating Health Care employees: Integrating Maslow's Hierarchy of needs, Training and Technology. *Journal of Nursing Management*, [online] 11(5), pp.315–320. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2834.2003.00409.x>.
- Bethlehem, J.G. (2009). *Applied survey methods : a statistical perspective*. Hoboken, N.J.: Wiley.

- Bhandari, P. (2021). *Designing a Questionnaire*. [online] Scribbr. Available at: <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/questionnaire/> [Accessed 18 Aug. 2024].
- Bilal, M.K., Jangir, J.M. and Bhakar, S.S. (2014). Development And Standardisation Of Motivation Measure For Dockyard Employees. *Prestige International Journal of Management & IT - Sanchayan*, 03(01), pp.32–40.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.37922/pijmit.2014.v03i01.004>.
- Bills, D.B. (1999). Labor Market Information and Selection in a Local Restaurant Industry: the Tenuous Balance between Rewards, Commitments, and Costs. *Sociological Forum*, 14(4), pp.583–607.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1021647819484>.
- Blackwell, G.R. (2018). Introduction to positivism, Interpretivism and Critical Theory. *Nurse Researcher*, 25(4), pp.41–49.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.7748/nr.2018.e1466>.
- Bolarinwa, O.A. (2015). Principles and methods of validity and reliability testing of questionnaires used in social and health science researches. *Nigerian Postgraduate Medical Journal*, 22(4), pp.195–201.
- Bonner, S.E., Hastie, R., Sprinkle, G.B. and Young, S.M. (2000). A Review of the Effects of Financial Incentives on Performance in Laboratory Tasks: Implications for Management Accounting. *Journal of Management Accounting Research*, 12(1), pp.19–64. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2308/jmar.2000.12.1.19>.
- Boynton, P.M. and Greenhalgh, T. (2004). Selecting, designing, and Developing Your Questionnaire. *BMJ*, [online] 328(7451), pp.1312–1315.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.328.7451.1312>.
- Adam, S., Amir, N., Jantan Anua Jah, N., Rahmat, N.H., Soopar, A.A. and Ahmad, M.K. (2021). Exploring Psychological and Self-Fulfilment Needs at the Workplace. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 11(8).
doi:<https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v11-i8/10500>.

- Agrawal, S. and Singh, S. (2021). Predictors of subjective career success amongst women employees: moderating role of perceived organizational support and marital status. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, ahead-of-print(ahead-of-print). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/gm-06-2020-0187>.
- Ahmed, I. (2011). Relationship between Motivation and Job Satisfaction: A Study of Higher Educational Institutions. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, 3(2), pp.94–100. doi:<https://doi.org/10.22610/jebis.v3i2.259>.
- Alderfer, C.P. (1989). Theories Reflecting My Personal Experience and Life Development. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 25(4), pp.351–365. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/002188638902500404>.
- Alessi, E.J. and Martin, J.I. (2010). Conducting an Internet-based Survey: Benefits, Pitfalls, and Lessons Learned. *Social Work Research*, 34(2), pp.122–128. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/swr/34.2.122>.
- Alhoussawi, H. (2023). Perspectives on Research Paradigms: A Guide for Education Researchers. *International Research in Education*, [online] 11(2), p.106. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5296/ire.v11i2.21445>.
- Aliyu, A.A., Bello, M.U., Kasim, R. and Martin, D. (2014). Positivist and Non-Positivist Paradigm in Social Science Research: Conflicting Paradigms or Perfect Partners? *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 4(3), pp.79–95. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5539/jms.v4n3p79>.
- Al-Khaled, A.A.Raqeb. (2014). The Effects of Human Resource Management Practices on Employees' Motivation and Retention. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2407263>.
- Alrawahi, S., Sellgren, S.F., Altouby, S., Alwahaibi, N. and Brommels, M. (2020). The application of Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation to job satisfaction in clinical laboratories in Omani hospitals. *Heliyon*, [online] 6(9). Available at: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7486437/>.

Anselme, P. and Robinson, M.J.F. (2019). Incentive Motivation. *The Cambridge Handbook of Motivation and Learning*, pp.163–182.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316823279.009>.

Antoni, C.H., Baeten, X., Perkins, S.J., Shaw, J.D. and Vartiainen, M. (2017). Reward management: Linking Employee Motivation and Organizational Performance.

Journal of Personnel Psychology, 16(2), pp.57–60. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000187>.

Arredondo-Trapero, F.G., Vázquez-Parra, J.C. and González-Arredondo, A.S. (2021). Organizational citizenship behavior and job flexibility in Family-Responsible Companies: a study from the perspective of employee family situation. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 49(2), pp.251–267. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/ijse-05-2021-0269>.

Ball, H.L. (2019). Conducting Online Surveys. *Journal of Human Lactation*, 35(3), pp.413–417. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0890334419848734>.

Benson, S.G. and Dundis, S.P. (2003). Understanding and Motivating Health Care employees: Integrating Maslow's Hierarchy of needs, Training and Technology.

Journal of Nursing Management, [online] 11(5), pp.315–320.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2834.2003.00409.x>.

Bethlehem, J.G. (2009). *Applied survey methods : a statistical perspective*. Hoboken, N.J.: Wiley.

Bhandari, P. (2021). *Designing a Questionnaire*. [online] Scribbr. Available at:

<https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/questionnaire/> [Accessed 18 Aug. 2024].

Bilal, M.K., Jangir, J.M. and Bhakar, S.S. (2014). Development And Standardisation Of Motivation Measure For Dockyard Employees. *Prestige International Journal of Management & IT - Sanchayan*, 03(01), pp.32–40.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.37922/pijmit.2014.v03i01.004>.

Bills, D.B. (1999). Labor Market Information and Selection in a Local Restaurant Industry: the Tenuous Balance between Rewards, Commitments, and Costs. *Sociological Forum*, 14(4), pp.583–607.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1021647819484>.

Blackwell, G.R. (2018). Introduction to positivism, Interpretivism and Critical Theory. *Nurse Researcher*, 25(4), pp.41–49.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.7748/nr.2018.e1466>.

Bolarinwa, O.A. (2015). Principles and methods of validity and reliability testing of questionnaires used in social and health science researches. *Nigerian Postgraduate Medical Journal*, 22(4), pp.195–201.

Bonner, S.E., Hastie, R., Sprinkle, G.B. and Young, S.M. (2000). A Review of the Effects of Financial Incentives on Performance in Laboratory Tasks: Implications for Management Accounting. *Journal of Management Accounting Research*, 12(1), pp.19–64. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2308/jmar.2000.12.1.19>.

Boynton, P.M. and Greenhalgh, T. (2004). Selecting, designing, and Developing Your Questionnaire. *BMJ*, [online] 328(7451), pp.1312–1315.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.328.7451.1312>.

Brewer, E.W., Torrisi-Steele, G. and Wang, V.X. (2015). Survey Research. *International Journal of Adult Vocational Education and Technology*, 6(4), pp.46–64.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.4018/ijavet.2015100106>.

Buriro, A., Ednut, N. and Khatoon, Z. (2021). PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNING AND PHENOMENOLOGY APPROACH IN SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH.

Asia-Pacific - Annual Research Journal of Far East & South East Asia, 38, pp.237–254. doi:<https://doi.org/10.47781/asia-pacific.vol38.iss0.2526>.

Burmeister, E. and Aitken, L.M. (2012). Sample size: How many is enough? *Australian Critical Care*, 25(4), pp.271–274.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aucc.2012.07.002>.

Byrne, M. (2006). The Implications of Herzberg's 'Motivation-Hygiene' Theory for Management in the Irish Health Sector. *The Health Care Manager*, 25(1), pp.4–11. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1097/00126450-200601000-00002>.

Chang, T.-Z. (2013). STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING DATA RELIABILITY FOR ONLINE SURVEYS: A CASE STUDY. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce Studies*, 4(1), pp.131–140. doi:<https://doi.org/10.7903/ijecs.1121>.

Chen, C., Elliot, A.J. and Sheldon, K.M. (2019). Psychological need support as a predictor of intrinsic and external motivation: the mediational role of achievement goals. *Educational Psychology*, 39(8), pp.1090–1113. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2019.1618442>.

Chen, G. and Kanfer, R. (2006). Toward a Systems Theory of Motivated Behavior in Work Teams. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 27, pp.223–267. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1016/s0191-3085\(06\)27006-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0191-3085(06)27006-0).

