The Impact of the Perceived Challenge and Hindrance Stressors on the Hotel Frontline Employees Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: An Empirical Investigation to the Moderating Role of the Psychological Capital

by

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A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
December 10, 2016

Keywords: Hotels, Challenge and Hindrance Stress, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Psychological Capital

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Abstract

The purpose of this research study was to examine the dynamics of the relationships between the challenge and hindrance stressors and the employees' levels of engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) by applying the social exchange theory within the hotel industry context. Furthermore, the study sought to explore the moderating role of the hotel frontline employees' capacities of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) (Self-Efficacy, Hope, Optimism, and Resiliency) on the relationship between the challenge stressors and hindrance stressors and their OCBs. Data for this survey-based study were collected from 213 frontline employees who work in hotels in the United States of America.

The results of correlation and moderated hierarchical regression tests showed that challenge and hindrance stressors had a negative weak statistically significant relationship with OCB-I, both types of stressors had weak positive, yet statistically significant relationships with OCB-O at the .01 level of statistical significance. To test for the moderation role of PsyCap in the aforementioned relationships, the results showed that when the interaction term of the psychological capital with each independent variable of challenge stressors/hindrance stressors was entered into the model for each relationship, PsyCap can predict higher levels of employees' engagement on OCB-I and OCB-O. Implications for researchers and practitioners are discussed along with limitations and areas for future research.

Acknowledgments

Alhamdulillahi rabbil 'alamin. All praise is due to Allah because without his abundant blessing and grace I would not have made it to the end of this wonderful journey. The years I've spent here at Auburn University have been best time of my life. My journey in Auburn has taught me many lessons; however, the most important lesson is that personal success only happens with a strong support network. I am humbled by the many people who assisted in the successful completion of my doctoral studies. First, I would like to send my greatest appreciation to my major advisor, true friend, and teammate, Dr. Baker Ayoun for his encouragement, persistence, patience and kindness. He has afforded me many opportunities to be a part of Auburn University in ways I never would have been. On those days I had my doubts, you gave me just the right advice and encouragement to keep me focused on the journey. Your guidance, support, and advice were invaluable to me throughout these years at Auburn University. Thank you.

I would like to extend my utmost gratitude to my committee members for their unending support, encouragement and guidance. Thank you to Dr. Marie Kraska, Dr. Yee Ming Lee, and Dr. Imran Rahman for your advice, encouragement, insights and council throughout my program of study.

I also would like to thank Dr. Martin O'Neill, for his generous support and help whenever I needed. Thank you also to Dr. Lindsay Tan for serving as a university reader for my dissertation. I am grateful for Dr. Charlotte Sutton for the leadership skills she taught over the years I spent at Auburn.

A special thank you to several friends whose support and encouragement I could not have done without. To Khalid Eyoun, my friend and research partner, you have been my best friend since the first day for me at Auburn and we have been there for each other every step of the way. I value your friendship and help over the years and I will always miss our discussions about research and teaching.

Thank you also to my colleagues at the Auburn University Hotel and Restaurant Management Department for their support and encouragement. Special thanks to my caring friend Ms. Han Chen for your unconditional support and assistance when I needed it most. Also, thank you to my friends Erol Suzan, Jennifer Calhoun, Shaniel Bernard and Gwen Parker for your interest, advice, humor, and support through this exciting time.

I am also thankful for my Jordanian friends for bringing a bit of my country to Auburn. Thank you Yaman Sokienah, Shadi Shra'ah, and Adam Eyoun for making my journey in Auburn full of fun.

I am thankful to my parents Mohammad and Mariam Khliefat, my brothers and sisters, and my uncles and aunts, for their love and support. They have always felt very proud about my achievements however small those were. I am also very fortunate to have in-laws, who treat me like a favorite member in the family. My journey would not have been successful without their support.

Finally, a special and sincere thank you to my soul mate, the love of my life, my lovely wife Shatha Abu-Khafajah, there are not enough words to describe the blessings God bestowed on me since the day I met you. This journey certainly would not have happened without your love and faith in me. I gratefully acknowledge your unending support, love, patience and understanding throughout this process. Your constant encouragement and motivation has continually kept me going. Love you.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to

My wonderful parents, Mohammad and Mariam Khliefat, who instilled in me the drive to achieve my dreams

My lovely wife, Shatha Abu-Khafajah, whose care, love, encouragement and support for me made my successful completion possible

My beautiful Mother-in-law Dalleh Khafajah, whose every day's full of love messages kept me going

To the soul of my Father-in-law Ahmad Abu-Khafajah (RIP), I dedicate my dissertation.

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List of Abbreviations

CH	Challenge Stress
HI	Hindrance Stress
PsyCap	Psychological Capital
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCB-I	Organizational Citizenship Behavior toward Individuals
OCB-O	Organizational Citizenship Behavior toward Organization
POS	Positive Organizational Scholarship
POB	Positive Organizational Behavior

CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

Background

The hotel industry is a people-oriented business. The success of any hotel business is profoundly reliant on frontline employees, who participate in a range of service interactions with customers in their position as boundary spanners (Kim, Murrmann, & Lee, 2009). In the hotel industry, work is frequently characterized by a constant array of demands and stressors that all employees—and particularly frontline employees—need to deal with. These demands and stressors include excessive workloads, time pressures, unpredicted interactions with customers, anti-social and long working hours, inconsistent night and day shifts, lack of role clarity, and interpersonal conflicts, to name a few. Not surprisingly, research reports by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions found the hotel industry to be one of seven sectors that present high levels of work-related stress (Houtman, 2005).

J. Willard Marriott, founder of Marriott Corporation, emphasized that "In the service business you can't make happy guests with unhappy employees." This indicates that a service's quality is entirely dependent on those who are delivering the service. If the work environment creates stress for those in frontline positions, this will be negatively reflected in their performance and their delivery of the service (Hostage, 1975).

As occupational stress has such negative effects on an organization's performance and productivity, understanding and exploring workplace stress has become a vital area of research. Theory and research into occupational stress has largely been characterized by the lack of a generally accepted, clear definition of the true meaning of stress (Cox & Griffiths, 1995).

However, recent theories and models emerging from the United States (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and the United Kingdom (Cox & Mackay, 1981) demonstrate that stress is no more than an individual's cognitive perception of the demanding situation and, more specifically, the difference between the demands placed on the employees and their perceived ability to cope with this demand. This transactional approach suggests stress as a subjective phenomenon that happens within an employee, and can be best explored based on the employee's appraisal of the stressor he/she experiences.

Recently, more attention has been given to developing this cognitive approach to stress. The cognitive approach considers the individual's perception of stress as being good or bad. According to Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling and Boudreau (2000), not all stress is necessarily bad, and stress might be perceived to have negative and/or positive consequences. In this respect, Cavanaugh and colleagues (2000) found that job stressors could be categorized into those that tend to be perceived as promoting personal growth and development (challenge stressors), and those that tend to be perceived as obstacles or barriers to accomplishing a task and achieving personal growth (hindrance stressors).

Subsequent empirical studies have supported the use of Cavanaugh and colleague's two-dimensional framework to explain inconsistent relationships between stressors and employees' attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors (e.g. Webster, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2010; Rodell & Judge, 2009). That is, challenge stressors generally have a functional relationship with an employee's motivation, task performance, attitudes and behaviors, whereas hindrance stressors tend to have dysfunctional relationships with these factors.

The theoretically and empirically supported framework of challenge and hindrance stressors indicates an exchange connection between these stressors and an employee's motivation to respond to stress with subsequent attitudes and behavior at work.

The hotel business is a people-intense industry. As customers are becoming more demanding, frontline employees are now expected to provide a service that satisfy and exceed customers' demands and expectations. In order to ensure customer satisfaction, frontline employees need to demonstrate behaviors that are beyond their expected service levels. This additional requirement is known as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and it is important for any hotel business in order to increase job efficiency and decrease costs. This enables hotels to gain an advantageous position in a competitive market. For this reason, determining and managing the factors that affect an employee's OCB is vital for hotels to succeed (Aronson, Laurenceau, Sieveking, & Bellet, 2005). This is to say, the success of a hotel depends heavily on frontline employees' willingness to undertake voluntary tasks and display behavior that surpasses their expected service levels (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

In this sense, OCB can be seen as an instance of the employee-organization relationship of reciprocation between stress and extra-role behavior. OCB is an individual's discretionary behavior, which is not explicitly recognized by a formal reward system but collectively supports the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988. p. 4). Presently, very few studies have focused on OCB in the hotel industry, particularly on the potential effects of occupational stress on employees' OCB (Webster et al., 2010). As a result, OCB is yet to be reported as having a substantial impact on the hotels performance and productivity (Ravichandran et al., 2007).

The reciprocal relationship between occupational stress and OCB can be best explained by social exchange theory. The theory that has long been used by management theorists and researchers to describe the motivational basis behind employees' organizational behaviors (Settoon et al., 1996). Social exchange theory indicates that individuals may enter into exchange relationships based on their perception of the situation. When studying OCB, it is pertinent to consider social exchange theory as a relevant theoretical framework, this is because perceptions of workplace stress have a significant impact on employees' behaviors.

The basic notion of social exchange theory is that employees who perceive that they will gain benefits from their organization, such as personal growth and development mentioned earlier as challenging stressors, are more likely to reciprocate with positive work behavior such as choosing to display OCB. On the other hand, employees who perceive workplace stress as negative or hindrance to their development and growth may reciprocate with negative behavior or choose not to exhibit any extra-role behaviors.

The inconsistencies in previous research findings about the relationships between stress and OCBs suggest that more research needs to be carried out regarding challenge and hindrance stress and subsequent organizational behavior. Research has not always provided evidence for a simple stress–response relationship, and so researchers also investigated factors that might mediate or moderate the stress–response association (Thoits, 1984). In the subsequent research, it quickly became apparent that to study stress outcomes (such as OCB), the characteristics of the person who experiences the stress must be taken into account (Lazarus, 1993). Indeed, personality characteristics are thought to influence the perception of stressors and have an impact on a person's reaction to the stressors (Young & Corsun, 2009).

One key issue raised in the previous literature on stress is that general perception and specific perceptions of job stressors are shaped and influenced by an individual's characteristics, such as those included in the Big Five personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and core self-evaluations traits (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Recently, several characteristic models and traits have been investigated within hospitality stress literature, including the Big-Five (Kim et al., 2009), neuroticism (Young & Corsun, 2009), and emotional intelligence (Langhorn, 2004). These personality traits have been empirically found to influence the way an individual handles work-related stress and situations (Maslach et al., 2001; Tokar et al., 1998).

In contrast to the universally recognized models of the long-lasting, stable, and relatively fixed dispositional traits such as those described in the Big-Five personality dimensions and core-self evaluations traits, and in order to understand and explain variations in individual stressful experiences, the term Psychological Capital (PsyCap) was introduced by Luthans and Youssef (2004). PsyCap is a higher order construct that joins four individual capacities: self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency. That is a state-like psychological capacity of an individual, which is characterized by being malleable, and open to change and development.

The term Psychological Capital (PsyCap) is defined as "An individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterized by: (1) having confidence *(self-efficacy*) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (*optimism*) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (*hope*) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (*resiliency*) to attain success" (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007. p. 3).

In short, PsyCap means an employee's state-like capacities of being self-efficacious, hopeful, optimistic, and resilient can influence their perception of stressful situations (Karatepe, 2014). Moreover, it can shape the relationship between this experience of workplace stress and the subsequent employee work-related attitudes and behaviors.

Statement of the Problem

Occupational stress has been widely investigated by researchers, academics, and practitioners from a wide variety of disciplines, fields, and industries. Although their work has significantly enhanced our understanding of occupational stress, the previous models and explanatory frameworks developed lack a comprehensive explanation of an individual's positive and negative perceptions of job stress. For this reason, this study sought to demonstrate that research on occupational stress should not be limited to a traditional negative approach of stress. Instead, occupational stress research should also include a positive approach that considers stress as a motivator toward favorable work outcomes.

In addition, studies of the recently developed framework of challenge and hindrance stressors are prone to neglecting individual characteristics, and argue that the distinction between the two-dimensional stressors (challenge and hindrance) is perceived the same, with no attention paid to individual differences (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). To resolve this dilemma, this study utilized PsyCap as a means to understand the role of individual's positive psychological resources in handling stressful workplace experiences (Luthans & Youssef, 2004; 2007).

Individual differences matter when talking about OCB because each individual evaluates their work-related stressors and determines how much they are willing to reciprocate stress with

positive behavior. The problem with the previous research on OCB is that the focus has always been on an individual's stable traits, such as those inherent in the Big-Five personality and self-core evaluations traits. Few, if any, research studies have investigated the relationship between employees' psychological states of hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resiliency and their engagement in OCB.

Moreover, previous research has been characterized by a lack of consideration for the moderating role of employees' psychological states, such as those inherent in PsyCap, when considering the relationship between the challenge and hindrance stressors, and employees' positive organizational behaviors. Considering PsyCap as a moderator of job stress in the organizational behavior relationship can enhance our understanding of why individuals differ in their OCB while experiencing the same challenge and hindrance stressors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to explore occupational stress in the context of the hotel industry. Specifically, the study sought to investigate the impact of challenge and hindrance stressors on hotel frontline employees' OCB. Moreover, the study aimed to investigate the moderating role of PsyCap on the relationship dynamic of job stress and the OCB exhibited by hotel frontline employees. To the researcher's knowledge, very few, if any, of the previous studies have investigated the relationship between challenge and hindrance job stressors, PsyCap, and OCB within the hospitality literature.

Research Questions

The dissertation strives to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent is there a relationship between hotel frontline employees' perceptions of the challenging stressors and their level of engagement in organizational citizenship behavior directed toward other individuals (OCB-I) and their organizations (OCB-O)?
2. To what extent is there a relationship between hotel frontline employees' perceptions of the hindrance stressors and their level of engagement in organizational citizenship behavior directed toward other individuals (OCB-I) and their organizations (OCB-O)?
3. Does hotel frontline employees' PsyCap moderate the relationships between their perception of the challenge stressors and hindrance stressors and their level of engagement in OCB-I and OCB-O?

Significance of the Study

The current empirical study strives to make several contributions to the hospitality literature and industry in various ways. Theoretically, recent research on occupational stress has called for more theoretical approaches and frameworks to examine the consequences of stress on employees' attitudes and behaviors (LePine et al., 2005; Webster et al., 2010). The present study responds to this request by adapting the social exchange theory to investigate the relationships between challenge and hindrance stressors and employees' OCB.