Chen, Q., He, T., Li, H., Zhang, Y., Shi, J. and Wang, Y. (2023). Job satisfaction and influencing factors among young medical staff based on ERG theory. *Hospital Administration and Medical Practices*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.54844/hamp.2023.0042>.

Cheng-Liang Yang (2011). An empirical study of the existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory in consumer's selection of mobile value-added services. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(19). doi:<https://doi.org/10.5897/ajbm10.1586>.

Chiew, F. (2022). Comte's posthumanist social science. *Thesis Eleven*, p.072551362210984. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/07255136221098440>.

Chirkov, V. and Anderson, J. (2018). Statistical positivism versus critical scientific realism. A comparison of two paradigms for motivation research: Part 1. A philosophical and empirical analysis of statistical positivism. *Theory & Psychology*, 28(6), pp.712–736. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0959354318804670>.

Clauzade, L. (2020). Auguste Comte and spiritualism. *British Journal for the History of Philosophy*, 28(5), pp.944–965.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/09608788.2020.1805721>.

Cooper, R.N. and Florida, R. (2005). The Flight of the Creative Class: The New Global Competition for Talent. *Foreign Affairs*, 84(5), p.170.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.2307/20031721>.

Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 4th ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Crouch, M. and McKenzie, H. (2006). The Logic of Small Samples in interview-based Qualitative Research. *Social Science Information*, 45(4), pp.483–499.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0539018406069584>.

Das, S., Mitra, K. and Mandal, M. (2016). Sample size calculation: Basic principles. *Indian Journal of Anaesthesia*, [online] 60(9), p.652.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.4103/0019-5049.190621>.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2013). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. Springer Science & Business Media.

Decker, C. and Van Quaquebeke, N. (2014). Getting Respect from a Boss You Respect: How Different Types of Respect Interact to Explain Subordinates' Job Satisfaction as Mediated by Self-Determination. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 131(3), pp.543–556. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2291-8>.

Diamantidis, A.D. and Chatzoglou, P. (2019). Factors Affecting Employee performance: an Empirical Approach. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 68(1), pp.171–193. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-01-2018-0012>.

Downes, S. (2024). How Santander is developing its managers to embed a diversity agenda across the workforce. *People Management*, pp.18-19.

Dudek, D. (2018). Survey Analyser: Effective Processing of Academic Questionnaire Data. *Advances in Intelligent Systems and Computing*, pp.245–257.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-99981-4_23.

Elijah, O., Alimi, O., & Alese, O., (2015). Non-financial incentives as motivational strategies for employees and organizational performance in the Nigerian banking industry. *International Journal of Marketing and Technology*, 5, pp. 1-20.

Emmenegger, P. (2010). Gendering Insiders and Outsiders. Labour Market Status and Preferences for Job Security. *SSRN Electronic Journal*.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1600059>.

Faber, J. and Fonseca, L.M. (2014). How sample size influences research outcomes. *Dental Press Journal of Orthodontics*, 19(4), pp.27–29.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1590/2176-9451.19.4.027-029.ebo>.

Finegold, D., Mohrman, S. and Spreitzer, G.M. (2002). Age effects on the predictors of technical workers' commitment and willingness to turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(5), pp.655–674. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.159>.

Fischmann, G., De Witte, H., Sulea, C. and Iliescu, D. (2018). Qualitative job insecurity and in-role performance: a bidirectional longitudinal relationship? *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 27(5), pp.603–615.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432x.2018.1504769>.

Ford, D. and Håkansson, H. (2013). Competition in business networks. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 42(7), pp.1017–1024.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2013.07.015>. Li, X. (2023). Literature Review on Employee Motivation. *International journal of education and humanities*, 10(1), pp.147–149. doi:<https://doi.org/10.54097/ijeh.v10i1.11106>.

Fraser, C. (2013). Association Between Two Categorical Variables: Contingency Analysis with Chi Square. *Springer eBooks*, pp.217–244.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-7381-7_9.

Ganesh Prasad Adhikari (2022). Interpreting the Basic Results of Multiple Linear Regression. *Scholars' Journal*, pp.22–37.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.3126/scholars.v5i1.55775>.

Ge, S. and Yang, D.T. (2014). CHANGES IN CHINA'S WAGE STRUCTURE. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, [online] 12(2), pp.300–336.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/jeea.12072>.

Gill, P., Stewart, K., Treasure, E. and Chadwick, B. (2008). Methods of data collection in qualitative research: Interviews and focus groups. *British Dental Journal*, [online] 204(6), pp.291–295. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1038/bdj.2008.192>.

Glaser, J., Hornung, S., Höge, T. and Seubert, C. (2017). Self-actualization in Modern Workplaces—Time-Lagged Effects of New Job Demands and Job Resources on Motivation, Meaning and Self-efficacy at Work. *Advances in intelligent systems and computing*. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-60828-0_26.

Gopi Shah Goda, Shoven, J.B. and Sita Nataraj Slavov (2007). Social Security and the Timing of Divorce. *RePEc: Research Papers in Economics*.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.3386/w13382>.

GORMAN, E.H. (2000). Marriage and Money. *Work and Occupations*, 27(1), pp.64–88. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888400027001004>.

Guo, M. (2023). Motivation at work: An analysis from the self-determination theory perspective. *SHS Web of Conferences*, [online] 180, p.03017.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/202318003017>.

Haslam, S.A., Powell, C. and Turner, J. (2000). Social Identity, Self-categorization, and Work Motivation: Rethinking the Contribution of the Group to Positive and Sustainable Organisational Outcomes. *Applied Psychology*, 49(3), pp.319–339.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00018>.

Herzberg, F. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*. 2nd ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

- Hsueh, Y. (2002). The Hawthorne experiments and the introduction of Jean Piaget in American industrial psychology, 1929-1932. *History of Psychology*, 5(2), pp.163–189. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1037/1093-4510.5.2.163>.
- Hur, H. (2019). Job security matters: A systematic review and meta-analysis of the relationship between job security and work attitudes. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 28(5), pp.1–31. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2019.3>.
- Igbinomwanhia, O., Iyayi, O. and Iyayi, F. (2012). Employee Work-Life Balance as an HR Imperative. *African Research Review*, 6(3). doi:<https://doi.org/10.4314/afrrrev.v6i3.8>.
- Ijaz, M. (2013). The impact of Non-Financial Incentives on employees' motivation. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 15(4), pp.37–46. doi:<https://doi.org/10.9790/487x-1543746>.
- Ilieva, S. and Vitanova, V. (2019). CAREER DEVELOPMENT EXPECTATIONS OF YOUNG PEOPLE. *Knowledge International Journal*, 34(6), pp.1743–1748. doi:<https://doi.org/10.35120/kij34061743i>.
- Ismail, A., Adnan, N. and Bakar, R. (2014). Perceived career development support in workplace career programme. *Ekonomski anali*, [online] 59(201), pp.157–175. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2298/eka1401157i>.
- J., R., Opatha, H.H.D.N.P. and M. D., P. (2017). A Synthesis towards the Construct of Job Performance. *International Business Research*, 10(10), p.66. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v10n10p66>.
- Jasiyah, R. (2018). The effect of ability and motivation on job satisfaction and employee performance. *Archives of Business Research*, 6(12). doi:<https://doi.org/10.14738/abr.612.5644>.

- K. Sandhya and D. Pradeep Kumar (2011). Employee Retention by Motivation. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, [online] 4(12), pp.1778–1782.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.17485/ijst/2011/v4i12/30326>.
- Kamau, N.N. (2017). INFLUENCE OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES ON EMPLOYEE RETENTION IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA A CASE OF TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY OF KENYA. *Strategic Journal of Business & Change Management*, [online] 4(2). doi:<https://doi.org/10.61426/sjbcm.v4i2.448>.
- Karbwang, J., Koonrungsomboon, N., Torres, C.E., Jimenez, E.B., Kaur, G., Mathur, R., Sholikhah, E.N., Wanigatunge, C., Wong, C.-S., Yimtae, K., Abdul Malek, M., Ahamad Fouzi, L., Ali, A., Chan, B.Z., Chandratilake, M., Chiew, S.C., Chin, M.Y.C., Gamage, M., Gitek, I. and Hakimi, M. (2018). What information and the extent of information research participants need in informed consent forms: a multi-country survey. *BMC Medical Ethics*, 19(1).
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12910-018-0318-x>.
- Kaufman, S.B. (2018). Self-Actualizing People in the 21st Century: Integration With Contemporary Theory and Research on Personality and Well-Being. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, [online] 63(1), p.002216781880918.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022167818809187>.
- Kim, H., 2014. Work-Life Balance and Employees' Performance: The Mediating Role of Affective Commitment. *Global Business and Management Research: An International Journal*, 6, pp. 37.
- Knaack, P. (1984). Phenomenological Research. *Western Journal of Nursing Research*, 6(1), pp.107–114. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/019394598400600108>.
- Kossek, E.E., Su, R. and Wu, L. (2017). ‘Opting Out’ or ‘Pushed Out’? Integrating Perspectives on Women’s Career Equality for Gender Inclusion and Interventions. *Journal of Management*, 43(1), pp.228–254.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316671582>.

Kullgren, J.T., Williams, G.C., Resnicow, K., An, L.C., Rothberg, A., Volpp, K.G. and Heisler, M. (2016). The promise of tailoring incentives for healthy behaviors. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, [online] 9(1), pp.2–16. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/ijwhm-12-2014-0060>.

Kusurkar, R.A., Croiset, G. and Olle Th. J. Ten Cate (2011). Twelve tips to stimulate intrinsic motivation in students through autonomy-supportive classroom teaching derived from Self-Determination Theory. *Medical Teacher*, [online] 33(12), pp.978–982. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3109/0142159x.2011.599896>.

LaGree, D., Houston, B., Duffy, M. and Shin, H. (2021). The Effect of Respect: Respectful Communication at Work Drives Resiliency, Engagement, and Job Satisfaction among Early Career Employees. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 60(3), p.232948842110165. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/23294884211016529>.

Legg, S.J., Olsen, K.B., Laird, I.S. and Hasle, P. (2015). Managing safety in small and medium enterprises. *Safety Science*, 71, pp.189–196. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2014.11.007>.

Lepper, M.R., Henderlong, J. and Gingras, I. (1999). Understanding the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation—Uses and abuses of meta-analysis: Comment on Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999). *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(6), pp.669–676. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.6.669>.

Levesque, C., Zuehlke, A.N., Stanek, L.R. and Ryan, R.M. (2004). Autonomy and Competence in German and American University Students: A Comparative Study Based on Self-Determination Theory. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 96(1), pp.68–84. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.96.1.68>.

Liming, D. (2009). More than Food and Drink: Careers in Restaurants. *Occupational outlook quarterly/Occupational outlook quarterly online*, 53(1), pp.22–33.

- Liu, Y.-H. and Jie, X.-W. (2017). Exploring Haidilao Service Creativity: The Perspective of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. *Proceedings of the 2017 2nd International Conference on Humanities and Social Science (HSS 2017)*, 83. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2991/hss-17.2017.93>.
- Maidani, E.A. (1991). Comparative Study of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction among Public and Private Sectors. *Public Personnel Management*, 20(4), pp.441–448. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/009102609102000405>.
- Marchante, A.J., Ortega, B. and Pagán, R. (2007). An Analysis of Educational Mismatch and Labor Mobility in the Hospitality Industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 31(3), pp.299–320. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348007299920>.
- Marsden, P.V. (2011). Margins of Error: A Study of Reliability in Survey Measurement. *Contemporary Sociology: A Journal of Reviews*, 40(2), pp.150–151. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0094306110396847>.
- Maslow, A. (1943). *A theory of human motivation*. [online] Psychological Review. Available at: <https://psychclassics.yorku.ca/Maslow/motivation.htm> [Accessed 2 Jul. 2024].
- Matei, M.-C. and Abrudan, M.-M. (2016). Adapting Herzberg's Two Factor Theory to the Cultural Context of Romania. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 221(1), pp.95–104. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.05.094>.
- McColl, E., Jacoby, A., Thomas, L., Soutter, J., Bamford, C., Steen, N., Thomas, R., Harvey, E., Garratt, A. and Bond, J. (2001). Design and use of questionnaires: a review of best practice applicable to surveys of health service staff and patients. *Health Technology Assessment*, 5(31). doi:<https://doi.org/10.3310/hta5310>.
- McHugh, M.L. (2013). The Chi-square Test of Independence. *Biochemia Medica*, [online] 23(2), pp.143–149. doi:<https://doi.org/10.11613/bm.2013.018>.

McLafferty, I. (2004). Focus group interviews as a data collecting strategy. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 48(2), pp.187–194. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2004.03186.x>.

Menguc, B., Auh, S. and Ozanne, L. (2019). The Interactive Effect of Internal and External Factors on a Proactive Environmental Strategy and its Influence on a Firm's Performance. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 94(2), pp.279–298. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-009-0264-0>.

Meyer, J.P., Becker, T.E. and Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee Commitment and Motivation: A Conceptual Analysis and Integrative Model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(6), pp.991–1007. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.6.991>.

Mittal, K. (2023). ROLE OF NON-MONETARY MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY. *PsychologyandEducation*, 55(1). doi:<https://doi.org/10.48047/pne.2018.55.1.12>.

Mohamad, S.F., Ying, L.L., Othman, M., Abidin, U.F.U.Z., Ishak, F.A.C. and Bakar, A.Z.A. (2020). Demanded Competencies of the Entry-Level Position in the Restaurant Industry: Employers' Perspectives. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 10(3). doi:<https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v10-i3/7095>.

Moyle, P. (1998). Longitudinal influences of managerial support on employee well-being. *Work & Stress*, 12(1), pp.29–49. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/02678379808256847>.

Msuha, B. and Mdendemi, T. (2019). Hypothesis Testing for the Association Between Categorical Variables: Empirical Application of Chi square Test. *Mathematical Theory and Modeling*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.7176/mtm/9-2-02>.

Murphy, J., Dean, E., Sarah Gibbard Cook and Keating, M.J. (2011). The effect of interviewer image in a virtual-world survey. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3768/rtipress.2010.rr.0014.1012>.

Nalipay, M.J.N., King, R.B. and Cai, Y. (2020). Autonomy is equally important across East and West: Testing the cross-cultural universality of self-determination theory. *Journal of Adolescence*, 78(1), pp.67–72.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2019.12.009>.

National Bureau of Statistics of China (2023). *Average wages by industry and sector in 2022*. [online] www.ce.cn. Available at:

http://www.ce.cn/xwzx/gnsz/gdxw/202305/09/t20230509_38538196.shtml [Accessed 24 Sep. 2024].

National Bureau of Statistics of China (2023). *The Average Annual Wage of Persons Employed in Urban Private Units in 2022*. [online] www.stats.gov.cn. Available at: https://www.stats.gov.cn/english/PressRelease/202305/t20230517_1939625.html [Accessed 25 Aug. 2024].

Neil, C.C. and Snizek, W.E. (1987). Work Values, Job Characteristics, and Gender. *Sociological Perspectives*, 30(3), pp.245–265. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2307/1389112>.

NG, T.W.H. (2015). Embedding Employees Early On: The Importance of Workplace Respect. *Personnel Psychology*, 69(3), pp.599–633.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12117>.

Ngai, L.R. and Petrongolo, B. (2017). Gender Gaps and the Rise of the Service Economy. *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics*, 9(4), pp.1–44.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1257/mac.20150253>.

Njoroge, C.N. and Yazdanifard, R., (2014). The impact of social and emotional intelligence on employee motivation in a multigenerational workplace. *International Journal of Information, Business and Management*, 6(4), p.163.

Nwannebuife, A.S., Chucks, O., Daniel, Oluseye, O., Ogunnaike and Onayemi, O. (2020). Empirical Examination of Intrinsic Motivation as a Predictor of Organizational Productivity. *The International Journal of Business & Management*, 8(9). doi:<https://doi.org/10.24940/theijbm/2020/v8/i9/bm2009-055>.