Additionally, the significance of the current study on the literature stems from its approach, which follows the recent paradigm shift in organizational behavior research from intense negative psychology into a more positive psychological approach (Yavas et al., 2013). Specifically, recent organizational behavior research has called for positive psychology to be

incorporated into stress research (Zellars, Perrewe, Hochwarter, & Anderson, 2006). This study responds to these calls by investigating whether the newly recognized high-order construct of PsyCap can be a keystone to better understand the relationship between employees' perception of occupational stress and their OCB.

In practice, this study provides significant insights to hotels managers and practitioners about how employees psychological state might influence their perception of workplace stress, and in turn how this perception influences their organizational behaviors and performance. Based on the notion that an employee's PsyCap is open to develop, increase, and change, empirically demonstrating that PsyCap is a moderator in the relationship between occupational stress and OCB would shed light on the importance of including PsyCap in the human resources training program. Capitalizing on frontline employees' overall PsyCap is a tool that hotel managers can use to reduce the undesirable consequences of stress on workplace outcomes.

Finally, this study may enable frontline employees to realize their PsyCap states of self-efficacy hope, optimism, and resiliency, and thus help them understand the influence of occupational stress on their work-related attitudes and behaviors. Furthermore, when frontline employees understand the relationship between workplace stress and their choice to display OCB, this relationship can be positively geared by their psychological resources toward better performance overall.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

Stress

Introduction to Stress

Stress is an inevitable experience of the individual daily life (Williams & Cooper, 1998). Although there exists a limited consensus about the nature of stress, in his book about stress and coping strategies, Aldwin (1994) states that, stress can be classified into two main types, namely, acute stress and chronic stress. Acute stress is a response to a specific unpredictable situations or events that hold an instant threat to the individual. This type of stress is short-lived by which is generally known as the *fight or flight* response and by which an individual reacts to the new situation by either confronting or fleeing from the threatening situation. Acute stress is the most typical stress we experience in our daily lives, and for most of the situations, when the threat caused by this situation is passed, the hormones associated with stress return to the normal levels, which known as the *relaxation response* (Ranabir & Reetu, 2011).

Chronic stress, on the other hand, is stimulated by a long-term exposure to threat. The threatening situation in this type of stress seems to be never ending, and the accruing stress that caused by the exposure to the threat can cause serious negative impacts on the one's own life such as heart attacks, strokes, and psychological disorders (Rice, 2012). This type of stress is psychologically more harmful than acute stress since it results in sever negative impact on the individual's overall well-being (Crampton et al., 1995).

Although there is no consensus among researchers on a single comprehensive definition of 'stress', three different overlapping conceptions of the stress emerge from the literature (Cox & Griffiths, 1995); the 'engineering', the 'physiological' and the 'psychological'.

The '*engineering*' approach conceptualizes stress as a detrimental characteristic of the work environment (Selye, 1956), where stress is viewed as a characteristic or stimulus of the environment or the level of demand placed on the individual (Mark & Smith, 2008). However, the '*physiological*' approach, where stress is defined based on the physiological or biological changes that occur in the person when he/she undergo a threating situation (Mayer, 2000). The stress in this approach is seen as physiological response to a threatening stimulus of the work environment characteristic (Selye, 1956). Lastly, he '*psychological*' approach, where stress is not only considered as a stimulus or a response, but it is seen as the dynamic process of interaction between the individuals and their environment (Cox, Griffiths & Rial-Gonzales, 2000; Cox & Mackay, 1981). In this approach, stress is defined based on either the person-environment (P-E) interaction or the individual's cognitive process and appraisal of this interaction (Mark & Smith, 2008).

The engineering and physiological approaches are obviously among the earlier approaches of stress, while the more psychological approaches characterize contemporary stress theory (Jovanović et al., 2006). The psychological viewpoint is perhaps the most popular conceptualization today and is considered superior to other approaches by Cox and Griffiths (1995) because, unlike the engineering and physiological approaches, the psychological approach acknowledges the activeness and cognitive interaction of individuals with their environment in their pursuit of wellbeing (Mark & Smith, 2008).

Approaches of Stress

In light of the previously mentioned approaches to the conceptualization of stress, this section reviews the dominating theories and models of stress in the field of occupational

psychology and organizational behavior. A universally agreed upon framework by which stress can be studied and approached is demonstrated in one of the following four approaches: (a) stimulus approach; (b) response approach; (c) interaction approach; or (d) transactional response. The four approaches to conceptualize stress are detailed in the discussion below.

Stimulus based approach

Stimulus based approach was originally driven by industrialization (Cooper & Smith, 1985). This approach defines stress as a stimulus in the environment that has tensional effect on the individual which causes anxiety associated problems and feeling of being threaten (Selye, 1956). Defining the sources of stress (stimulus) is the corner stone of this approach (Goodell, Wolf & Rogers, 1986), as it is concerned with the situational conditions where certain stimuli might be stressful, such as role stressors, workloads, or interpersonal conflicts.

Response-based approach

This approach can be traced back to the field of medicine. It is typically adapted from a physiological and psychological perspective due its diagnostic approach to the symptoms rather than the actual sources of stress (Seyle, 1936). In this model, stress is defined based on the individual's physiological or psychological response to the demands (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001). The physiological response to stress includes stress-related symptoms such as headaches, fatigue, strokes and heart attacks, whereas the psychological response includes other symptoms such as depression, anxiety, and irritability (Selye, 1976). These physiological and psychological responses are symptomatic of a specific reaction to stress, not mere symptoms of stress itself (Stinchcomb, 2004).

Interactional approach

The interaction-based approach which is also known as *stimulus-response* approach, conceptualizes stress as an interaction process between the stimulus and the response (Cooper, 1998). Researchers adapting this approach claim that stress occurs when the demands of the environment do not match or exceed individual's coping capacities (French, 1973; Karasek, 1979). Chernisse (1980, p. 22) suggests that under this approach stress occur when there is "an imbalance between environmental demands and individual resources.". However, the importance of this approach lays in its focus on stress as an individual and subjective process (French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982).

Transactional approach

The transactional approach of stress is primarily focused on the dynamics of the cognitive appraisal process that underlies the stressful situation and the individual's attempts to deal with it (Lazarus, 1966; 1990). The transaction term indicates that stress resides neither exclusively in the person nor exclusively in the environment, but in the transaction process between both of them (Lazarus, 1991). For instance, stress appear on the surface when the person appraises a particular demand in terms of the available resources to cope with and realize that stress as a threat to his/her wellbeing (Holroyd & Lazarus, 1982). In this model, stress is viewed as an ongoing relationship between the individual and his/her environment (Jex, 1998).

According to Lazarus (1999), there are two types of appraisal in this approach; primary and secondary appraisals. The primary appraisal is where the individual realizes that there is a threat at stake (Lazarus, 2001). The notion of "anything is at stake", as Lazarus (1999) explains, is when the individual recognizes the significance of the encounter and evaluates it in terms of its personal meaning. Lazarus (1999, p. 76) further introduces three types of primary appraisals: *harm/loss*, which is something that has already occurred; *threat*, the anticipation of some harm to

occur in the future; and *challenge* where the individual search for the benefit in a demanding encounter (Folkman, 1984; Lazarus & Launier, 1978).

The secondary appraisal, on the other hand, raises the question of "what can be done about it" (Lazarus, 1999). In this type of appraisal, an individual start to evaluate his/her coping resources and abilities to deal with the threatening event or situation (Lazarus, 2001). While there is much argument about the definition of coping (Dewe et al., 2010), the definition introduced by Lazarus (1999, p. 110), views coping as a process that involves the "constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts a person makes to manage specific external or internal demands that are appraised as exceeding the resources of the person".

Occupational Stress

Among all the life challenges and difficulties, workplace appears to be a significant source that generates a great deal of stress to the individuals; this is because people usually spend most of their time in their workplace (Faulkner & Patiar, 1997). Most employees experience stress as a usual part of their workplace environment. It is generally recognized that employment creates stress and strains to employees on different levels (Koekse, Kirk & Koekse, 1993). According to American Psychological Association (APA) (2007) study, around 50% of Americans reported that their stress level has increased significantly over the last five years, and that for 74% of Americans, the biggest source of stress in their life is work (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009).

Several studies have highlighted the importance of dealing with occupational stress as the consequences of improper handling of the stress at the workplace can be at a high cost to the

employees and their organizations (Villanueva & Djurkovic, 2009; Cooper & Cartwright,1994; Williams & Cooper, 1998; Cooper, Luikkonen & Cartwright, 1996; Cotton & Fisher, 1995; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). In this sense, research estimated the global cost of workplace stress to be more than 3.75 billion dollars each year (Cooper, Palmer, & Thomas, 2004).

Stress can affect an individual's health, wellbeing and productivity (Wong & Huang, 2014; O'Neill & Davis, 2011). The importance of addressing the occupational stress goes beyond the cost associated with negative health impact stress might have on the employees. Occupational stress is significant human resource management topic that is apparently linked to the employee's productivity, performance, and detrimental organizational outcomes such as absenteeism, job dissatisfaction, burnout, and turnover (Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004; Motowildo, Packard, & Manning, 1986; Bhagat, McQuaid, Lindholm, & Segovis, 1985; Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009).

Although there exists a limited consensus about the nature of occupational stress, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) suggest that any type of occupational stress can be viewed based on two sets of variables, namely job demands and job resources. Demands are things need to be done and sources are the efforts to satisfy these demands. They explained that job demands are the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job, that require constant physical and/or psychological effort such as cognitive or emotional efforts. These demands are associated with physiological and/or psychological costs such as role overload and interpersonal conflicts (Salanova, Del Líbano, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2014). However, Schaufeli and Bakker (2002) further contended that job demands do not have to be necessary negative, but can turn into stressors when satisfying these demands requires more efforts. In this case, they tend to be associated with the long run negative responses such as anxiety, depression, or burnout.

On the other hand, job resources, are defined as those physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that are characterized by the following criteria: (1) reduce the job demands and as consequently the related physiological and psychological costs. (2) are efficient in achieving the work goals. (3) are capable of stimulating personal learning, development and growth (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2002).

As stated earlier, theory and research into occupational stress has been characterized by the lack of a generally accepted clear definition of the real meaning of stress (Braaten, 2000). Nevertheless, Dollard (2001) contends that various definitions and approaches to understand stress at workplace have been proposed. However, it is difficult to accurately define the concept of occupational stress. Clearly, it involves work-related stress; but it also implies work-related stress that manifests within an individual (Greenberg, 1990). This is where the problem arises, as all employees will possess a pre-existing disposition, or not, toward stress (Braaten, 2000; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007).

Luckily, an agreement among the researchers seems to emerge that occupational stress implies a combination of one or more of the following four patterns or processes; first, an environmental stimulus that described as a stressor or demand; second, an individual's physical or psychological response to the stressors; third, the interaction between both the stimulus and response; and lastly, the individual cognitive appraisal of the stressors (Beehr & Franz, 1986; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980; Mason, 1975). In light of this agreement, definitions of stress can relate to the stressor, stressful situation, response to the stress or the individual's appraisal of the stressors. When conducting a research on occupational stress, researchers are entailed to determine which pattern of these approaches they tend to follow (Cox et al., 2007).

As discussed above, the psychological conceptualization is the dominant contemporary stress theory in the current literature, which is the model that takes into consideration the impact of the cognitive appraisal or situational factors on individuals' performance and well-being (Mark & Smith, 2008).

Lazarus (1966) suggested a classical definition for stress as occurring when a person perceives that they do not possess the ability to cope with the demands of a particular external situation. This indicates that work-related stress is the result of perceived difference between job demands such as job duties and responsibilities and employees' resources and capabilities.

From a transactional model standpoint, occupational stress has been widely defined as the individual's perception of the discrepancy between work environment stressors and individual's resources to cope with these demands (Topper, 2007; Varca, 1999). According to Cox et al. (2000), work related stress come to the surface when an individual recognizes that he or she is incapable to cope with work demands, which results in a discomfort experience. If the demands placed on the employees are perceived to be exceeding their available resources and capabilities, these demands turn to be stressors and might cause physical and psychological stress to the employees (Troman & Woods, 2001; Esteve, 2000).

Accordingly, stress is a subjective phenomenon; some employees experience stress more severely than others under the same conditions (Sauter & Murphy, 1995). The perception of stress is unarguably situational and personal, where a situation might be stressful for a person and not be for another (Lazarus, 1999). In line with this claim, Jones and Briggit (2001) assert that some people are more 'stress-prone' and hence more vulnerable to stress than others. Vanagas and Axelsson (2004) note that, stressors might occur because of the employees' individual characteristics as well as the work environment. Employees under same demanding

conditions may perceive and deal with stress differently; while an employee might be greatly influenced by a stressor, another is hardly affected by any means (Storm-Pallesen, 2007; Orth-Gomer, 1994). The same stressor (environmental event) may affect different people in different ways and to varying degrees (Redfield & Stone, 1979; Parker & DeCotiis, 1983), as the potential impact of stressor is dependent upon how it is perceived and appraised by the individual (Duckworth, 1985). Therefore, it is important to understand how individual perceives and responds to an event, as it to understand the qualities of the events themselves (Redfield & Stone, 1979).

By the same token, most of occupational stress definitions involve the previously discussed process where the employee stress experience is the factor of his/her subjective perception of the demand or stressor. This means that an employee's evaluation of stressor can explain how an external stressor or demand is considered and whether it will result in stress experience for that employee or not (Storm-Pallesen, 2007).

Sonnentag and Frese (2003) implies that stress is viewed as a normal one's job. However, scientific inquiry on occupational stress indicates that challenging work is favorable to a degree that is not over demanding (Podasakoff et al., 2007). Cambell and Tetric (2002, p.326) advocate that work "should provide variability but also control; role expectations should be reasonably clear and not overly conflicting; work should not be overly demanding in terms of speed, time, or environmental and ergonomic conditions". Moreover, Blaug, Kenyon and Lekhi (2007) insist that stress can be positively managed in the work place by encouraging employees to fully utilize their capabilities in meeting the challenging work demands. LePine et al. (2005) agree with this claim by stating that a certain level of stress can be of advantages in the efficiency and productivity of the organization. However, if this stress turned to be uncontrolled and exceeded

the levels where employees can handle, it will reflect on negative consequences that include not only the performance of the employees but it will cost organization further expenses such as healthcare cost and increased turnover.

This is to say, although stress is generally recognized as resulting in negative outcomes such as serious health problems, service failure and burnout (Bernard & Krupat, 1994), when perceived as a challenge toward growth and goals achievement, overcoming stress can result in positive outcomes and consequences such as enhanced performance, commitment, engagement and increased creativity (Le Fevre, Matheny, & Kolt, 2003; Marino, 1997).