- Ou, W.-M. and Wang, H.-D. (2007). Controllability as a Moderator of the Effect of Salaries on Performance: An Empirical Study. *International journal of management*, 24(4), p.657.
- Palmieri, M. (2017). An Innovative Approach to Pretest Questionnaire: The Analysis of Respondents' Comments in the Flexible Interview. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 49(1), pp.108–132. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124117729699>.
- Park, Y.S., Konge, L. and Artino, A.R. (2020). The Positivism Paradigm of Research. *Academic Medicine*, [online] 95(5), pp.690–694. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0000000000003093>.
- Parker, A. and Tritter, J. (2021). Focus Groups. *Oxford University Press eBooks*, pp.123–126. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/hepl/9780198850298.003.0030>.
- Parkes, L.P. and Langford, P.H. (2008). Work–life balance or work–life alignment? A test of the importance of work-life balance for employee engagement and intention to stay in organisations. *Journal of Management & Organization*, [online] 14(3), pp.267–284. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1017/s1833367200003278>.
- QUADRI, T. (2022). The Impact of Motivation Programs on Employees Performance. *INTERANTIONAL JOURNAL OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH IN ENGINEERING AND MANAGEMENT*, 06(05). doi:<https://doi.org/10.55041/ijsrem13150>.
- Rahmadani, V.G., Schaufeli, W.B., Ivanova, T.Y. and Osin, E.N. (2019). Basic psychological need satisfaction mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement: A cross-national study. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 30(4), pp.453–471. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21366>.
- Rahman, Md.M. (2023). Navigating the Landscape of Research Paradigms: An Overview and Critique. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4392879>.

- Renee Barnett, B. and Bradley, L. (2007). The impact of organisational support for career development on career satisfaction. *Career Development International*, 12(7), pp.617–636. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430710834396>.
- Renninger, K.A. and Bachrach, J.E. (2015). Studying Triggers for Interest and Engagement Using Observational Methods. *Educational Psychologist*, 50(1), pp.58–69. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2014.999920>.
- Revilla, M., Ochoa, C. and Turbina, A. (2016). Making use of Internet interactivity to propose a dynamic presentation of web questionnaires. *Quality & Quantity*, 51(3), pp.1321–1336. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-016-0333-2>.
- Riak PhD, G.A. and Bill, D.B.A. (2022). THE ROLE OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION. *IJRDO - Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research*, 8(11), pp.40–44. doi:<https://doi.org/10.53555/sshr.v8i11.5388>.
- Rocha, R.G. and Pinheiro, P.G. (2020). Organizational Spirituality: Concept and Perspectives. *Journal of Business Ethics*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-020-04463-y>.
- Ruzzene, A. (2011). The Case Study as Research Method: A Practical Handbook. *International Studies in the Philosophy of Science*, 25(3), pp.293–296. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/02698595.2011.605251>.
- Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic motivation, Social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), pp.68–78. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68>.
- Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic motivation, Social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), pp.68–78. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68>.

Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L. (2017). *Self-Determination Theory: Basic Psychological Needs in Motivation, Development, and Wellness*. Guilford Press.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1521/978.14625/28806>.

Saris, W.E. and Revilla, M. (2015). Correction for Measurement Errors in Survey Research: Necessary and Possible. *Social Indicators Research*, 127(3), pp.1005–1020.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-015-1002-x>.

Satter, E. (2007). Hierarchy of Food Needs. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior*, [online] 39(5), pp.S187–S188.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneb.2007.01.003>.

SERGIOVANNI, T. (1967). Factors Which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 5(1), pp.66–82.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/eb009610>.

Shah, A.A. (2021). Positivism and Interpretivism. *Qlantic Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(1), pp.20–26.

Singer, E., Van Hoewyk, J. and Maher, M.P. (2000). Experiments with Incentives in Telephone Surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 64(2), pp.171–188.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1086/317761>.

Singh, T. and Behera, M.P. (2016). Application of the Maslow's Hierarchy of Need Theory: Impacts and Implications on Employee's Career Stages. *Training & Development Journal*, 7(2), p.43. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5958/2231-069x.2016.00007.x>.

Singh, T. and Behera, M.P. (2016). Application of the Maslow's Hierarchy of Need Theory: Impacts and Implications on Employee's Career Stages. *Training & Development Journal*, 7(2), p.43. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5958/2231-069x.2016.00007.x>.

- Sinha, R. (2020). Career Development: An Enabler for Job Satisfaction. *Career Development and Job Satisfaction*. [online]
doi:<https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.91683>.
- Skrok, J., Strońska-Szymanek, A., Marcin Kolemba and Janusz Surzykiewicz (2023). Motivation and Meeting Needs at Work vs. Work-Life Balance and Sense of Life Satisfaction of Employees of Polish Corporations in the Period Before the Covid-19 Pandemic. *Lubelski Rocznik Pedagogiczny*, 42(2), pp.195–210.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.17951/lrp.2023.42.2.195-210>.
- Smerek, R.E. and Peterson, M. (2006). Examining Herzberg's Theory: Improving Job Satisfaction among Non-academic Employees at a University. *Research in Higher Education*, 48(2), pp.229–250. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-006-9042-3>.
- Smith, J.A. and Osborn, M. (2008). Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis. *Doing Social Psychology Research*, [online] 5(5), pp.229–254.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470776278.ch10>.
- South, L., Saffo, D., Vitek, O., Dunne, C. and Borkin, M.A. (2022). Effective Use of Likert Scales in Visualization Evaluations: A Systematic Review. *Computer Graphics Forum*, 41(3), pp.43–55. doi:<https://doi.org/doi.org/10.1111/cgf.14521>.
- Stratton, S.J. (2015). Assessing the Accuracy of Survey Research. *Prehospital and Disaster Medicine*, [online] 30(3), pp.225–226.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1017/s1049023x15004719>.
- Sullivan, M.D., Kudus, F., Dyson, B.J. and Spaniol, J. (2022). Fleeting Effects of Incentives: Adult Age Differences in ERP Measures of Motivated Attention. *bioRxiv (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory)*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.04.18.488665>.
- TANAKA, Y. and KAWAGUCHI, M. (2016). Observational Study. *THE JOURNAL OF JAPAN SOCIETY FOR CLINICAL ANESTHESIA*, 36(7), pp.676–680.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.2199/jjsca.36.676>.

Taormina, R.J. (2009). Organizational socialization: the missing link between employee needs and organizational culture. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24(7), pp.650–676. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940910989039>.

Tereshchenko, V.I., Frankiv, D.I. and Khudoliy, L.A. (2021). The influence of motivation on the psychophysiological state of a person. *Scientific Journal of National Pedagogical Dragomanov University. Series 15. Scientific and pedagogical problems of physical culture (physical culture and sports)*, (6(137)), pp.101–105. doi:[https://doi.org/10.31392/npu-nc.series15.2021.6\(137\).24](https://doi.org/10.31392/npu-nc.series15.2021.6(137).24).

Tierney, P. and Farmer, S.M. (2011). Creative self-efficacy development and creative performance over time. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(2), pp.277–293. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020952>.

Tohidi, H. and Jabbari, M.M. (2012). The Effects of Motivation in Education. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 31(31), pp.820–824.

Towers, N., Abushaikha, I., Ritchie, J. and Holter, A. (2020). The impact of phenomenological methodology development in supply chain management research. *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, 25(4), pp.443–456. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/scm-04-2019-0153>.

Turner, J.H. (1985). In Defense of Positivism. *Sociological Theory*, 3(2), p.24. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2307/202222>.

Upadhyaya, C., (2014). Application of the Maslow's hierarchy of need theory; impacts and implications on organizational culture, human resource and employee's performance. *International Journal of Education and Management Studies*, 4(4), pp.353.

Upadhyaya, C., 2015. Application of the Maslow's hierarchy of need theory; impacts and implications on organizational culture, human resource and employee's performance. *International Journal of Education and Management Studies*, 4, pp. 353-356.

Van den Broeck, A., Ferris, D.L., Chang, C.-H. and Rosen, C.C. (2016). A Review of Self-Determination Theory's Basic Psychological Needs at Work. *Journal of Management*, 42(5), pp.1195–1229.

Wagner-Tsukamoto, S. (2007). An Institutional Economic Reconstruction of Scientific Management: On the Lost Theoretical Logic of Taylorism. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(1), pp.105–117.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.23463879>.

Weiner, B. (2001). Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Theories of Motivation from an Attribution Perspective. *Student Motivation*, pp.17–30.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4615-1273-8_2.

Wellings, K., Branigan, P. and Mitchell, K. (2000). Discomfort, discord and discontinuity as data: Using focus groups to research sensitive topics. *Culture, Health & Sexuality*, 2(3), pp.255–267. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/136910500422241>.

Whitehouse, E. (2024). Diversity is a big problem to solve, but if we don't try we won't make a difference. *People Management*, pp.9-11.

Wilford, C. (2022). *Why your people are your most important investment in a recession*. [online] www.peoplemanagement.co.uk. Available at: <https://www.peoplemanagement.co.uk/article/1804711/why-people-important-investment-recession> [Accessed 25 Sep. 2024].

Wraw, E. (2024). For great wellbeing, we need to get the basics right first. *People Management*, p.23.

Yin, X. and Zeng, L. (2020). A study on the psychological needs of nurses caring for patients with coronavirus disease 2019 from the perspective of the existence, relatedness, and growth theory. *International Journal of Nursing Sciences*, [online] 7(2). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnss.2020.04.002>.

Yousaf, S. (2019). Dissection of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory to Predict Job Satisfaction: Empirical Evidence from the Telecommunication Industry of Pakistan. *Lahore Journal of Business*, 8(2), pp.85–128.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.35536/ljb.2019.v8.v2.a4>.

Zeng, G., Go, F. and de Vries, H.J. (2012). Paradox of authenticity versus standardization: Expansion strategies of restaurant groups in China. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(4), pp.1090–1100.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.01.006>.

Appendix 1

Questionnaire

A Study of the Employee Motivation System of Haidilao

Dear Respondents

Enclosed please find a short questionnaire designed to assess the motivational needs of Haidilao employees and their satisfaction with the organisation's motivational policies. Everything you say will be kept confidential and all survey results are anonymous and you cannot be identified from the survey results.

If you have any questions or queries before completing/submitting your responses, please feel free to contact us directly via this email zqh2723@gmail.com.

Once again, thank you for your participation,

Best regards

Huang Ziqian

1. Your gender:

☐ Male

☐ Female

☐ Other

☐ Prefer not to say

2. Your age:

☐ 18~25

☐ 26~35

☐ 36~45

☐ 46~55

☐ 56 years and above

3. Your tenure:

☐ Less than a year

☐ 1-3 years

☐ 4-6 years

☐ 7-10 years

☐ More than 10 years

4. Your marital status:

- ☐ Single
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Separated/Divorced

5. Your educational level:

- ☐ High school or below
- ☐ Associate degree
- ☐ Bachelor's degree
- ☐ Master's degree or above

6. Your role in the organization:

- ☐ Employee
- ☐ Supervisor
- ☐ Manager
- ☐ Senior Management

7. Your monthly salary level:

- ☐ Below 3000 RMB
- ☐ 3001-6000 RMB
- ☐ 6001-9000 RMB
- ☐ 9001-12000 RMB
- ☐ above 12000 RMB

8. Which of the following factors do you value the most? Please select the appropriate option according to your opinion (1=Not important at all, 7=Very important):

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
financial incentive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Career development opportunities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Job security	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Work environment and culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Support from management	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Work-life balance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Company's mission and values	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social security and health insurance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Questionnaire Result

Number	Submission Time	Duration	Source	IP Address	Gender	Age	Tenure	Marital	SEducation	Role	Salary	Financial Incentive	Career Development	Job Security	Work Environment	Support from Management	Work-life Balance	Social Security and Health Insurance
1	2024-7-10 16:22	271 seconds	WeChat	60.30.142.206 (Tianjin)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	6	3	5	4	7	5	4
2	2024-7-11 9:49	139 seconds	WeChat	14.29.133.184 (Guangzhou)	Female	46-55	More than	Married	High school or below	Senior Management	above 12000 RMB	4	1	7	6	4	7	6
3	2024-7-11 9:52	113 seconds	WeChat	60.30.232.65 (Tianjin)	Female	36-45	7-10 year	Married	High school or below	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	6	4	6	6	6	6	7
4	2024-7-11 12:56	295 seconds	WeChat	117.136.44.36 (Xi'an)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	7	6	6	5	6	7
5	2024-7-11 14:03	148 seconds	WeChat	117.136.204.78 (Xi'an)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	5	5	6	6	5	5
6	2024-7-11 15:47	276 seconds	WeChat	222.189.157.94 (Nanjing)	Female	18-25	Less than	Married	Associate degree	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	7	6	6	6	7	6	7
7	2024-7-12 7:10	126 seconds	WeChat	115.193.78.150 (Hangzhou)	Female	18-25	Less than	Single	High school or below	Manager	6001-9000 RMB	7	6	5	7	5	4	4
8	2024-7-12 14:14	220 seconds	WeChat	183.14.40.29 (Shenzhen)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Married	Associate degree	Manager	9001-12000 RMB	7	4	6	6	4	6	7
9	2024-7-13 15:33	187 seconds	WeChat	117.136.235.189 (Xi'an)	Male	26-35	Less than	Separated	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	6	5	4	6	4	5
10	2024-7-13 20:19	193 seconds	WeChat	36.112.226.85 (Beijing)	Male	36-45	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	3	7	6	3	6	6
11	2024-7-14 9:27	114 seconds	WeChat	222.189.121.159 (Nanjing)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Senior Management	3001-6000 RMB	5	5	5	6	6	5	4
12	2024-7-14 18:48	109 seconds	WeChat	61.157.152.95 (Chengdu)	Male	46-55	More than	Separated	Associate degree	Senior Management	above 12000 RMB	5	2	7	2	3	7	7
13	2024-7-15 12:38	113 seconds	WeChat	117.136.189.252 (Xi'an)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Separated	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	7	2	6	5	4	6	7
14	2024-7-15 15:42	158 seconds	WeChat	117.136.51.161 (Xi'an)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	High school or below	Manager	Below 3000 RMB	5	6	6	7	5	5	6
15	2024-7-15 20:42	125 seconds	WeChat	58.32.195.192 (Shanghai)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	6	7	5	6	7	5	4
16	2024-7-16 9:10	123 seconds	WeChat	115.193.165.237 (Hangzhou)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	7	6	5	5	5	5	5
17	2024-7-17 10:59	212 seconds	WeChat	36.112.136.127 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	6	5	4	5	4	5
18	2024-7-17 12:22	153 seconds	WeChat	117.136.77.113 (Xi'an)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	4	6	5	5	6	6	4
19	2024-7-17 12:56	133 seconds	WeChat	60.30.142.204 (Tianjin)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	6	6	6	6	6	7
20	2024-7-17 14:14	141 seconds	WeChat	60.30.25.78 (Tianjin)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	7	5	6	6	6	6	6
21	2024-7-17 16:01	193 seconds	WeChat	58.32.99.85 (Shanghai)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	5	4	6	6	6	7	7
22	2024-7-18 9:39	277 seconds	WeChat	60.30.114.244 (Tianjin)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	6	7	5	4	7	5
23	2024-7-18 10:44	165 seconds	WeChat	60.30.93.174 (Tianjin)	Female	18-25	Less than	Single	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	7	5	4	6	4	5
24	2024-7-18 11:00	165 seconds	WeChat	117.151.114.59 (Wuhan)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	above 12000 RMB	7	6	6	6	5	7	7
25	2024-7-18 11:06	144 seconds	WeChat	14.29.24.107 (Guangzhou)	Male	26-35	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
26	2024-7-18 16:47	222 seconds	WeChat	117.136.214.64 (Xi'an)	Male	36-45	7-10 year	Married	Associate degree	Manager	3001-6000 RMB	7	5	7	6	5	7	7
27	2024-7-18 19:22	118 seconds	WeChat	58.32.111.57 (Shanghai)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	5	4	6	5	3	5
28	2024-7-18 19:50	227 seconds	WeChat	58.32.112.91 (Shanghai)	Male	26-35	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	6	7	4	6	6	6
29	2024-7-19 7:30	236 seconds	WeChat	117.151.43.27 (Wuhan)	Male	26-35	7-10 year	Single	High school or below	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	5	7	3	5	6	4	4
30	2024-7-19 10:04	207 seconds	WeChat	61.157.164.60 (Chengdu)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	7	6	5	4	5	5	5
31	2024-7-19 16:17	198 seconds	WeChat	115.193.135.166 (Hangzhou)	Female	26-35	7-10 year	Married	Associate degree	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	5	6	5	5	5	5	7
32	2024-7-19 18:39	248 seconds	WeChat	36.112.94.118 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	7	6	5	6	5	6
33	2024-7-19 18:54	290 seconds	WeChat	222.189.129.154 (Nanjing)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	7	5	4	6	6	5
34	2024-7-20 7:20	152 seconds	WeChat	61.157.39.248 (Chengdu)	Female	36-45	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	4	3	6	6	2	5	7
35	2024-7-20 17:22	209 seconds	WeChat	115.193.41.35 (Hangzhou)	Female	46-55	More than	Married	High school or below	Manager	9001-12000 RMB	5	3	6	5	3	6	6
36	2024-7-21 8:33	165 seconds	WeChat	183.14.45.180 (Shenzhen)	Male	36-45	4-6 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	4	7	4	5	7	7
37	2024-7-21 8:48	275 seconds	WeChat	183.14.82.247 (Shenzhen)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Associate degree	Manager	3001-6000 RMB	7	7	3	6	5	4	5
38	2024-7-21 11:17	203 seconds	WeChat	58.32.116.108 (Shanghai)	Female	18-25	Less than	Single	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	5	5	7	6	2	5
39	2024-7-21 14:47	116 seconds	WeChat	117.136.43.42 (Xi'an)	Female	26-35	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	7	5	6	6	5	7	7
40	2024-7-22 17:26	125 seconds	WeChat	36.112.40.125 (Beijing)	Female	26-35	1-3 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	6	5	4	6	4	5
41	2024-7-22 19:31	162 seconds	WeChat	61.157.32.126 (Chengdu)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	5	5	6	5	4
42	2024-7-23 8:04	109 seconds	WeChat	61.157.188.73 (Chengdu)	Female	26-35	More than	Separated	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	7	5	6	6	5	6
43	2024-7-23 17:14	281 seconds	WeChat	117.151.169.75 (Wuhan)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	6	4	6	2	4	4
44	2024-7-24 7:00	131 seconds	WeChat	117.151.94.149 (Wuhan)	Female	36-45	More than	Single	Associate degree	Manager	6001-9000 RMB	7	6	7	6	4	5	6
45	2024-7-24 8:08	257 seconds	WeChat	222.189.135.90 (Nanjing)	Male	18-25	Less than	Single	High school or below	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	4	4	4	3	5	4
46	2024-7-24 14:40	115 seconds	WeChat	183.14.7.37 (Shenzhen)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Separated	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	5	4	6	5	5
47	2024-7-24 15:25	85 seconds	WeChat	58.32.225.216 (Shanghai)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Separated	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	6	3	4	7	4	5
48	2024-7-24 18:43	158 seconds	WeChat	61.157.223.33 (Chengdu)	Female	26-35	More than	Married	Associate degree	Senior Management	Below 3000 RMB	5	6	7	5	5	7	6
49	2024-7-24 19:42	85 seconds	WeChat	222.189.240.149 (Nanjing)	Female	26-35	More than	Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	6	7	5	5	5	4	4
50	2024-7-25 12:11	237 seconds	WeChat	58.32.219.180 (Shanghai)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	7	6	4	5	2	4	5