Challenge and Hindrance Stressors

Most of the occupational stress research and models were traditionally confined within the negative perspective that considers stress as a unidimensional construct that can be studied and measured by collapsing across all stressors (Semmer, McGrath, & Beehr, 2005). However, an emerging stream of research started arguing that not all stressors would have completely deleterious effects and some stressors might positively motivate employees toward positive work outcomes (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005). That is, if stress is perceived positively by employees, it might pull the trigger toward increasing their work performance and productivity.

This approach is stemmed from Lazarus and Folkman (1984) transactional approach which claims that a stressor is not the direct leading source of a stress reaction, but rather it is the individual's perception (appraisal) of the stress as weather challenge or hindrance that governs his/her response (Giancola et al., 2009).

The transactional theory of stress emphasizes the central role of primary appraisal in the process of dealing with stress, which is one of the main ways in which an individual assesses the meaning and importance of a situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In this sense, situations judged to have the potential for securing reward, for instance recognition and/or praise, achievement of goals, development, and growth are known as challenge demands, whereas situations judged to only have the potential to compromise the individual's overall well-being by preventing the achievement of goals and personal development are defined as hindrance demands (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Skinner & Brewer, 2002; Webster et al., 2010).

Consequently, researchers have started differentiating the former negative type of stress (*hindrance stress*) that dominated the history of the stress research from the latter positive type of stress (*challenge stress*) regarding the relationship between each type with the different work outcomes (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Simmons, Nelson, & Neal, 2001; Beehr et al., 2001; Boswell et al., 2004).

The differentiation between hindrance and challenging stressors has originally established based on Selye's (1956) distinction between positive and negative feelings related to stress, that are termed as ''eustress'' and ''distress''. Eustress is the demand that is perceived within the individual's coping abilities and trigger pleasant feelings of being excited and challenged which can result in better achievements and goals attainment. By contrast, distress disturbs negatively the individuals' balance and trigger passive emotions. Selye (1956) suggests that, eustress represents a positive motivating force, which might provoke problem solving coping efforts, sense of fulfillment and achievement. Conversely, distress, is likely to result in avoidance and withdrawal behaviors.

Drawing primarily from the transactional stress approach which emphasizes that individuals perceive stressful situations as being either challenging or threatening (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus, Kanner, & Folkman, 1980), Cavanaugh et al. (2000) claim that to understand the relationships between the stress the employees experience at work place and the work outcomes of that stress it is important to conceptually and empirically differentiate between two dimensions of stressors. Accordingly, they conceptualized two dimensional job stressors as challenging and hindrance-stressors; challenge stressors include demands that although challenging the individual's efforts toward goals and development, may also result in high performance and favorable outcomes and therefore, these challenges present a sense of achievement and accomplishment once the individual is able to overcome them.

Challenge stressors include work overload, time pressure, job complexity, and job responsibility. When these demands are perceived as challenging, they serve as indicators of a higher-order factor representing the degree to which a stressful work environment can lead to mastery, personal development, and growth and thus creating desirable work outcomes. For instance, people who have high levels of job responsibility, are more likely to meet the work demand by exerting more efforts, time and energy and as a result achieving a sense of accomplishment, and furthermore, might receive tangible rewards such as a pay raises and better promotion opportunities.

Challenge stressors have the potential to promote positive emotions (e.g. excitement, contentment, enthusiasm and eagerness) and foster personal growth, sense of fulfilment and future gains. Individuals recognize challenge stressors as motivating sources to invest their effort, time and energy to meet challenging demands, and thus achieving beneficial attitudes, behaviors and work outcomes.

On the other hand, hindrance stressors are described as demands that are more likely to hinder individual's tasks accomplishment, goal attainment, development and growth (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Overcoming these demands will only result in standard levels of performance, and thus the sense of achievement associated with the proficient performance is not present (Webster et al., 2010). Hindrance stressors include, role stressors such as role conflict and ambiguity, hassles, interpersonal conflict, workplace politics, inadequate resources, and job insecurity. These demands serve as indicators of a higher-order construct and are usually perceived as demands that unnecessarily hinder people from accomplishing tasks and achieving their personal goals and growth, and thus producing undesirable outcomes (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010). An example of hindrance stress is that, figuring out ambiguity involved in one's role require extra effort and more energy, resolving the ambiguity will not result in higher job performance, it can only help employee perform at standard levels, which is less likely to result in a sense of goals achievements, task accomplishment or higher chances for higher pay and/or promotions (Podsakoff, 2007).

This two-way model of challenge and hindrance stressors has been first introduced by Cavanaugh et al. (2000) who sample 1886 US managers to classify 11 items that represents stressors to whether they are challenging or hindrance stressors, items were adapted from three different stress measures (i.e., the Job Demands and Worker Health Study, Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975; the Stress Diagnostic Survey, Ivancevich & Matteson, 1983; and the Job Stress Index, Sandman, 1992). Factor analyses were subsequently carried out on the participants' assessments of how stressful they perceived each item to be. The factor analysis supported the two-factor structure (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). The emergent challenge stressor factor could be broken down into items related to time demands, workload, and responsibilities.

The second factor, namely hindrance stressors, consisted of items related to organizational politics, role ambiguity, and role conflict.

However, unlike the previous comprehensive models of organizational stress, the challenge and hindrance framework of stress does not offer a broad process model of organizational stress; rather, it is an attempt to explain why some self-reported work stress did not predict negative work outcomes.

Challenge and Hindrance stressors and Work outcomes

Despite its narrow focus, the two-dimensional challenge–hindrance work stressors framework has emerged as ‘‘an important and popular theoretical lens’’ (Zhang, LePine, Buckman, & Wei, 2014, p. 675) to understand the relationship between work stressors and work-related outcomes (Cooper, Dewe, & O’Driscoll, 2001; LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). This framework operationalizes challenge stressors and hindrance stressors as two distinct constructs (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Boswell et al., 2004).

A review of the results in the previous literature indicates that challenge and hindrance stressors are both positively linked to psychological factors, such as emotional exhaustion (LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004), depression, and tension (Boswell et al., 2004; LePine et al., 2005; Webster, Beehr, & Love, 2011). By contrast, challenge and hindrance stressors are differentially related to a range of attitudes and behaviors, such as motivation (LePine et al., 2004), job satisfaction (Webster et al., 2010), commitment (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007), citizenship behavior (Rodell & Judge, 2009; Ozer, Chang, & Schaubroeck, 2014), work engagement (Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari, & Safavi, 2014; Min, Kim, & Lee, 2015), task

performance (LePine et al., 2004; Pearsall, Ellis, & Stein, 2009), safety behavior (Clarke, 2012), Burnout (Crawford et al., 2010), withdrawal behaviors (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000), and turnover intentions (Zhang et al., 2013).

Empirical evidence has generally supported the challenge and hindrance stressors framework at workplace. For example, challenge stressors have been reported to be positively related to employees' satisfaction (Webster et al., 2010; Beehr et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2007), retention (Podsakoff et al., 2007), loyalty (Boswell et al., 2004), and job performance (Pearsall, Ellis, & Stein, 2009; LePine et al., 2005), whereas hindrance stressors were negatively related to the same outcomes.

Most of the previous research on the challenge and hindrance stress was originally based on the Cavanaugh et al. (2000) study. The scale they developed consisted of six items that measure challenge stressors and five items to measure the hindrance stressors. The regression analysis results indicated that the stress related to the challenging job demands (i.e. workload, job complexity, and job responsibility) was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job search. Conversely, stress resulted from hindrance job demands (i.e. role conflict and ambiguity, interpersonal conflict, and job insecurity) were negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to job search and voluntary turnover.

The subsequent studies that used Cavanaugh and colleagues' two dimensional classification of stressors have reported differential relationships between both stressors and different work-related outcomes. For Example, in a study that aimed at developing a criterion-related validity of Cavanaugh et al. (2000) challenge and hindrance stressor measures by including more outcome variables, Boswell and colleagues (2004) sampled 481 lower-level employees and found that the challenging and hindrance stressors are factor-analytically distinct

from each other's. That is the challenge stressors were positively related to employees' loyalty and negatively related to job withdrawal, turnover intentions, and job search, while hindrance stressors were negatively correlated with employees' loyalty, and positively related to their turnover intentions and job search.

Moreover, previous meta-analysis studies have provided support for the differential outcomes hypotheses (Hargrove, Nelson, & Cooper, 2013). For example, in a meta-analysis study that aimed to clarify the inconsistencies in the results of the previous research that investigated the relationships between work stressors and employee motivation and performance. LePine et al. (2005) utilized Cavanaugh and colleagues' (2000) two dimensional framework to review 82 related manuscripts, LePine et al. (2005) categorized measures of job and role demands, pressure, time urgency, and workload as challenge stressors, while the other measures of constraints, hassles, resource inadequacy, role ambiguity, role and interpersonal conflict, role interference, work overload, supervisor-related stress, and organizational politics were operationalized as hindrance stressors. By analyzing 101 independent samples, LePine et al. found that challenge stressors are positively related to the employee motivation and performance, while hindrance stressors are negatively associated with these work outcomes.

Two years later, the same research team conducted another meta-analysis that utilized data from 183 samples, Podsakoff et al. (2007) found negative relationships between hindrance stressors and the work outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and positive relationship between the same stressors and turnover intentions, and withdrawal behavior, while challenge stressors, on the other hand, were found to be generally the opposite; positive relationship with job satisfaction and organizational commitment and negative relationship with turnover intentions, and withdrawal behavior.

These results were confirmed by Crawford et al. (2010) who found that challenge stressors are positively correlated with performance, motivation, loyalty, and job satisfaction and negatively related to the employees' turnover intention and withdrawal, the study also found that hindrance stressors have contrasting directional relationship with these variables. In another study by Haar (2006), the results showed that challenge stressors were positively related to supervisor support, organizational support, and loyalty, while hindrance stressors were negatively related to the same variables

However, an inspection of the relevant literature implies that there is a serious dearth of studies that operationalize the challenge and hindrance framework as a base to investigate the impact of positive and negative stress on the work outcomes in the hospitality industry. For example, in their study that investigated the moderating role of the PsyCap on the relationships between challenge and hindrance stress and work outcomes of 232 hotel employees working in South Korea, Min and colleagues (2015) revealed that employees' PsyCap mitigate the negative effect of the challenge and hindrance stressors on job burnout. The study also found that employees high in PsyCap possess more work engagement when undergo challenge stressors, while employees who are low in their PsyCap their work engagement is decreased.

In another study, using the Cavanaugh et al, (2000) challenge and hindrance framework, Hon et al. (2013) sampled 265 full-time hotel workers in China and found that those who were experiencing challenge-related stress demonstrated greater creativity when they received positive feedback from their supervisors. Likewise, those employees experiencing hindrance stressors exhibited more creativity at work when their supervisors gave them more positive feedback, and less negative feedback.

In short, empirical studies have classified stressors a priori across various samples theorizing that particular kinds of demands tend to be perceived as challenges, whereas other types of demands are more likely to be perceived as hindrances, however, it is conceivable that although individual variation and experiences can generate unique evaluations of work demands, individuals typically tend to assess particular stressors in the same way, this implies that the essential mechanism determining the differential relationships between challenges and hindrance stressors and work outcomes is employees' perceptions (appraisal) of the stressor (LePine et al., 2005).

Psychological Capital

Positive Psychology

Since the time he chose the positive psychology as the theme for his presidency of the American Psychological Association in 1998, a significant empirical research and substantiated theoretical advancements developed in the mainstream of scientific psychology. Seligman has called for more positive approach in the field of psychology to study the positive capacities and resources within people and building on and developing their strengths and competencies rather than focusing on the negative aspect of the human functioning and trying to fix the deficiencies with them (Luthans & Jensen, 2005; Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

Recently, the aim of positive psychologists has become to move away from focusing solely on repairing faults into developing, optimizing and nurturing the strengths, positive qualities and abilities at the subjective, individual and group levels (Seligman & Csikszentmihaly, 2000). At the *subjective level*, positive psychology is centered around the

individual's valued subjective experiences of well-being, contentment and satisfaction (in the past), flow, joy, sensual pleasures and happiness (in the present), and constructive cognitions of hope, optimism, and faith (in the future). At the *individual* level, this relates to positive personal traits such as love, courage, interpersonal skill, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness, originality, future-mindedness, and wisdom. At the *group level* it concerns civic virtues and the institutions that promote enhanced citizenship, such as responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance and work ethic (Seligman, 2002).

Seligman and other psychology scholars called for psychological research to refocus on two forgotten aims of psychology, namely to help healthy people to become happier and more productive, and to realize human potential; the result has been not only a resurgence of academic interest, but also theoretical and empirical research in the area now referred to as 'positive psychology' (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 9). Since that time, positive psychology has spurred two related branches that applied positivity and strength-based management to the workplace; Positive Organizational Scholarship and Positive Organizational Behavior.

Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS)

This approach has significantly relied on the work of Kim Cameron and organizational scholar's colleagues at the University of Michigan (see Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, & Wrzesniewski, 2003; Cameron & Caza, 2004). Organizational scholarship is defined as;

> *"*the study of that which is positive, flourishing, and life-giving in organizations. Positive refers to the elevating processes and outcomes in organization. Organizational refers to

the interpersonal and structural dynamics activated in and through organizations, specifically taking into account the context in which positive phenomena occurs. Scholarship refers to the scientific, theoretically derived, and rigorous investigation of that which is positive in organizational settings*"* (Cameron & Caza, 2004, p. 731).

This domain of positive psychology emphasizes positive characteristics of the organization that can enhance its functioning in the periods of crisis and adversity conditions. Furthermore, the approach is also focusing on the trait-like construct as they are stable in the human personality and thus difficult to change. Examples of 'trait-like' might include the character strengths and virtues, 'Big Five' dimensions of personality traits, and core self-evaluations (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 544).

Positive Organizational Behavior (POB)

The Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) approach has initially developed in the University of Nebraska's Gallup Leadership Institute. This approach is mainly concerned with the positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that are manageable, developable and measurable and positively influence desired employees' performance, attitudes, and behaviors (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). The focus of the POB approach is to promote the positive psychological capacities and effectiveness in the workplace. Positive organizational behavior (POB) is defined as "*the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured,*

developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace." (Luthans, 2002, p. 59).

In order to distinguish POB from other positive approaches that are usually found in the academic and practitioners literature, Luthans (2002) definition of POB highlights the inclusion criteria for a capacity to be considered as positive organizational behavior dimension, thus a construct has to; be positive and specific to the area of organizational behavior; satisfy the scientific criteria of having a solid theoretical and research foundation; measurable, for instance via a research instrument such as a questionnaire survey; a state-like, in the sense that the capacity is not a trait-like or static in nature, so that it can be changed and developed by using special interventions; and linked to work performance outcomes, in that it has a positive impact on the organizational outcomes (Luthans et al., 2007). The significance of the above criteria is that POB states can be learned, enhanced, and developed via training and self-development programs, or via practical applications, with a view to increasing workplace performance (Luthans & Jensen, 2005).