51	2024-7-25 18:00 109 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 145, 136 (Guangzhou)	Female	46-55	7-10 year	Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	5	7	4	4	7	6
52	2024-7-25 20:31 68 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 95, 125 (Tianjin)	Female	36-45	7-10 year	Married	Associate degree	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	6	7	6	6	6	6	6
53	2024-7-25 20:53 246 seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 69, 25 (Chengdu)	Female	36-45	7-10 year	Married	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	7	5	7	6	5	6	7
54	2024-7-26 6:33 177 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 37, 223 (Beijing)	Male	36-45	1-3 years	Separated	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	4	4	5	7	4	7
55	2024-7-26 8:44 190 seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 45, 108 (Xi'an)	Female	26-35	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	above 12000 RMB	6	7	6	5	6	4	6
56	2024-7-26 16:26 237 seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 117, 89 (Chengdu)	Male	36-45	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	4	6	5	2	6	6
57	2024-7-27 10:52 183 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 69, 85 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	5	4	3	4	5	5
58	2024-7-27 17:42 184 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 84, 69 (Shanghai)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	3	7	7	5	5	7	6
59	2024-7-28 12:09 228 seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 237, 53 (Chengdu)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	6	5	5	6	5	4
60	2024-7-28 13:04 260 seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 24, 75 (Xi'an)	Female	18-25	Less than	Single	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	6	5	6	6	5	5
61	2024-7-29 6:05 66 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 110, 203 (Tianjin)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Associate degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	5	5	5	5	7	4	4
62	2024-7-29 15:41 155 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 189, 44 (Guangzhou)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Employee	above 12000 RMB	6	6	5	6	6	4	6
63	2024-7-30 9:21 172 seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 47, 81 (Nanjing)	Female	36-45	Less than	Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	5	6	6	4	7	7
64	2024-7-30 16:00 186 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 171, 28 (Guangzhou)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	5	6	6	5	4	5
65	2024-7-30 16:56 266 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 58, 40 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Separated	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	7	3	6	6	5	5
66	2024-7-31 8:10 175 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 37, 0 (Guangzhou)	Female	26-35	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	4	3	5	6	6	5
67	2024-7-31 10:50 231 seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 250, 170 (Wuhan)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	6	5	4	6	5	4
68	2024-7-31 11:11 209 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 131, 205 (Shenzhen)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	3	7	6	4	6	6
69	2024-7-31 11:32 173 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 244, 105 (Shanghai)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	High school or below	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	3	6	7	6	6	5	5
70	2024-7-31 14:59 144 seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 218, 179 (Nanjing)	Male	46-55	7-10 year	Married	High school or below	Manager	9001-12000 RMB	5	3	7	5	4	6	7
71	2024-7-31 16:08 211 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 78, 5 (Shanghai)	Male	36-45	7-10 year	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	5	6	5	3	5	6
72	2024-7-31 20:48 132 seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 23, 249 (Xi'an)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Separated	Bachelor's degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	4	6	6	7	5	7	5
73	2024-8-1 16:52 214 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 213, 245 (Tianjin)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	6	6	6	6	5	5	4
74	2024-8-2 8:07 187 seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 252, 128 (Chengdu)	Male	36-45	7-10 year	Married	Associate degree	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	6	4	7	5	4	7	7
75	2024-8-2 12:24 237 seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 23, 57 (Wuhan)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	above 12000 RMB	7	5	7	5	4	6	7
76	2024-8-2 14:51 230 seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 202, 181 (Hangzhou)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Separated	Master's degree or above	Manager	9001-12000 RMB	7	6	5	6	5	6	7
77	2024-8-2 17:34 218 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 105, 32 (Shanghai)	Female	36-45	7-10 year	Single	High school or below	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	5	3	7	6	5	5	6
78	2024-8-3 6:43 292 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 198, 101 (Beijing)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	7	7	5	7	7	7
79	2024-8-3 7:28 186 seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 201, 47 (Wuhan)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Separated	Master's degree or above	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	7	5	5	5	4	5
80	2024-8-3 10:50 143 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 36, 33 (Shanghai)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	6	6	5	6	6	5	5
81	2024-8-3 12:16 75 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 103, 47 (Beijing)	Female	36-45	7-10 year	Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	6	7	5	6	6	6
82	2024-8-3 14:44 123 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 115, 241 (Beijing)	Male	26-35	1-3 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	5	4	6	6	6	6	7
83	2024-8-4 12:00 237 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 118, 57 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	6	6	4	5	6	5
84	2024-8-4 18:17 216 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 229, 227 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	Less than	Single	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	7	4	6	6	4	6
85	2024-8-4 19:32 239 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 112, 187 (Tianjin)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Married	Bachelor's degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	6	7	5	7	6	5	5
86	2024-8-4 19:36 265 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 63, 52 (Shanghai)	Female	18-25	Less than	Separated	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	7	6	5	6	6	5
87	2024-8-4 20:58 176 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 98, 55 (Tianjin)	Male	36-45	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	3	7	5	5	6	7
88	2024-8-5 12:18 286 seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 169, 244 (Nanjing)	Female	26-35	4-6 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	5	3	7	6	4	4
89	2024-8-5 16:17 228 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 154, 139 (Tianjin)	Female	36-45	1-3 years	Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	above 12000 RMB	6	7	6	6	6	5	6
90	2024-8-5 16:27 88 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 96, 94 (Tianjin)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	3	6	6	6	6	7
91	2024-8-5 17:07 168 seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 165, 33 (Hangzhou)	Female	18-25	Less than	Single	Associate degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	7	7	4	6	6	5	4
92	2024-8-5 17:40 241 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 214, 72 (Shanghai)	Male	36-45	Less than	Married	Associate degree	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	7	5	6	5	7	7	6
93	2024-8-6 7:04 279 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 160, 228 (Shenzhen)	Male	36-45	7-10 year	Single	Associate degree	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	7	5	7	4	4	4	7
94	2024-8-6 16:38 258 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 215, 232 (Shenzhen)	Female	26-35	1-3 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	4	6	5	5	6	6	4
95	2024-8-7 7:27 267 seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 200, 187 (Xi'an)	Female	36-45	Less than	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	3	7	4	4	7	7
96	2024-8-7 10:51 163 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 156, 236 (Beijing)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	6	5	4	6	6	4
97	2024-8-7 11:10 241 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 74, 190 (Guangzhou)	Female	26-35	7-10 year	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	4	6	6	6	7	6
98	2024-8-7 12:46 102 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 180, 240 (Guangzhou)	Female	26-35	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	5	6	5	5	7	4	6
99	2024-8-7 15:20 240 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 100, 160 (Tianjin)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Separated	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	5	5	4	6	5	4
100	2024-8-8 7:25 262 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 23, 158 (Guangzhou)	Male	18-25	Less than	Separated	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	7	3	6	6	5	5

101	2024-8-8	11:33	290	seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 149, 4 (Hangzhou)	Female	18-25	Less than	Married	Associate degree	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	5	4	5	5	6	6	5
102	2024-8-8	18:35	201	seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 93, 170 (Xi'an)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	above 12000 RMB	7	5	6	6	6	6	7
103	2024-8-9	9:41	148	seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 126, 225 (Beijing)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	6	6	6	6	5	4	4
104	2024-8-9	11:30	283	seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 175, 8 (Beijing)	Female	26-35	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	3	7	6	4	6	6
105	2024-8-9	12:03	194	seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 35, 126 (Xi'an)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	above 12000 RMB	7	3	7	4	4	6	6
106	2024-8-9	14:33	236	seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 67, 94 (Shenzhen)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Master's degree or above	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	6	7	3	4	7	4	6
107	2024-8-9	16:07	275	seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 68, 169 (Shanghai)	Female	26-35	4-6 years	Separated	Associate degree	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	7	6	3	6	7	6	5
108	2024-8-9	20:58	239	seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 120, 128 (Beijing)	Female	36-45	1-3 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	4	6	6	6	6	6
109	2024-8-10	7:00	284	seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 131, 192 (Wuhan)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Separated	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	6	5	4	5	5	4
110	2024-8-10	7:43	94	seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 136, 25 (Shanghai)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	7	5	6	5	5	4
111	2024-8-11	9:10	213	seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 60, 123 (Shenzhen)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	6	7	6	5	6	5
112	2024-8-11	11:51	234	seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 105, 183 (Shenzhen)	Female	18-25	Less than	Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	5	6	6	6	6	7
113	2024-8-11	14:30	181	seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 66, 183 (Wuhan)	Female	36-45	Less than	Separated	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	4	6	5	6	5	6
114	2024-8-11	17:15	127	seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 74, 130 (Xi'an)	Male	36-45	More than	Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	7	5	6	6	6
115	2024-8-12	9:00	157	seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 202, 167 (Xi'an)	Female	26-35	7-10 year	Single	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	5	6	6	5	4
116	2024-8-12	11:40	233	seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 199, 160 (Chengdu)	Male	36-45	4-6 years	Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	4	6	6	4	4	6
117	2024-8-12	18:40	156	seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 66, 103 (Shanghai)	Female	36-45	1-3 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	5	7	6	3	5	6
118	2024-8-13	12:23	148	seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 57, 212 (Xi'an)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Married	Master's degree or above	Manager	9001-12000 RMB	5	6	6	6	1	7	5
119	2024-8-13	18:40	164	seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 21, 95 (Nanjing)	Female	36-45	1-3 years	Separated	High school or below	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	7	3	3	7	6	5	6
120	2024-8-14	7:22	142	seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 142, 193 (Nanjing)	Female	26-35	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	4	7	3	6	7	6	4
121	2024-8-14	7:49	99	seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 245, 222 (Chengdu)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Married	Bachelor's degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	6	6	6	6	7	7	7
122	2024-8-14	18:01	169	seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 206, 91 (Nanjing)	Male	36-45	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	above 12000 RMB	7	4	6	6	5	6	7
123	2024-8-15	16:13	176	seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 76, 147 (Nanjing)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Separated	High school or below	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	7	5	6	3	7	4	5
124	2024-8-16	7:46	182	seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 171, 142 (Beijing)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Married	Associate degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	5	6	6	5	6	6	6
125	2024-8-16	11:37	118	seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 246, 246 (Guangzhou)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Associate degree	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	4	4	6	5	4
126	2024-8-17	6:55	131	seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 91, 115 (Nanjing)	Male	26-35	4-6 years	Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	6	6	6	6	7
127	2024-8-17	7:05	206	seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 30, 172 (Chengdu)	Male	36-45	4-6 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	7	4	7	6	5	7	7
128	2024-8-17	14:40	174	seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 113, 113 (Nanjing)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	6	6	6	4	6	6
129	2024-8-17	16:40	160	seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 54, 216 (Wuhan)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	7	5	6	6	5	4
130	2024-8-17	18:26	290	seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 215, 224 (Nanjing)	Female	26-35	1-3 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	4	6	6	6	7	6	7
131	2024-8-18	15:39	184	seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 89, 197 (Beijing)	Male	26-35	1-3 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	4	6	4	4	7	7
132	2024-8-18	15:41	283	seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 220, 145 (Guangzhou)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Married	Bachelor's degree	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	6	7	5	4	7	5	4
133	2024-8-19	6:02	240	seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 83, 180 (Beijing)	Female	18-25	Less than	Single	Associate degree	Senior Management	Below 3000 RMB	7	7	5	6	5	4	4
134	2024-8-19	6:07	135	seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 231, 18 (Wuhan)	Female	18-25	Less than	Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	7	6	6	5	6	5
135	2024-8-19	7:53	218	seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 137, 89 (Wuhan)	Male	36-45	Less than	Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	5	6	6	4	6	7
136	2024-8-19	11:01	291	seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 61, 23 (Xi'an)	Female	18-25	Less than	Separated	Bachelor's degree	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	5	6	4	6	5	4	4
137	2024-8-19	12:53	282	seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 107, 114 (Shenzhen)	Male	26-35	7-10 year	Married	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	4	7	6	5	6	7	7
138	2024-8-19	15:12	196	seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 212, 88 (Xi'an)	Female	36-45	4-6 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Manager	3001-6000 RMB	7	7	7	7	4	4	7
139	2024-8-19	17:51	126	seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 28, 75 (Nanjing)	Male	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	7	5	4	6	5	5
140	2024-8-20	14:46	137	seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 175, 119 (Hangzhou)	Female	46-55	7-10 year	Married	Associate degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	4	3	5	7	3	5	6
141	2024-8-21	6:02	139	seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 84, 5 (Beijing)	Female	46-55	1-3 years	Separated	Associate degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	5	4	7	5	5	6	7
142	2024-8-21	6:30	171	seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 188, 6 (Hangzhou)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	6	6	6	6	4	7
143	2024-8-21	14:39	162	seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 243, 230 (Beijing)	Male	26-35	1-3 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	4	6	6	6	5
144	2024-8-21	15:48	212	seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 229, 92 (Shanghai)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Associate degree	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	4	7	5	7	5	5	5
145	2024-8-22	16:20	186	seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 201, 56 (Hangzhou)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	6	6	6	5	6	6
146	2024-8-22	19:45	274	seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 252, 232 (Shenzhen)	Male	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	6	7	4	4	6	6	5
147	2024-8-22	20:01	192	seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 25, 189 (Shenzhen)	Female	26-35	4-6 years	Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	7	4	6	6	5	6
148	2024-8-24	17:22	128	seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 254, 219 (Tianjin)	Female	26-35	Less than	Married	Associate degree	Manager	6001-9000 RMB	6	6	7	7	5	7	6
149	2024-8-24	19:01	135	seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 4, 9 (Tianjin)	Female	18-25	1-3 years	Single	Bachelor's degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	6	5	5	4	6	5	5
150	2024-8-25	13:35	116	seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 150, 97 (Guangzhou)	Female	18-25	4-6 years	Single	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	7	6	7	6	3	4	5