With these criteria, Luthans and Youssef (2004) claims that the positive psychological constructs that meet the inclusion criteria so far include hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy**.** Together, these capacities, when aggregated, form the construct that has newly emerged as Psychological Capital or simply (PsyCap).

Psychological Capital (PsyCap)

The origin of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) is rooted in Positive Organizational Behaviors (POB); the construct that places a great focus on the importance of the positive

psychological capacities of people in the workplace (Luthans, 2003; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Luthans et al. (2007, p. 3) defined PsyCap as the

> *"individual's positive psychological state of development and is characterized by (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success."*

This definition operationalizes PsyCap as a higher order that consists of four capacities: self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience (Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans et al., 2007). PsyCap has been demonstrated theoretically (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007) and empirically (Luthans et al., 2007) to be a higher order core construct (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010). The idea of higher order construct has its basis in the psychological resource theory which entails that "some constructs are best understood as indicators of broader underlying factors" (Avey et al., 2011, p. 130). Avey et al. further assert that although each variable is capable of predicting attitudes and behaviors of the employees, the four variables together are part of something that is broader than itself. However, it is crucial to mention that each of these four positive psychological capacities has been found to be conceptually independent (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Luthans et al., 2007; Snyder, 2000) and proved an empirical discriminant validity (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Carifio & Rhodes, 2002).

All of the PsyCap capacities meet the requirements of positive organizational behavior as they are state-like in nature, positively focused on human strengths and competencies, have the capacity of being malleable and developable, can be measured and managed, and have

performance improvement capabilities for organizations (Luthans, 2002; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007; Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

According to Avey, Luthans, And Jensen (2009), PsyCap state-like capacities are open to development and change, and recent studies have found that overall PsyCap is malleable and can be developed in short training interventions with employees (Luthans et al., 2006; Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008). PsyCap has been also found to be a valid and measurably reliable higher-order, and latent multidimensional construct (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2012). In addition, it explains significant variance in favorable work related attitudes and behaviors beyond established positively oriented constructs such as core self-evaluations, empowerment and personality traits, (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010; Luthans 2012).

The emerging literature reported that PsyCap has the integrative, common thread running through the four dimensions of a motivational propensity toward goals accomplishment and success (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 548), and thus, as a whole, PsyCap have stronger predictive power of desired employees' outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment and performance better than the individual variables (Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans et al., 2007). In the next section, I will discuss the four capacities of positive psychological capital (self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience) in further details.

Capacities of the PsyCap

Self-efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy draws from the extensive theory and research of Albert Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory of organizational management, which constitutes a

method of understanding human cognition, action, motivation, and emotion that considers humans to be 'active shapers', rather than mere 'passive reactors' to situations (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 1997; Bandura, 2001; Barone, Maddux, & Snyder, 1997). Bandura (1997, p. 3) defines self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments." self-efficacy can be regarded as the individual's perceived competence that he/she can handle a particular task as an estimate of their self-efficacy (Molden & Dweck, 2006).

In the field of positive organizational behavior, self-efficacy was defined as *"an individual's conviction about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action necessary to successfully execute specific task within a given context*" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66; Luthans, 2002, p.700). In this sense, self-efficacy represents the belief in one's own ability to utilize cognitive resources in order to generate positive results (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). This type of belief is recognized as one of the primary and key determinants of individual behavioral choices, and the extent to which individuals will persevere when they are faced with obstacles and challenges (Maddux, 2002).

Self-efficacy involves positive beliefs and thoughts (not ability, nor outcome expectancy) which play a significant role in affecting the way people perceive events and interpret situations. People with lower levels of self-efficacy are more likely to perceive their efforts to handle difficult challenges as insignificant, thus they experience more negative stress symptoms, whereas individuals in possession of higher levels of self-efficacy will tend to perceive challenges as being manageable and controllable if sufficient competencies are possessed and appropriate efforts are made (Bandura, 1997).

Given the comprehensive theory and research provided by Bandura and others, the impact self-efficacy has on human functioning and achievement is widely recognized. Conceptually, it follows that those highly motivated individuals, are willing to stick with a task, have positive thought patterns, and are less resistant to stress, which make them higher performing leaders and employees.

Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) denoted that self-efficacious people are characterized by five behaviors as follows; a. self-set -challenging goals, and self-selection of difficult tasks; b. highly self- motivated; c. invests and mobilizes the necessary effort toward accomplishing their goals, and mastering their tasks; and d. persevere when faced with obstacles (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). These characteristics nurture high officious persons with the ability to develop independently and perform effectively, even where there is relatively little external input over an extended length of time.

Several theoretical and empirical research studies have demonstrated associations between self-efficacy and work related outcomes in different organizational settings. This relationship has been highly established in the literature in several areas such as work attitudes across cultures (Luthans, Zhu, & Avolio, 2006), decision making (Lam, Chen, & Schaubroeck, 2002; Nilsson, Schmidt, & Meek, 2002), leadership (Luthans, Luthans, Hodgetts, & Luthans, 2001), entrepreneurship (Chandler & Jansen, 1997; Neck, Neck, Manz, & Godwin, 1999; Luthans & Ibrayeva, 2006), moral or ethical decision making (May, Chan, Hodges, & Avolio, 2003; Youssef & Luthans, 2005), creativity (Tierney & Farmer, 2002), and participation (Lam, Chen, & Schaubroeck, 2002). In addition, several meta-analytic studies demonstrated a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and work-related performance (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, & Rich, 2007; Sadri & Robertson, 1993). For

example, in their meta-analysis, Stajkovic and Luthans' (1998) reviewed 114 studies and 21,616 subjects, and found that self-efficacy is significantly correlated (r = .38) with work-related performance.

Hope

Hope is usually used in our daily language as one's expectations of desired events, actions and incidents to happen in the future. But in the arena of the positive Psychology, this term has a specific meaning with a considerable theoretical evidence. The scientific inquiry of personal capacity of hope relies mainly on the research and theory of the clinical positive psychologist Rick Snyder and his colleagues (Snyder, 2000; Snyder et al., 1991). In an early study in this field, Snyder, Irving and Anderson (1991, p. 287) defined hope as: "*a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful agency (goal-directed energy) and pathways (planning to meet goals)*."

In this sense, hope as a psychological construct consists of three main conceptual components: agency, pathways, and goals. a) agency is the motivational energy to pursue a goal; the agency dimension indicates that people are motivated to achieve their goals by their sense of agency, which evoke their internalized willpower to invest on the necessary energy and efforts to achieve their goals. b) pathways to achieve goals, where people with high agency factor are driven by their sense of having the ability to generate routes toward accomplishing their goals. c) alternative ways when faced by obstacles, being capable of generating alternative paths towards goals achievement when the original routs are blocked. (Snyder, 1994, p. 10). This is to say, hope comprises the individual *willpower* to succeed and way power to success (Snyder, 2000). When combined together, agency and pathways lead to a state in which an individual is able to

plan goals (Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans et al., 2006). People who are high in hope, tend to utilize their contingency planning as they forecast obstacles to accomplishing their tasks and achieving their goals or sub-goals, and furthermore, and proactively identify multiple routes to attain their goals (Snyder, 2000).

Hope is a significant component in positive organizational behavior because it plays a vital role in employee performance as it leads to the attainment of goals (Peterson & Byron, 2007). Pressingly, although high-hope human resources seem especially needed for the contemporary ever demanding workplaces and the extremely unstable business environment, a few studies have examined the impact that hope might have on the workplace settings (Luthans et al., 2007). At present, though, hope is the most unique POB capacity, there is some evidence to support the conclusion that the degree of hope an individual possesses is related to their expected goals, perceived control, and positive affect (Curr et al., 1997). In addition, some early research shows that individuals who have high levels of hope in stressful roles, such as those in service sectors, perform better (Kirk & Koeske, 1995; Simmons & Nelson, 2001; Luthans, 2002).

Nonetheless, organizational behavior literature suggests that leaders, managers and supervisors with greater levels of hope (will power and way power) have consistently higher level of work outcomes. For example, in an explanatory study of 59 managers in a single fast food restaurant chain, Peterson and Luthans (2003) found that high hope leaders as compared to low leaders had more profitable work units, better satisfaction levels and retention rates among their employee. In another study, Yavas, Babakus and Karatepe (2013) reported that, as a personal resource, hope is an antidote to the negative impact of burnout on frontline bank employees' in-role and extra-role behaviors. With a special interest to this study, Yavas,

Karatepe, and Babakus (2013), sampled 183 full-time frontline employees in Northern Cyprus and revealed that hope can serve as antidote to the deleterious effects of challenge and hindrance stressors antecedents on turnover intentions.

Optimism

Optimists are classically described in our day life language as "people who expect good things to happen to them, while the pessimists are people who expect bad things to happen to them" (Carver & Scheier, 2005, p. 231). Another more expressive description of the optimism was introduced by Tiger (1971; p. 18) who suggested that optimism is "a mood or attitude associated with an interpretation about the social or material-one which the elevator regards as socially desirable to his or her advantage, or for his or her pleasure."

Drawing from attribution theory which is concerned with the individual's explanations causes of behaviors and events (Buchanan & Seligman, 1995), Seligman (1998) elucidated optimism in a form of explanatory style that involves attributing positive events to personal, permanent, and pervasive causes, and negative events to external, temporary, and situation-specific causes (Luthans et al., 2008). By contrast, pessimistic explanatory style consists of externalizing positive events and attributing them to temporary, situation specific causes, while internalizing negative events and attributing them to permanent and pervasive causes (Youssef & Luthans, 2005).

Optimists are those individuals who have positive perspectives and expectations about their future, even when they are challenged by critical instabilities (Scheier & Carver, 1985). In other words, they make internal and stable attributions regarding desirable situations and events,

and attribute external and unstable reasons regarding the undesirable situations and events they encounter. However, individual's attributions for positive and negative behaviors and events are shaped and influenced by both the situation and the individual (Buchanan & Seligman, 1995).

Optimism has been viewed in two dimensions, a) degree of permanence (optimists view a positive event as permanent, and negative event as temporary), and, b pervasiveness, where optimists will identify negative cause, for instance, as specific to a particular situation, rather than to all situations, and vice versa (Seligman, 2002).

However, it is crucial to state that optimism is not just an unchecked process without realistic evaluation (Schneider, 2001; Luthans et al., 2007). Realistic optimism is a dynamic process and that involves a changeable state-like capacity. Peterson (2000) contends that realistic optimism follows a comprehensive assessment of the individual's abilities to perform in a given situation and under specific circumstances so that it builds upon his/her self-efficacy and hope.

Optimism as a states like capacity of PsyCap has been empirically found to be malleable and open to development and change (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009), this can be done through such methods of three step process suggested by Schneider's (2001), which includes leniency of the past, appreciation of the present, and opportunity seeing of the future.

Research has also linked optimism to different work outcomes. For example, Seligman (1998) found that there is a significant positive relationship between optimism and the performance of insurance sales agents. In another study of a Chinese factory workers', optimism was reported to be significantly related to workers' performance (Luthans et al., 2005), appreciation of that performance, and workers' happiness (Youssef & Luthans, 2012). In this sense, the relationship between optimism, job satisfaction and organizational commitment seems to be particularly important (Luthans, Lebsack, & Lebsack, 2008).

Resiliency

Resiliency was originally introduced by Garmezy (1973) as "a class of phenomena characterized by patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant adversity or risk" (Masten & Reed, 2002, p. 75). Resilience in the positive psychology is described as positive coping and adaptation when encountered by a substantial risk or adversity (Masten & Reed, 2002; Masten, 2001; Stewart, Reid & Mangham, 1997, p. 22).

In the context of workplace, resiliency as a PsyCap capacity was defined as the "positive psychological capacity to rebound, or 'bounce back' from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure, or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility" (Luthans, 2002, p. 702). This definition recognizes not only the individual's ability to bounce back from adversity as suggested by Masten and Reed (2002), but also the positive challenges and the individual willpower to go above and beyond the usual levels of performance (Luthans et al., 2007). In this sense, resilience is a commonly recognized to be a state as compared to hope and optimism and is influenced by three sets of factors: risks, assets, and adaptation processes (Masten, 2001).

Resiliency is the capacity to bounce back from adversity, uncertainty, failure, or even positive but apparently devastating situations such as increased responsibility. Resilient individuals are distinguished by their continuous sense of reality (Coutu, 2002); likewise, resiliency development efforts are also grounded in realistic evaluations and the development of coping strategies for obstacles (Jensen et al., 2008). Benard (1991) identified attributes of resilient individuals such as social competence, problem solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose and future. Coutu (2002) asserts that the characteristics shared by resilient individuals are said to be (a) a staunch acceptance of reality; (b) a deep-seated belief, generally reinforced by

strongly-held values, that life has meaning; and (c) a highly developed ability to adapt to major change, and to improvise.

Research on resilience has thus far tended to take one of two different paths: variable-focused, or individual-focused (Masten & Reed, 2002). The variable-focused method utilizes statistical analysis to study the linkages between individuals, environments, and experiences that reflect resilience. On the other hand, the person-focused method identifies resilient people based either on individual case studies or comparisons between subgroups, such as highly resilient compared to less resilient, and high risk compared to low risk (Masten et al., 2009). The diverse approaches to resilience study have demonstrated results that can be generalized through different populations.

Research found a significant positive relationship between the construct of resilience and workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction (Youssef & Luthans, 2007; Luthans et al., 2005; Youssef, 2004), employee performance (Luthans et al., 2007; Youssef, 2004), organizational commitment (Youssef & Luthans, 2007; Youssef, 2004), and work happiness (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Similarly, Larson and Luthans (2006) found the factory workers' resiliency related to their job satisfaction; and Youssef and Luthans (2004) found that employees' level of resilience related to their satisfaction, commitment, and happiness.

PsyCap and work outcomes

Research on PsyCap has taken place across different organizational settings, organizational levels and various samples and populations. On a geographical level, PsyCap has been studied to investigate how it can predict work-related outcomes in different countries and

cultural groups (Avey et al., 2011; Luthans et al., 2008; Luthans et al., 2005). Several studies have supported the contention that PsyCap is a significant predictor of individual outcomes in Asian workers' samples (Luthans et al., 2005; Luthans et al., 2008; Ke, Sun, & Li, 2009; Sun, Zhao, Yang, & Fan, 2012). For example, in an exploratory study, Luthans et al., (2005) sampled 422 Chinese workers from state-owned and privately-owned factories, a positive correlation was found between PsyCap and performance (r = . 24, p< .01), similar results were also reported in another study by Luthans, Avey, Smith, and Li, (2008), (r = .25, p< .01).