151	2024-8-25	14:36	181 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 239, 134 (Beijing)	Male	36-45	4-6 years Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	3	7	5	5	7	7
152	2024-8-25	17:29	101 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 221, 72 (Beijing)	Female	18-25	4-6 years Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	6	7	5	6	5	7	6
153	2024-8-25	17:55	82 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 162, 54 (Tianjin)	Male	18-25	4-6 years Single	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	6	6	5	5	5
154	2024-8-25	18:02	152 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 51, 104 (Guangzhou)	Female	26-35	1-3 years Married	Associate degree	Manager	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	6	6	5	6	7
155	2024-8-25	20:21	267 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 123, 54 (Tianjin)	Female	46-55	1-3 years Married	High school or below	Manager	9001-12000 RMB	6	4	6	6	2	7	7
156	2024-8-26	9:01	117 seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 205, 148 (Xi'an)	Female	18-25	4-6 years Single	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	7	2	6	7	5	5
157	2024-8-26	11:01	194 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 52, 234 (Tianjin)	Male	26-35	Less than Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	7	5	4	4	5	4
158	2024-8-27	20:43	226 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 193, 141 (Guangzhou)	Male	36-45	4-6 years Single	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	6	7	3	4	5	6
159	2024-8-28	16:22	224 seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 156, 209 (Hangzhou)	Female	18-25	7-10 year Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	7	7	5	6	5	7	6
160	2024-8-28	12:40	203 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 43, 20 (Shanghai)	Female	36-45	4-6 years Married	Bachelor's degree	Supervisor	Below 3000 RMB	7	7	7	5	4	6	7
161	2024-8-28	20:20	299 seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 251, 106 (Hangzhou)	Female	18-25	1-3 years Single	High school or below	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	6	6	5	6	5	5
162	2024-8-28	20:42	273 seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 194, 16 (Xi'an)	Female	26-35	4-6 years Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	6	5	5	6	5	5
163	2024-8-29	8:59	243 seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 112, 194 (Hangzhou)	Female	26-35	1-3 years Married	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	7	5	5	6	4	6
164	2024-8-29	13:34	264 seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 75, 187 (Wuhan)	Male	26-35	4-6 years Single	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	7	3	4	6	4	5
165	2024-8-29	18:18	243 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 203, 166 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	7-10 year Single	High school or below	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	5	5	6	4	5	7	6
166	2024-8-29	20:32	253 seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 194, 131 (Xi'an)	Male	36-45	1-3 years Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	7	7	5	5	6	6
167	2024-8-30	8:19	273 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 141, 235 (Tianjin)	Male	18-25	1-3 years Single	Bachelor's degree	Supervisor	9001-12000 RMB	7	7	5	5	7	5	5
168	2024-8-30	14:36	221 seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 175, 98 (Wuhan)	Female	18-25	4-6 years Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	6	7	5	6	6	5
169	2024-8-30	16:58	143 seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 12, 28 (Wuhan)	Female	18-25	1-3 years Single	Associate degree	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	6	7	5	6	6	4	5
170	2024-8-30	18:40	101 seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 87, 62 (Nanjing)	Female	26-35	Less than Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	4	6	6	6	5	6	6
171	2024-8-31	6:48	114 seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 193, 95 (Nanjing)	Male	26-35	4-6 years Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	7	6	5	6	7	6
172	2024-8-31	7:04	104 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 46, 72 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	Less than Single	Bachelor's degree	Manager	above 12000 RMB	5	6	4	7	6	5	5
173	2024-8-31	7:48	268 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 204, 134 (Shenzhen)	Male	26-35	4-6 years Single	High school or below	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	6	6	5	5	6	4	4
174	2024-8-31	10:02	214 seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 138, 102 (Wuhan)	Male	18-25	4-6 years Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	6	5	4	6	6	5
175	2024-8-31	11:02	161 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 116, 216 (Beijing)	Female	26-35	4-6 years Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	6	7	5	5	6	7
176	2024-9-1	8:34	234 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 222, 68 (Shanghai)	Male	18-25	1-3 years Single	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	7	3	4	7	4	4
177	2024-9-1	9:13	205 seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 74, 121 (Hangzhou)	Female	26-35	7-10 year Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	4	5	5	6	6	5	4
178	2024-9-1	10:27	284 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 213, 205 (Shenzhen)	Male	18-25	Less than Single	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	6	7	4	3	4	4	5
179	2024-9-1	12:20	221 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 70, 68 (Tianjin)	Female	36-45	7-10 year Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	7	5	6	5	4	6	6
180	2024-9-1	12:36	183 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 85, 24 (Shenzhen)	Female	18-25	1-3 years Single	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	6	5	5	6	4	4
181	2024-9-1	16:25	160 seconds	WeChat	36, 112, 223, 164 (Beijing)	Male	18-25	Less than Single	Associate degree	Employee	above 12000 RMB	7	6	7	4	5	6	5
182	2024-9-1	17:00	276 seconds	WeChat	117, 151, 135, 80 (Wuhan)	Female	18-25	4-6 years Single	Associate degree	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	5	7	5	6	6	5	5
183	2024-9-1	19:10	234 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 208, 148 (Tianjin)	Female	36-45	4-6 years Married	High school or below	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	5	7	5	6	7	7
184	2024-9-2	10:25	173 seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 177, 66 (Hangzhou)	Female	36-45	7-10 year Married	Associate degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	3	4	7	6	4	4	7
185	2024-9-2	14:25	247 seconds	WeChat	58, 32, 23, 184 (Shanghai)	Male	18-25	4-6 years Married	High school or below	Supervisor	3001-6000 RMB	5	7	6	6	6	7	6
186	2024-9-2	20:25	232 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 152, 131 (Tianjin)	Female	26-35	7-10 year Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	6	5	5	6	4	4
187	2024-9-3	15:00	228 seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 155, 196 (Chengdu)	Female	36-45	1-3 years Single	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	5	5	7	7	5	6	7
188	2024-9-4	9:40	267 seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 32, 255 (Chengdu)	Female	26-35	1-3 years Single	Associate degree	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	7	7	3	4	5	5	6
189	2024-9-4	13:25	176 seconds	WeChat	222, 189, 42, 75 (Nanjing)	Female	26-35	7-10 year Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	7	5	5	6	6	6
190	2024-9-4	15:38	165 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 32, 188 (Shenzhen)	Female	18-25	4-6 years Single	Bachelor's degree	Supervisor	6001-9000 RMB	7	6	3	6	6	5	4
191	2024-9-5	18:37	140 seconds	WeChat	61, 157, 149, 176 (Chengdu)	Female	18-25	4-6 years Single	High school or below	Supervisor	Below 3000 RMB	7	6	6	5	6	5	6
192	2024-9-5	20:16	161 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 16, 50 (Shenzhen)	Female	36-45	1-3 years Married	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	4	6	4	4	6	7
193	2024-9-6	19:21	208 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 181, 108 (Shenzhen)	Female	36-45	1-3 years Married	Associate degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	5	6	6	4	6	6
194	2024-9-7	10:48	259 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 57, 87 (Shenzhen)	Female	26-35	7-10 year Single	Associate degree	Employee	6001-9000 RMB	6	6	5	5	7	5	4
195	2024-9-7	14:47	284 seconds	WeChat	60, 30, 127, 147 (Tianjin)	Female	18-25	1-3 years Single	High school or below	Employee	Below 3000 RMB	7	5	5	5	6	4	7
196	2024-9-7	17:29	250 seconds	WeChat	117, 136, 124, 225 (Xi'an)	Female	18-25	4-6 years Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	9001-12000 RMB	5	7	6	6	5	6	6
197	2024-9-7	18:48	245 seconds	WeChat	115, 193, 28, 13 (Hangzhou)	Female	36-45	7-10 year Married	Bachelor's degree	Manager	above 12000 RMB	7	6	6	6	6	6	6
198	2024-9-8	8:46	278 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 251, 92 (Shenzhen)	Male	36-45	4-6 years Married	Associate degree	Employee	above 12000 RMB	6	5	7	4	5	6	7
199	2024-9-8	18:32	278 seconds	WeChat	183, 14, 140, 148 (Shenzhen)	Female	36-45	7-10 year Married	Associate degree	Manager	6001-9000 RMB	7	7	7	7	5	6	6
200	2024-9-9	6:08	293 seconds	WeChat	14, 29, 41, 115 (Guangzhou)	Female	36-45	7-10 year Married	Bachelor's degree	Employee	3001-6000 RMB	7	6	6	7	5	5	6