In another study that was conducted in Romania, Karatepe and Karadas (2014) found that PsyCap can lessen employees' work–family conflict, turnover and absence intentions. Moreover, in a study that sample 236 employees in Poland, Wojtczuk-Turek and Turek, (2015) reported that there is a significant positive relationship between PsyCap and innovation behavior (r =0.554; <0.01), and additionally, PsyCap has also explained more than 53% of the variance of the innovative behavior.

Another study of entrepreneurs in the United States by Hmieleski and Carr (2008), found that PsyCap explains a significant amount of variance in new venture performance, above and beyond measures of financial capital, human capital and social capital**.** Avey, Nimnicht, and Pigeon, (2010) examined the relationship between employees' PsyCap and their performance in a large financial company in Australia, they revealed that employees' levels of PsyCap are associated with their financial performance, referrals within the firm and manager rated performance.

Moreover, collective PsyCap has also been investigated in the literature in connection to; trust in management aggregated to the group level between perceptions of authentic leadership, trust in management, positive PsyCap and performance (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009); team level

outcomes such as cohesion, cooperation, coordination, conflict and team satisfaction (West, Patera, & Carsten, 2009); and, the role that collective PsyCap and trust may play in the relationship between authentic leadership and group better performance and citizenship behaviors (Walumbwa et al., 2011), and organizational commitment (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007).

To this end, PsyCap has been associated with a several interesting constructs in the field of organizational behavior. Larson and Luthans (2006) reported a significant relationship between PsyCap and job satisfaction and between PsyCap and organizational commitment. Avey, Patera, and West (2006) found that higher levels of PsyCap are generally negatively related to absenteeism behavior; specifically, PsyCap reduced involuntary absenteeism.

PsyCap was also linked to the employees' organizational behaviors. With special interest to this study, Norman, Avey, Nimnicht, and Pigeon (2010) found that PsyCap was related to the employees' extra role behaviors. The study examined the interaction effects between PsyCap and organizational identity with their relative outcomes to OCBs. Norman et al. (2010) found that the relationship between PsyCap and OCBs would be greater when identification with the organization was high. Furthermore, Avey, Luthans, and Youssef, (2010) investigated the relationship between PsyCap and the employees work related behaviors and attitudes, by sample included 336 employees from a wide cross section of organizations and jobs, the study found that PsyCap was positively related to the organizational citizenship behaviors(OCBs) directed toward both individual (r = .40, p < .01), and organizational (r = .58, p < .01). Gupta (2010) examined the relationship of high performance human resource practices, organizational citizenship behaviors, and PsyCap, and found that there is a positive correlation between PsyCap and organizational citizenship behaviors.

The first meta-analytical analysis of the impact of PsyCap on attitudes, behaviors, and performance has recently become available (Avey et al., 2011). This meta-analysis of 51 independent samples including more than 12,000 employees provided evidence that PsyCap is a significant higher-order construct within the field of organizational behavior. The study demonstrated that PsyCap had positive relationships with important attitudinal and behavioral variables.

Previous studies also utilized PsyCap in order to overcome or thwart undesirable work outcomes. In particular, PsyCap has been claimed to be negatively related to occupational stress, employees' turnover, and job searching behaviors (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009). PsyCap has also been shown to be negatively linked, to a significant degree, to employee cynicism, and the employees' pessimistic perspective toward change at work. To this end, PsyCap was found to mitigate work-related 'deviant' behaviors (Avey et al., 2008).

The evidence these studies have presented demonstrates that self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism together constitute PsyCap, which is as Luthans et al. (2010, p. 48) suggest, "can be expected to lead to higher performance based on their reinforcing greater extra effort from individuals, promoting the generation of multiple solutions to problems, positive expectations about results leading to higher levels of motivation, and positive responses to setbacks". Combined, this evidence is very supportive of the notion that PsyCap is a unique second-order construct that is able to predict work-related behaviors and attitudes just as well, if not better than, other, similar trait-based constructs.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) is one of the most enormously investigated areas in the organizational behavior research in the last few decades (Chahal & Mehta, 2010). The interest in the organizational extra-role behavior that is discretionary, not explicitly recognized by the formal compensation system, and in aggregate, promotes the effectiveness of the organization (Organ, 1988, p. 4) can be traced back to the management theorist Chester Barnard (1938). Barnard (1983) affirmed that the vitality and endurance of organizations is dependent upon the willingness of employees to contribute efforts to the cooperative system of the organization. Willingness means de-personalization of the individual's actions, which results in unification of efforts (Barnard, 1968. p. 82). Barnard (1983) further advocates that without uniting the efforts together, an individual's effort cannot contribute significantly to the organization.

Drawing upon Chester Barnard's concept of the "willingness to cooperate", Daniel Katz 1964, p. 132) proposed three kind of behaviors that are crucial for an effective functioning of any organization. First, people must be motivated to join and stay in the organization. Second, they must fulfill their specific job tasks and role requirements, and third, people within the organization must implement innovative and spontaneous activity that go beyond their prescribed roles.

According to Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) the second and last patterns of behaviors are significantly important because they involve a contrast between the organizational essential activities that are prescribed by job requirements with other activities that are also important but discretionary and are not usually prescribed. Organ and Konovsky (1989) argue

that, Daniel Katz's (1964, p. 132) definition distinguished between regular job performance (in-role behavior) and spontaneous behavior (extra-role behavior).

In this regard, several studies in the management stream have distinguished between in-role behaviors and extra-role behaviors (Barksdale & Werner, 2001; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Turnipseed, 2002). In-role behaviors are identified as those that are prescribed and defined in job descriptions and role requirements as part of employee's job, and are formally recognized by the formal reward system of the organization (Katz & Kahn, 1978). On the other hand, extra-role behaviors are demonstrated as those that are discretionary in nature but are not recognized by the organization's formal reward system (Netemeyer et al., 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1996). To further distinguish these extra-role behaviors from in-role behaviors, Organ (1988) coined the term OCB as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not explicitly recognized by the formal system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ,1988. p. 4).

OCB was conceptualized as a general set of behaviors that are exhibited by employees as positive, supportive, discretionary, and go beyond formal job requirements. The definition suggested by Organ (1988) implies three main characteristics that underpin OCB. First, an OCB is not pre-defined in the formal job discerption or role requirements, it is rather a behavior of the employee's choice that does not necessitate to be rewarded when exhibited or penalized when it is not. Second, there is no guarantee that employee who shows such a behavior will be rewarded. Finally, this behavior is positive and contributes significantly to the aggregate effective functioning of the organization (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

Definition of OCB

Despite the plethora research about OCB, not as many studies have provided a definite operationalization of the construct. This can be attributed to the fact that much of OCB research has been conducted with special focus on understanding the relationship between these sorts of behaviors and other similar constructs, instead of clearly specifying the nature of OCB as a construct in itself. However, all the conceptualizations of the OCB stand for the notion that it constitutes a voluntary behavior, by which it endeavors to promote effective functioning of the organization, where supervisors cannot compel their subordinates to engage in OCB; in return, the employees expect no formal rewards when they exhibit this discretionary behavior.

However, the term of OCB was first coined by Organ and his colleagues in (1983) who suggested this concept to describe the informal employee contributions to their organizations, this contention is similar to the cooperative and spontaneous behaviors described by Barnard (1938), and Katz and Kahn (1978). However, OCB was later defined by Organ (1988) as "*individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization*" (p. 4). Organ further explain his conceptualization of OCB as follows:

> "By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role of the job description that is the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable. Organ also argue that this definition of OCB requires that it is not be directly or formally recompensed by the organization's reward system, OCB must be limited to those gestures that are utterly and eternally lacking in any tangible

> return to the individual? Over time, a steady stream of OCB of different types…could well determine the impression that an individual makes on a supervisor or on coworkers. That impression, in turn, could influence the recommendation by the boss for a salary increase or promotion. The important issue here is that such returns not be contractually guaranteed" (Organ, 1988, pp. 4-5).

In a later study, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) denoted that, there are five outright characteristics that can be used to identify employees OCBs; a) persisting with extra efforts and enthusiasm when necessary to complete own task activities successfully, b) volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of the job, c) helping and cooperating with others, d) following organizational rules and procedures even when it is personally inconvenient, and e) endorsing, supporting and defending organizational objectives (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, p. 476).

However, Organ's definition of OCB was later modified to include "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place" (Organ, 1997, p. 95). According to Organ et al. (2006) this modification was introduced because the original definition states that citizenship behavior is voluntary, however, employees vary in whether they consider their citizenship behaviors as discretionary or not. Notwithstanding, whatever Organ's definitions one may use, one of the main reasons for the interest in OCBs is because these behaviors are recognized to be positively associated with the measures of organizations survival, positive functioning and effectiveness (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

Dimensionality of OCB

Literature on organizational behavior seems to comprehend a plethora of debate about the dimensions of OCB. Previous research has indicated numerous number of definitions and approaches in which OCBs have been defined and conceptualized over the past years (Smith et al., 1983; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988, Williams & Anderson, 1991; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). However, there seems to be an agreement among organizational behavior researchers that OCB is a multidimensional construct and can be studied and reviewed from different perspectives (e.g., Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002).

In their theoretical and empirical review of the literature, Podsakoff and his colleagues (2000) stated that, there are almost 30 different dimensions of OCB. However, there has been found a significant conceptual overlap between these classifications.

Based on an extensive review of the organizational behavior literature, it is rational to claim that OCB has been classified in the previous research into two main approaches: First, the approach that categorizes OCB dimensions based on the nature of the behavior (e.g. Organ, 1988; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Second, the approach that sorts OCB dimensions based on their targets (e.g. Williams & Anderson, 1991).

In their first attempt to conceptualize OCB dimensions, Organ (1983) has classified OCB into two substantial dimensions: altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism was defined as the behavior of directly helping specific individuals. In other words, when an individual encounter specific problems, and ask for help or needs assistance, altruistic person will do extra effort to provide help. The other type of citizenship behavior as Organ proposed is termed as generalized compliance, which is considered as a more impersonal type of conscientiousness.

This behavior is exhibited by doing things "right and proper" for the sake of the system in the organization rather than for specific individual (Alessandri et al., 2012). By the same token, people who exhibit generalized compliance goes further mile that exceeds the enforced work requirements, standards and expectations (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

Organ (1988) further developed Organ and his associates (1983) two-factor construct, and proposed five OCB dimensions, as altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship (Hoffman et al., 2007). These dimensions are explained as follows:

Altruism behaviors are defined as "voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem, instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a coworker catch up with a backlog of work, fetching materials that a colleague needs and cannot procure on his own" (Organ, 1988). This type of behavior involves voluntarily efforts that aims at helping others within the organization with work-related tasks such as voluntarily orientating new employees, and providing them with beneficial knowledge or skills (Borman et al., 2001).

Courtesy which is defined as "the behavior that subsumes all of those foresight full gestures that help someone else prevent a problem, touching base with people before committing to actions that will affect them, providing advance notice to someone who needs to know to schedule work" (Organ, 1988). Courtesy is generally exhibited in the individual's efforts of preventing problems for other employees and co-workers, the value of such behavior is manifested in that managers will not be required to manage conflict between the employees in the work place (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Conscientiousness is a repeated behavior of exceeding minimally required standards of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conservation of resources, and other internal maintenance activities (Organ, 1988). This behavior is shown when an employee performs more than the

minimum work standards and goes beyond the role requirements such as obedience to work rules and strictness to the regulations (MacKenzie et al., 1993). The value of the conscientiousness is that, employees with this behavior enjoy more responsibilities and need less supervision. Ultimately, this means more work efficiency and more individuals' resources utilization (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Civic virtue is described as "the responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization" (Organ, 1988). This behavior is exhibited when an employee takes an active part in participating, being involved and concerned about the life of the organization. According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach, (2000) individuals with high levels of civic virtue show more willingness to take part in the organization's activities such as attend meetings, and express opinions about an organizations' plans and strategies. In addition, civic virtue employees tend to monitor the organization's environment for growth opportunities and hindering threats and such as keeping abreast with changes that are happening in the industry that might influence the organization.

Sportsmanship is defined as "a citizen-like posture of tolerating the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without whining and grievances" (Organ, 1988). This behavior is demonstrated by the individual's willingness to tolerate slight and momentary personnel tensions and inconveniences and performing the work without complaints, accusations or contestations (Organ & Ryan, 1995). When showed in the work place, sportsmanship can be of help in best use of time, resources and effort in the organization.

According to LePine et al., (2002), the five-factor OCB model comprising altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship, as developed by Organ (1988), has

received a great deal of empirical research for several reasons. First, Organs' model is the oldest, and both Organ and his colleagues have published extensively on OCB, in the form of both articles and book chapters. Second, Podsakoff and colleagues have contributed greatly to the field by providing an effective measure of Organ's five dimensions (Podsakoff et al., 1990), and have conducted a number of outstanding empirical studies that make use of this measure (see Podsakoff et al., 1996). Finally, in general, OCB tend to assume that, in the long-term, the behavioral dimensions are helpful in most situations and organizations (Organ, 1997). Consequently, OCB researchers tend to measure most, if not all, of these dimensions in the same fashion, across different studies. By the same token, other organizational behavior frameworks are not as commonly used, and although numerous studies have utilized other models, there appears to be a lack of consistency in regard to the specific behaviors that are studied.

Moreover, Organ (1990) has further extended his model to include two other dimensions which are *peacekeeping* and *cheerleading*. The former was defined as "actions that help to prevent, resolve or mitigate unconstructive interpersonal conflict" (Organ, 1990. p. 96), and the later was defined as "the words and gestures of encouragement and reinforcement of coworkers' accomplishments and professional development" (Organ, 1990). p. 96).

As mentioned earlier, organizational behavior literature seems to classify OCB based on two main approaches; First, the approach that categorizes OCB dimensions based on the nature of OCB which has been extensively operationalized based on the (Organ, 1988) model; Second, the approach that categorizes OCB dimensions based on the targets of OCB (e.g. Williams & Anderson, 1991; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

The five dimensions introduced by Organ (1988) were reported in the literature as the most salient factors in measuring OCB. However, LePine et al. (2002) suggested that these five

dimensions are highly correlated and as a result they do not have significant differences in terms of their predictors.

Based on the second approach, taking into consideration the conceptual overlap between the OCB behaviors, researchers started arguing that elements introduced by Organ can be amalgamated into conceptual sub-themes of behaviors based on the targets of the OCB. Quoted in Hoffman et al. 2007, Williams and Anderson (1991) asserted that Organ's five-dimension framework of OCB can be embedded into two general categories, those behaviors that are directed to the benefit of other individuals in the organization (OCB-I), and behaviors that are beneficial for the organization itself (OCB-O).

OCB-I includes behaviors that directly benefit individuals and indirectly contribute to the organization (e.g., helping others who were absent, takes a personal interest in other employees). OCB-O, on the other hand, on the other hand, references behaviors that are generally beneficial to the organization as a whole, for instance providing notice in advance when one is unable to work, adherence to informal standards intended to maintain order (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 602). These two categories of OCBs were proposed mainly based on the five dimensions theorized by Organ (1988). Hence, OCB-I is based on of altruism and courtesy, which comprises behaviors that benefit individuals in the organization, while OCB-O is formed by conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, which comprises behaviors that benefit the organization.

Importance of OCB

Literature on OCBs seems to provide several reasons for the growing interest in the effects that this type of behaviors has on work outcomes; OCB has a significant impact on the

organizational effectiveness, Podsakoff and his colleagues (2000) argued that OCB can increase the organizational effectiveness by enhancing employees and managerial productivity, citizenship behaviors can also complement organizational performance, through encouraging more efficient and effective practices at an organizational level (Netemeyer et al., 1997). OCBs make organizational practices more effective by bridging gaps in organizational routines and helping to coordinate teamwork activities. OCBs generate efficiencies through removing or reducing the need for monitoring, which frees up time to spend on more beneficial management functions ((Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005). Furthermore, OCB allows the organizations' resources to be best utilized for more productive purposes (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005) and furthermore, making an organization more attractive when employees speaking positively about the it to outsiders (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002).

Empirical evidence of the associations between OCBs and organizational performance has been found in the literature. For instance, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) reported a positive correlation between civic virtue and sportsmanship dimensions of OCB, and salesperson performance, while a negative relationship was found between employees helping behavior and performance. In another study by Barksdale and Werner's (2001), a positive association was also found between altruism and a managerial rating of employee performance.

Antecedents of OCB

A plenty of research has been dedicated to explore what motivates employees to show OCB in the workplace (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Coyne & Ong, 2007).

Individual characteristics have been identified as the best predictors for OCB. Several research studies found a positive relationship between role satisfaction and employee engagement in OCB (see Bateman & Organ, 1983; Puffer, 1987; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Witt & Wilson, 1991), in this sense, OCB is instigated by employees' belief that they are being treated fairly (Organ, 1990). Organizational commitment has also been identified as a significant predictor of OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Wiener, 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

In addition, leader behaviors have also appeared to be determining OCBs (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1990), from an exchange perspective, supportive leader behaviors may encourage subordinates to engage in OCB a means of reciprocation to their superiors' behaviors (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

Research has also found that dispositional characteristics such as conscientiousness, agreeableness, and positive and negative affectivity serve as predictors of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). For example, conscientiousness as a personality trait has been reported to be sufficiently associated with the conscientiousness dimension of OCB (Organ et al., 2006). Moreover, task characteristics has constantly found to drive employees' willingness to perform OCB (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). By the same token, there are three types of task characteristics that are referenced in the literature, namely task feedback, task reutilization, and task that is intrinsically satisfying; these have been found to be closely related to the traits of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. For instance, Podsakoff, et al. (2000) found that task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks were both positively associated with employees' OCB, whereas task reutilization was found to be negatively correlated with OCB. Therefore, despite the fact that this is not stressed in the existing

organizational behavior literature, task characteristics seems to be important predictors of OCB, and thus warrant greater attention in future research.

Hypotheses Development and Conceptual Model

Social Exchange Theory as a framework for the Relationship between Challenge and Hindrance Stressors and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Exchange theories have commonly been utilized to explain the employee-organization relationship, according to two approaches of exchange, economic exchange, and social exchange. The economic exchange perspective argues that employers provide solely economic rewards in return for employees' performance (Tsui et al., 1997). Likewise, employers who take this approach are not likely to be concerned with maintaining a long-term relationship with their employees. By contrast, employers who utilize the social exchange approach, look to develop a long-term relationship with their employees, and in so doing they demonstrate a regard for their personal well-being and career progression (Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). In return, employees will often go beyond what is strictly required of them in their role (Cho & Johanson, 2008). In this sense, the social exchange theory in particular has been used to explain the relationship between employees and an organization (Tsui et al., 1997; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998).

Since the time it was developed by Blau in 1964, the social exchange theory has been used for a long time by organizational behavior theorists and researchers as a theoretical framework to investigate the motivational basis of the employees' positive behaviors and attitudes (e. g. Levinson, 1965; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997; Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002).). In the last few decades, the theory has tremendously been

utilized to explain the various processes and activities that occur in organizations, including OCB (e.g. Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998; Tsui & Wu, 2005).

However, most of the research on the antecedents of OCB has invoked Organ's (1988) social exchange-based explanation of OCB performance. Organ's explanation suggests that employees perform OCB when they believe that their relationship with the organization is one of social exchange, that is, relationships exist outside formal contracts and the participants' contributions are unspecified, rather than economic exchange, that is, relationships in which each party's contribution is contractually specified (Blau, 1964).

Unlike economic exchanges, social exchanges are made up of diffuse, informal agreements, which leave different parties' contributions open to interpretation. Organ (1988, cited in Zellars, Tepper & Duffy, 2002, p. 1070) argues that organizational practices that promote favorable attitudes create a sense of obligation to repay the organization in such a way that befits a social exchange relationship. The suggestion here is that employees will reciprocate work demands with OCB, because this falls outside of their formal role requirements and any reward structures that are in place; as such, these constitute contributions that are structurally like the social rewards distributed by a fair system (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002).

Social exchange theory posits that individuals use a subjective cost benefit ratio in their relationships, and when an employee perceives that the costs of the relationship outweighs the benefits, they will choose to leave the relationship (O'Brien, 2008).

Given the discretionary nature of OCB and the effort required from an employee to display it voluntarily, scholars describe OCB as a by-product of a social exchange type organization-employee-co-worker relationship (Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

Based on social exchange theory, it is plausible to suggest that employees might demonstrate variable stress responses, based on whether they are provoked by challenge or hindrance stressors. When workers undergo challenge stressors, they will tend to view social exchanges at work in a more positive view, as the strain created by challenge stressors may create desirable future gains. By contrast, strain that is generated by hindrance stressors frequently causes employees to believe that their work environment is placing unwarranted or unfair burdens on them, or that their work demands are compromising their own personal efforts toward goals achievements, growth and development (Ozer, Chang, & Schaubroeck, 2014).

Challenge stressors and OCB (OCB-I and OCB-O)

When considering the relationship between challenge stressors and OCB, there are grounds for asserting that curvilinear relationships exist between challenge stressors and employees' discretionary behaviors linked to their performance, for example choosing to engage in OCB. Similar to the previously evident relationship of challenge stressors with employees work-related performance, challenge stressors are anticipated to reveal a significant linear relationship with employees' OCB this is because challenge stressors (a) enhance employees' perception that their employer is providing them with a chance to develop their competencies; and (b) create a sense of job satisfaction, whereby employees will likely feel obliged to 'give back' to the organization, in the form of OCBs (Gouldner, 1960; Podsakoff, 2007).

For instance, when an employee is challenged with a high level of job responsibility, the employee reciprocates that challenge through engagement in OCB. An employee who experiences challenge stressors will perceive that situation as positive and changeable, and thus they are more likely to cope with their stress by displaying behaviors such as allocating more

efforts to help their co-workers and organizations (LePine et al., 2004). Thus, the following hypothesis was postulated:

H1: *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between challenge stressors experienced by hotel frontline employees and their a) OCB-I and b) OCB-O.*

Hindrance stressors and OCBs (OCB-I and OCB-O)

Based on the tenets of the social exchange theory, when individuals form social exchange relationships with their organizations, they tend to display higher levels of OCB (Wayne et al., 1997). However, hindrance stressors can be perceived as delivering no return on investment for employees' efforts toward their work organizations. The stress that is caused by hindering demands such as role ambiguity, role conflict, administrative hassles, interpersonal conflicts, and job insecurity will prevent employees from demonstrating extra-role behaviors. This assumption is supported by meta-analytic research conducted by Podsakoff et al. (2000), where role ambiguity and role conflicts were reported to have negative relationships with the altruism and courtesy dimensions of OCB (Podsakoff, 2007).

Furthermore, based on the role theory which is suggests that employees typically look to display behaviors that are consistent with their role definitions (Jawahar, 2012), and thus when hindrance stressors (such as role ambiguity) exist in the workplace, this will reduce the likelihood of employees demonstrating OCB. Moreover, hindrance stress may create a constraint of resources, such as efforts and energy, which might lead an employee to not display any extra-role behaviors. Therefore, employees who are experiencing hindrance stress will choose not to

engage in OCB in order to spend their time and resources on the required in-role behaviors. Accordingly, the following hypothesis was postulated:

H2: *There is a statistically significant negative relationship between hindrance stressors experienced by hotel frontline employees and their a) OCB-I and b) OCB-O.*

Moderation Role of the PsyCap

Individuals who have higher PsyCap seem to be more likely to engage in OCB than those with lower PsyCap for several reasons. In general, employees who are more positive seem to exhibit more OCB than employees who tend to be negative. According to Avey, Luthans and Youssef (2009), individuals who have greater PsyCap are less vulnerable to the negative impact of job stressors, and therefore demonstrate more OCB. In particular, individuals with higher PsyCap are often more resilient in the face of stressful circumstances, stressors, and difficulties (Masten & Reed, 2002), and are less affected by any negative repercussions. Furthermore, when exposed to stressors, high PsyCap individuals tend to be optimistic that the situation will change positively (Carver & Scheier, 2002), and thus they formulate plans to improve the situation themselves (Snyder et al., 2000). They will also tend to have higher sense of self-efficacy in persevering in the face of difficulties and adversities (Bandura, 1997).

Thus, those with higher PsyCap respond by positively adapting to the situation and becoming successful (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010). When taking into consideration the distinctive features of PsyCap: hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resiliency (Luthans et al., 2007), this study assumes that individuals who have high PsyCap are more likely to perceive

challenge stressors positively than lower level PsyCap employees, and thus they are more willing to display OCB.

On the other hand, individuals with low capacities for PsyCap are likely to be skeptical about their abilities, as well as the purpose of their extra-role behavior, and this pessimistic perception is likely to decrease their willingness to engage in OCB (Min et al., 2015). Based on this logic, it is postulated that PsyCap will strengthen the positive relationship between challenge stressors and OCBs, and will mitigate the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and OCB.

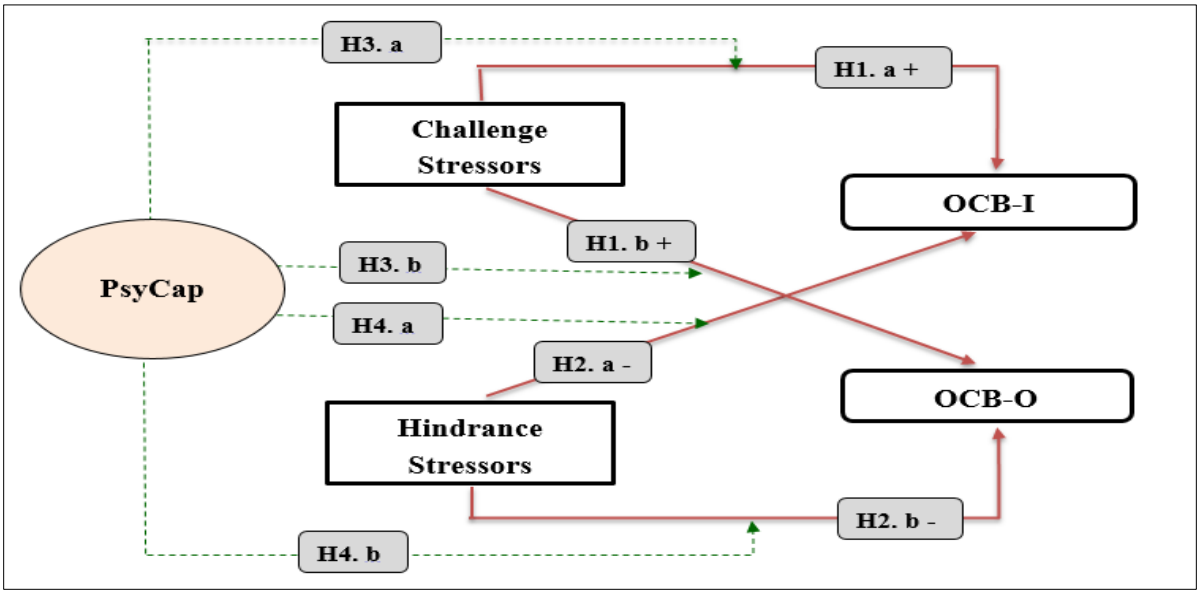
H3: *PsyCap will moderate the relationships between challenge stressors and hotel frontline employees' a) OCB-I and b) OCB-O.*

H4: *PsyCap will moderate the relationships between hindrance stressors and hotel frontline employees' a) OCB-I and b) OCB-O.*

Conceptual Model of the Study

The theoretical research model proposed for this inquiry research is graphically represented in the following figure:

Figure 1. Conceptual model of the study.



CHAPTER 3- METHODS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between two types of occupational stress: namely, challenge and hindrance stress, and hotel frontline employees' OCB directed toward other individuals (OCB-I), and toward their organizations (OCB-O). The study also sought to investigate the moderating role of PsyCap on the aforementioned relationships. This chapter introduces the research design and procedures utilized to accomplish the purpose of this study. The sampling method, data collection procedure, survey instrument, and data analysis are described in this chapter.

Research Design

The current study has a cross-sectional and non-experimental research design. The study included two phases of data collection: the first phase incorporated a two-step pilot study that was conducted with hospitality researchers, students, and management faculty members, while the second stage involved data collection from 213 participants for the main study, who were hotel frontline employees.

Sampling and data collection

The current research hypotheses were tested using a sample of hotel frontline employees in the USA. This sample of hotel frontline employees was chosen because they experience more everyday interactions with customers, have heavy workloads, and experience high levels of occupational stress than other employees in the hotel industry. As the aim of the study was to

obtain a diversified and representative sample, the researcher hired an online research marketing company. The methodology of the study involved inviting hotel frontline employees to participate in the research by completing an electronic survey, which was administered via Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com), an internet-based survey interface.

Online recruiting firms' studies are said to be highly efficient compared to the traditional data collection methods, specifically in terms of the diversity of participants' demographic characteristics, the representativeness of the sample, the reliability of the collected data, and time and effort efficiency (e. g. Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010; Caza, Zhang, Wang, Bai, 2015).

The first page of the survey was an informed consent form. This form made it clear to participants that their participation in the study was on a voluntary basis, and that they were free to withdraw their participation at any time. The researcher ensured the anonymity of the research participants and the confidentiality of data according to the Institutional Review Board guidelines.

Upon establishing the viability of this study by Qualtrics, an initial e-mail with an active Qualtrics link was sent to panelists on Mid-July, 2016, requesting participation in the study. The survey window was open for 45 days, until the end of August, 2016. When 10% of the target number of participants was obtained, the company paused sampling and sent the raw data for 23 participants to the researcher to check the quality of the data and to check for any discrepancies in the responses. The result of the initial review and analysis of the preliminary data showed no red flags, and thus the data was deemed appropriate for the study. Upon the researcher's approval, the survey and data collection was resumed.

In order to screen out participants who did not qualify for the study, several filtering questions were included, for example, the questionnaire asked which industry/business the participant is currently working in. Any respondent who chose an option other than hotels was assumed to be unqualified to respond and therefore excluded.

With a desired sample size of at least 200, and in anticipation of some invalid responses, the company collected responses from 277 participants. Sixty-four of these respondents were excluded from the final analysis because they failed to answer the survey's data quality items and the filtration questions (i. e. failing to respond differently on reverse-coded items compared to non-reverse coded items).

Pilot Testing

A two-stage pilot study was conducted prior to the final data collection to ensure the suitability of the questionnaire's length and format, clarity, accuracy, completeness, how representative the questionnaire's content was, and the validity of the instrument. In the first stage, the questionnaire's format and content were reviewed by nine undergraduate and four graduate hospitality students, plus two research experts in the hospitality management and two management faculty members from a large public university in the southeastern USA. Student participants at this stage were representative of the potential sample of participants for the study, including eight females and five males. Participants were asked to note the amount of time and effort they needed to complete the survey, and identify any confusing items or questions that were difficult. The survey was found to take approximately 10 minutes to complete, and all of the participants reported that the survey had face validity. Based on the participants' feedback,

modifications were made to the screening question, work-related questions, and the survey format.

For the second stage of the pilot study, the researcher contacted tourism and hospitality faculty members across twenty-five universities through the USA, nine of which contacted the researcher to express an interest in helping with data collection. An online version of the survey was then circulated to the potential participant students via their faculty e-mail address. The survey window was open for one month, in the period of mid-March to Mid-April. The study concluded with 109 hospitality management students who are currently or were previously employed in the hospitality industry.

The questionnaires returned from the second pilot study revealed a problem with filling in blanks in the demographics' section, in order to solve this problem and to increase the usable responses, the researcher changed the format of the section to allow participants to choose from multiple options instead of filling in blanks (for example, on questions such as "What is your work department?"). Moreover, the initial analysis of the responses and the reliability estimates revealed that the initial scales met the recommended minimum significance level of .70 (Hair et al., 2010). Based on the results and feedback obtained from the two pilot studies, a modified version of the questionnaire was designed using the Qualtrics platform for the final data collection.

Measurements

The survey instrument used in this study combined four main sections. The first section contained 11 questions that measured the challenge and hindrance stressors. The second section

comprised a PsyCap 24-item Questionnaire (PCQ). The third section featured 24 items regarding the two types of OCB: OCB-I- and OCB-O. Finally, section four involved thirteen demographic and work characteristics questions.

Challenge and hindrance stressors were measured using Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) 11-item scale. The challenge stressors scale assessed the employees' perceived levels of challenging demands that are associated with the individual's future gains and growth. The hindrance stressors scale assessed the perceived levels of threatening demands that are viewed as obstacles to the individual's future gains and growth. The response format ranged from 1 = *produces no stress* to 5 = *produces a great deal of stress*. The measure consisted of six challenge-related items and five hindrance-related items. A sample item of challenge-related stress was: *The amount of work responsibility you have*. A hindrance-related sample item was: *The inability to clearly understand what is expected of you on the job*.

Psychometric evidence of both challenge and hindrance stressors measures has been reported in previous research. Empirical evidence supports the two-dimensional factor structure and scale reliabilities. Reliabilities reported in the previous research were .87 (Cavanaugh et al., 2000), .90 (Boswell et al., 2004), and .77 (Webster et al., 2010) for the challenge measure, and .75 (Cavanaugh et al., 2000), .68 (Boswell et al., 2004), and .70 (Webster et al., 2010) for the hindrance measure.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors *(OCBs*) were measured by Podsakoff's (1990) 24-item measure with an adaption to the measurement scale. Items in the scale were divided into two

types: ten items that measure behavior toward other individuals (OCB-I), and fourteen that measure behavior toward the organization (OCB-O). Employees were asked to rate their OCB using a five-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. There were reverse-scored items in the scale such as *I Always finds fault with what the organization is doing*. The response of the reverse-coded items was deducted from 6. For each dimension of the OCB, and the means for all item scores were computed. A sample item of OCB-I was *I try to avoid creating problems for my coworkers,* and *I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important* for OCB-O.

Psychological Capital (PsyCap) was measured using the PCQ. This scale was originally developed by Luthans et al. (2007), and includes 24 items, with 6 items for each of the four dimensions of the PsyCap (self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience). The scale was used and validated in several studies (e.g., Avey et al., 2009; Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer 2010; Luthans et al., 2007). For example, the Cronbach alphas for the PsyCap measure in the Avey et al. (2010) study were efficacy (.92), hope (.87), resilience (.83), optimism (.78), and the overall PCQ (.95)

As discussed earlier in the literature, there is considerable theoretical and empirical support to examine PsyCap at the core construct level, rather than studying each component separately (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008). In particular, confirmatory factor analysis comparisons have shown that the ideal fitting measurement model, across different samples, comprises an analysis of PsyCap as a higher-order construct. This indicates that, even though the constituent elements of PsyCap have unique properties, they also have much in common (Luthans et al., 2007).

The scale uses a 6-point Likert format (Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008; Luthans et al., 2007) ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree.* A sample item on the PCQ addressing efficacy is *I am confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area*. For hope, a sample item is *I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.* For resilience, a sample item is *I usually take stressful things at work in stride*, and for optimism a sample item is *When things are uncertain for me at work I usually expect the best*. To measure the overall level of PsyCap as a higher order construct, the scores for the four dimensions' hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resilience were combined.

Factor Analysis

Before analyzing the data with Pearson correlations and hierarchical regression analyses to test the hypotheses, an evaluation of the challenge and hindrance stressors scale and OCB scales' dimensionality and reliability was performed. To confirm the dimensionality of the two scales, principal components analysis with varimax rotation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) was used.

For the challenge and hindrance stress scale, Cavanaugh et al. (2000) reported that stressors can be categorized into challenge and hindrance dimensions. To confirm this two-dimensional classification, factor analysis with principal components and varimax rotation was conducted and resulted in two factors. The first factor matched the six-item challenge stressors (eigenvalue = 5.74, 52.2% of the variance, and a Cronbach's alpha of 0.91). The second factor matched the five-item hindrance stressors (eigenvalue = 1.16, 10.5% of the variance, and a Cronbach's alpha of 0.78).

The factor structure of the OCB scale was also evaluated. The initial factor solution extracted five factors that accounted for 61% of the variance with all of the 24 items loading strongly on the proposed dimensionality of the five-dimension OCB scale. In addition, the researcher used the same calculated extraction for the 24 items from the five-dimension OCB scale into two factors using a principal components analysis with varimax rotation to assess the fit for the proposed dimensionality of the items classifying them into two dimensions: OCB-I and OCB-O. These two factors accounted for 45% of the variance.

Validity of the Measurements

In order to assess the validity of the measurement instruments, a focus group consisting of nine hospitality management students was conducted. Students were self-identified as currently employed in the hospitality industry. These group members represented the workforce members within the hospitality industry and possessed a good understanding of the work demands of the industry.

In addition, a panel of hospitality experts examined and reviewed the survey used in this study in order to assess its readability, clarity, and appropriateness of the questionnaire items for the target sample, as well as highlighting any redundancy. This panel was made up of hospitality and management researchers and educators, hospitality managers, and experts in survey design. In response to the feedback provided by the expert panel, the research instruments were adapted, producing the final version. The research instruments were judged by the expert panel and the focus group to possess both face and content validity.

Reliability of the Measurements

Reliability is a measure of how accurately or truly the construct or variable measures the dimension it should represent. Cronbach's Alpha is one of the most commonly reported measures of reliability. Internal consistency for each of the five scales used in this research (challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, PsyCap, OCB-I and OCB-O) was assessed using Cronbach's alpha.

As indicated in the Table 1, all of the five scales had a Cronbach's alpha that is greater than the recommended minimum threshold value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978), providing evidence of high internal consistency. The challenge stress measure was found to be highly reliable (6 items; $\alpha = .913$), and (5 items; $\alpha = .779$) for the hindrance stress measure. PsyCap also indicated a high reliability (24 items; $\alpha = .905$). OCB-I scale reported a high reliability (10 items; $\alpha = .849$), and OCB-O scale reliability was the least at Cronbach's alpha level of (14 items; $\alpha = .748$).

A composite score for each construct was created by averaging all items that comprise a particular measure. Items representing hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience were averaged to create an overall score for the PsyCap construct. Similarly, challenge stress, hindrance stress, OCB-I, and OCB-O scores were computed by averaging item scores representing each construct.

Table 1 indicates the means and standard deviation for all the study variables. The mean scores of the challenge stress scale was ($M = 3.46$) and for hindrance stress measures was ($M = 3.08$) and the Standard Deviations was ($SD = 1.01$ and ($SD = .91$), respectively. The PsyCap measure mean scores was ($M = 4.54$) with a standard deviation of ($SD = 0.72$). The OCB-I mean scores was ($M = 4.33$) and for OCB-O it was ($M = 3.74$), with a standard deviation was ($SD =$

0.56) for both. These mean scores and standard deviations are consistent with those obtained in other hospitality and non-hospitality samples.

Table 1. Reliability of the Measures

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach's α	Scale Statistics	
			Mean	Std. Deviation
Challenge Stress - CH	6	.913	3.46	1.01
Hindrance Stress - HI	5	.779	3.08	.91
Psychological Capital - PSYCAP	24	.905	4.54	.72
Organizational Citizenship Behavior Toward individuals - OCBI	10	.849	4.33	.56
Organizational Citizenship Behavior Toward organization - OCBO	14	.748	3.74	.56
***Note*[2]:** Composite scores for each measure were obtained by averaging scores across items representing that construct. With the exception of PsyCap, the scores for all the scales ranged from 1 to 5 (a higher score indicates a higher level of that construct). PsyCap was measured by a scale that ranges from 1 to 6, with 6 being the highest.				

Common Method Variance

This was a cross-sectional survey research design that collected data only from hotel frontline employees who responded to a single source or self-reported survey in a limited period of time. One of the major concerns for this design, as suggested by Spector (2006), is the

common method variance. This is because the underlying common method variance can inflate the relationships between variables under investigation (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). In their meta-analysis of the correlations between OCB, Organ and Ryan (1995) stated "studies that use self-ratings of OCB along with self-reports of dispositional and attitudinal variables invite spuriously high correlations confounded by common method variance" (p. 779).

For this reason, Harman's single factor test was conducted, which is one of the most commonly used methods to diagnose common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). If it was the case that common method variance posed a significant problem in the analysis of data, then a single latent factor would account for over 50% of the total variance in the measures (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). The results of the Harman's single factor test in current study showed that the single factor with all measurement items accounted for only 22% of the total variance explained, which indicated that the common method variance is not an issue in this study.

Analytic Procedure

The descriptive statistics (Mean, *SD*, correlation) of the demographic information, job stressors (challenges and hindrances), and OCB-I and OCB-O, and PsyCap were computed first. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to test the reliability of the data. The measure of reliability ranges from 0 to 1 and the values of 0.60 to 0.70 is regarded as the minimum limits of acceptability (Hair et al., 1998). Therefore, the coefficient level should not be below 0.60 for internal consistency (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997).

To test hypothesis one (**H1:** *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between challenge stressors experienced by hotel frontline employees and their a) OCB-I and b) OCB-O*) and hypothesis two **(H2:** *There is a statistically significant negative relationship between hindrance stressors experienced by hotel frontline employees and their a) OCB-I and b) OCB-O)*, a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation procedure was employed to explore the strength of the relationship between each independent (challenge stressors and hindrance stressors) and dependent variable (OCB-I and OCB-O). The correlation indicates the strength and direction of the association between variables (Malhotra, 2004). The correlation "r" varies between -1.0 and +1.0. A correlation of zero specifies no relation and a correlation of 1.0 indicates a strong positive correlation, while a value of -1.0 means a strong negative correlation (Pallant, 2005; Malhotra, 2004).

To test the third hypothesis (**H3:** *PsyCap will moderate the relationships between challenge stressors and a) OCB-I and b) OCB-O*) and the fourth hypothesis (**H4:** *PsyCap will moderate the relationships between occupational hindrance stressors and a) OCB-I and b) OCB-O*), the role of PsyCap as a moderator in the relationships between challenge and hindrance stress and OCB-I and OCB-O was examined with a series of Hierarchical Moderated Regression analyses. Following the suggestion by Baron and Kenny (1986), the main effects of the predictors (challenge and hindrance stress) and the hypothesized moderator (PsyCap) in each test were controlled before determining the moderating effect of the hypothesized moderator (PsyCap) on the predictor-outcome association. That is, the types of stressors (challenge stressors or hindrance stressors) were entered into the equation in the first step, and PsyCap was added in the second step. Afterwards, the interaction term (challenge stressors × psychological capital or hindrance stressors × psychological capital) was entered in the last step.

In order to minimize the multicollinearity between the predictor variables, the researcher followed the recommendations of Aiken and West (1991) and Frazier, Tix, and Barron (2004) by having all of the continuous independent (challenge and hindrance stress) and the moderator (PsyCap) variables centered before conducting the regression analyses.

Use of Human Subjects

Before any contact with human subjects, the Auburn University Human Subjects Exempt Study Review Form was completed and submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) alongside the proposal information, which outlined the methods and instruments to be utilized in the present research. In addition, the Human Subjects Research Assurance Training required by Auburn University was completed by the researcher. The study was declared by the Institutional Review Board to be exempt from the requirements of human subject protection regulations (see Appendix B for the exemption letter).

CHAPTER 4 - RESULTS

Data Screening

Before the analysis, the responses were initially screened for missing data, outliers, normality, and multicollinearity. Because the data was collected through a research marketing company, all questions were subject to forced responses and no missing data was accepted. To check for outliers, all variables were z transformed, and cases with z-score above three were considered as outliers. No cases were more than three standard deviations above or below the mean score of the participants. Thus, the results showed no extreme values or outliers.

Normality was also tested by observing the unstandardized residuals, skewness, and kurtosis measures, and the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality. Data for all the scales was found to be normally distributed with no violation in the skewness (<3) or the kurtosis (< 10). Multicolinearity was reviewed by examining the tolerance levels. Results greater than .1 with a variance inflation factor (VIF) of less than 10 indicated that multicollinearity was not an issue.

Demographic Profile and Work-related Information of Participants

The demographic characteristics of the hotel frontline employees' participants in this study are summarized in Table 2. The table shows that the demographic profile of the respondents is similar to that in most surveys of front-line staff in hotels. Most are in food and beverage, younger and female (Ma & Qu, 2011; Karatepe, Babakus, & Yavas, 2012).

The percentage of female research participants amounted to 166 (77.9%), while males constituted 47 (22.1%) of the sample. With regard to age groups, it was found that 39 (18.3%) of the participants were between 18-29 years old, and only 19 (8.9%) were over 50. However, there

was an approximately equal number of participants from each age group. In terms of the participant's marital status, 100 (46.9%) were single, followed by married 89 (41.8%), divorced/separated 15 (7.0%), and other 9 (4.2%).

A large portion of the respondents were from Caucasian/white ethnicity 151 (70.9%), followed by Black/African American 30 (14.1%), Hispanic/Latino were 17 (8.0%), Asian/Pacific Islander 9 (4.2%), and American Indian/Alaska Native 6 (2.8%). The majority had only a high school education 81 (38.0%), followed by Diploma/Associate degree 63 (29.6%), and bachelor 51 (23.9%); while only 8 (3.8%) held graduate degrees. These results indicate that most of the participants are moderately educated. The highest percentage of the sample worked in the Food and Beverage Department 100 (46.9%), followed by Front Office 60 (28.2%), Housekeeping (21 (9.9%), and other administrative departments 15 (7.0%).

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants (*N = 213*)

	Frequenc	Percentage
Gender		
Male	47	22.1
Female	166	77.9
Age		
19 – 24	39	18.3
25 – 29	36	16.9
30 – 34	33	15.5
35 – 39	32	15.0
40 – 44	29	13.6
45 – 49	25	11.7
50 +	19	8.9
Marital Status		
Single	100	46.9
Married	89	41.8
Divorced/ Separated	15	7.0
Other	9	4.2
Education		
High School	81	38.0
Diploma / Associate degree	63	29.6

Bachelor's degree	51	23.9
Graduate degree	8	3.8
Other	10	4.7
Work Department		
Front Office	60	28.2
Food and Beverage (Restaurants, Bars, Banqueting)	100	46.9
Reservations	8	3.8
Housekeeping	21	9.9
Concierge, Guest Service, PBX Switchboard	9	4.2
Other	15	7.0
Ethnic Origin		
American Indian/Alaska Native	6	2.8
Black/African American	30	14.1
Hispanic/Latino	17	8.0
Asian or Pacific Islander	9	4.2
Caucasian/White	151	70.9

Work related information of the participants

As indicated in Table 3, the average participants' years of experience in the hotel industry was seven years and nearly five years of experience in their current hotels. It was also found that the working hours for the employees ranged from 5-12 hours with an average of 8.19 hours per day, and an average of five working days per week.

Table 3. Participants Work-related Information *(N= 213)*

	Mean	**Std. Deviation**
Working Days per Week	5.06	.56
Working Hours per Day	8.19	1.22
Hotel Industry Experience	6.92	6.46
Current Hotel Experience	4.87	4.88

Correlations of Latent Variables

The correlation coefficient is a method to depict the strength and the direction of a linear relationship between two variables (Engle, 2009, p.15). Values of correlations that lie between 0 and 0.29± indicate a weak linear relationship. Values between 0.3± and 0.49± indicate a moderate linear relationship. Values between 0.5± and 1.0± indicated a strong linear relationship. A perfect correlation happens when all points are perfectly in a straight line, either with a positive slope of +1 or a negative slope of -1.

The first goal of this study was to explore the impact of the challenge and hindrance stress on the hotel frontline employees OCB-I and OCB-O. For this purpose, a Pearson's product-moment correlation test was performed to examine the relationship between the variables that were under investigation. That is the Pearson's product-moment correlation analysis was used to establish the relationships between each independent variable (challenge stress and hindrance stress) and the corresponding dependent variables (OCB-I and OCB-O). Overall, the results revealed mixed support for the hypothesized associations of challenge stress and hindrance stress with the different types of citizenship behaviors.

Relationships of Challenge Stressors to the hotel frontline employees' levels of engagement in OCB-I and OCB-O

Building on the first research question which states that: **RQ1**; To what extent is there a relationship between hotel frontline employees' perceptions of the challenging stressors and their level of engagement in organizational citizenship behavior directed toward other individuals (OCB-I) and their organizations (OCB-O)?, Hypothesis 1 postulated that*; there is a statistically*

significant positive relationship between challenge stressors experienced by frontline employees and their a.) OCB-I and, b.) OCB-O.

The Pearson product-moment procedures (*Pearson's r*) test showed that challenge stress was significantly negatively correlated with OCB-I, r = -.206, $p < .01$, and positively related to OCB-O $r = .210$, $p < .01$, Therefore, H1a was not supported, and the result pertaining to the relationship between challenge stress and OCB-O showed that H1b was support.

Relationships of Hindrance Stressors to the hotel frontline employees' levels of engagement in OCB-I and OCB-O

To answer the second research question which states that: **RQ2**; To what extent is there a relationship between hotel frontline employees' perceptions of the hindrance stressors and their level of engagement in organizational citizenship behavior directed toward other individuals (OCB-I) and their organizations (OCB-O)? H2 assumed that, *there is a statistically significant negative relationship between hindrance stressors experienced by hotel frontline employees and their a.) OCB-I and, b.) OCB-O.*

The results of Pearson product-moment procedures test (*Pearson's r*) indicated that hindrance stress was negatively related to OCB-I ($r = -.234$, $p < .01$), H1a was supported, and the relationships between hindrance stress and OCB-O was positive, thus H2b was not supported ($r = .162$, $p < .05$).

As shown in Table 4, the correlation coefficients ranged from -.234 to -0.206 for both types of stressors with OCB-I, and from 0.162 to .210 for both stressors as well with OCB-O, suggesting low to moderate correlations among the latent variables (Hair et al., 2006). For the

PsyCap, the higher order construct was positively and significantly correlated with both types of citizenship behaviors OCB-I $r = .473$, $p < .01$ and OCB-O $r = .350$, $p < .01$.

Table 4. Correlation Coefficients *(N = 213)*

	Correlation Coefficients				
Variables	CH	HI	PsyCap	OCB_I	OCB_O
Challenge Stress (CH)	-				
Hindrance Stress (HI)	.651**				
Psychological Capital (PsyCap)	-.096	-.217**			
Organizational Citizenship Behavior Toward individuals (OCB-I)	-.206**	-.234**	.473**		
Organizational Citizenship Behavior Toward organization (OCB-O)	.210**	.162*	.350**	.491**	-

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

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

Moderation effect of the PsyCap

In order to answer the third research question which state that; **RQ3:** Does the hotel frontline employees' PsyCap moderate the relationships between their perception of the challenging and hindrance stressors and their level of engagement in OCB-I, and OCB-O?, Two hypotheses were postulated as follows; **H3:** *PsyCap will moderate the relationships between occupational challenge stressors and a.) OCB-I and b.) OCB-O*. **H4:** *PsyCap will moderate the relationships between occupational hindrance stressors and; a.) OCB-I and b.) OCB-O.*

Four separate hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test for the moderator effect of PsyCap on the relationship between a) challenge stressors and OCB-I, b) challenge stressors and OCB-O, c) hindrance stressors and OCB-I, d) hindrance stressors and OCB-O.

First, the standardized values were calculated for analysis and the coefficient estimates were compared in the standardized values as suggest by (Judge & Ilies, 2004). In each regression procedure, the main effect (challenge stressors or hindrance stressors) was entered into the regression equation in the first step of the analyses. In the next step, the moderator (PsyCap) was added along with the main effect, and finally, in the third step, the interaction term between the challenge and PsyCap, and the interaction term between the hindrance stressors and PsyCap were entered into the equation.

Moderating effects of PsyCap in the relationship between Challenge Stressors and OCB-I, and Challenge Stressors and OCB-O.

Hypothesis 3a predicted that the relationship between challenge stress and OCB-I would be moderated by PsyCap. According to the results reported in Table 5, the main effect of challenge stress and PsyCap as well as interaction effect (CH × PsyCap) on OCB-I were entered into the model. If the interaction path were deemed significant, then the moderation hypothesis is supported. A significant beta coefficient (β=.149, $p < 0.05$) for the interaction term of (CH × PsyCap) or values of the incremental *F*-statistics [ΔF (1, 205) = 6.595, $p < 0.05$), indicated that the PsyCap variable acts as a moderator. The analysis has undergone three steps. First, along with OCB-I as a dependent variable, the main effect of the challenge stress was entered. Second, the main effect of PsyCap was entered to the model. Third, the interaction effect of challenge stress and PsyCap were entered.

When the independent variable (challenge stressors) was entered, challenge stress was negatively and significantly related to OCB-I, (t = -3.062, p < 0.05). In step 2 when PsyCap was entered into the model, the results showed a significant increase in variance explained over step 1, (ΔR^2 = .207; ΔF = 57.954, p < 0.001). PsyCap was positively and significantly related to OCB-I (t = 7.613, $p < .05$). Hypothesis H3a is supported because the interaction term between challenge stress (independent variable) and PsyCap (moderator) accounted for a significant incremental increase in variance in explaining OCB-I, as manifested by a statistically significant beta value (b). As shown in Table 5 when the interaction term was entered to the model in step 3, there was a significant increase in variance explained over step 2. (ΔR^2 = .023; $\Delta F = 6.595$, $p < 0.001$). This indicates that the PsyCap moderates the relationship between challenge stress and OCB-I.

The graph in Figure 2 plots high and low levels of PsyCap and challenges stress according to procedures in Aiken and West (1991). Specifically, the interaction effects were examined using standard deviations above and below the mean and by selecting values for high and low levels of each variable, the latter results are presented in Figure 2. The effect of challenge stress on OCB-I was negative for both employees with high and low PsyCap. This negative relationship is strengthened when employees' PsyCap is low compared to high. Examination of the interaction effect depicted in the plot showed an enhancing effect that as PsyCap increased OCB-I also increased. This indicates a significant interactive role of PsyCap with challenge stress as postulated in hypothesis 3a.

Because the main effect of challenge stress on OCB-I is negative, which is against the basic assumption, it might be rational to suggest that hypothesis 3a is partially supported.

To test for Hypothesis 3b, the potential moderating effect of PsyCap in the relationship between challenge stress and OCB-O was examined. The slope of the relationship between challenge stress and OCB-O was expected to be stronger in employees with higher levels of PsyCap who would be more engaged on OCB-O. Following the same steps mentioned previously, it was found that when the independent variable was entered, challenge stress was positively and significantly related to OCB-O, (t = 3.115, $p < 0.05$), when PsyCap was entered into the model in step 2, the results showed a significant increase in variance explained over step 1, (ΔR^2 = .138; $\Delta F = 35.520, p < 0.001$). PsyCap was positively and significantly related to OCB-O (t = 5.960, $p < .001$). Table 5 indicates that when the interaction term was entered to the model in step 3, there was a significant increase in variance explained over step 2 (ΔR^2 = .025; $\Delta F = 6.488, p < 0.05$).

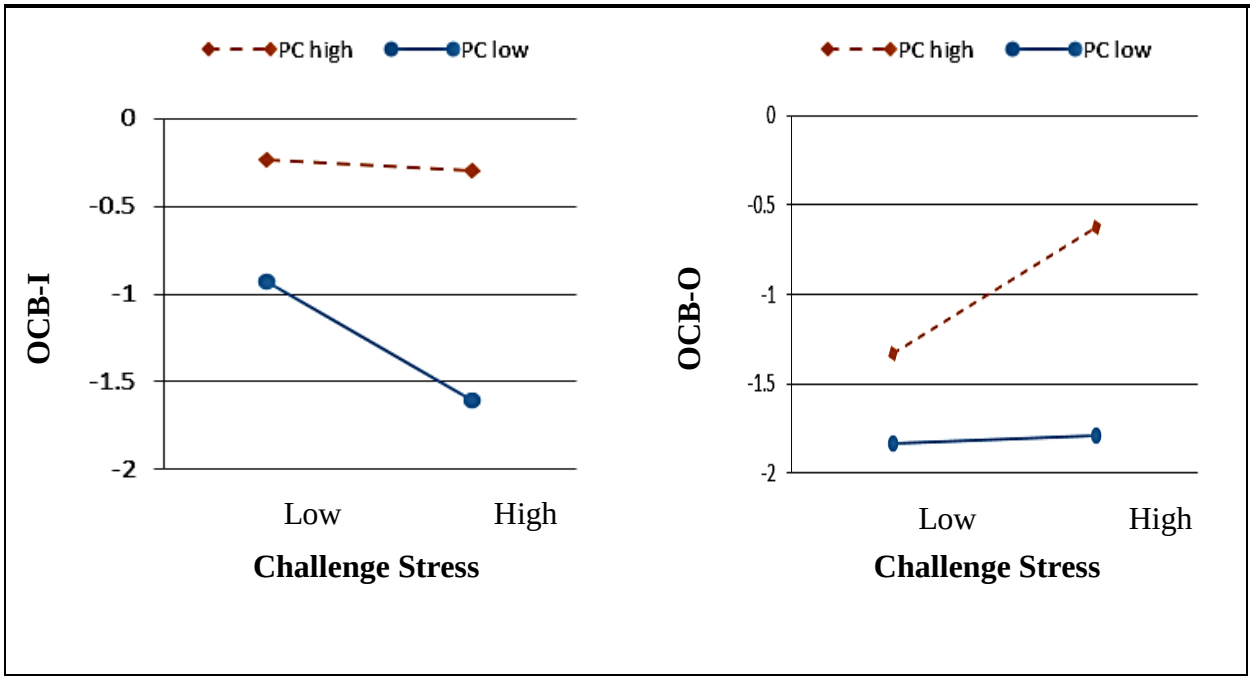
Table 5. Results of Moderated Regression of Challenge Stressors and PsyCap on OCB (OCB-I and OCB-O)

	Dependent Variables					
	OCB-I			**OCB-O**		
Predictor Variables	Step 1 ***β***	Step 2 ***β***	Step 3 ***β***	Step 1 ***β***	Step 2 ***β***	Step 3 ***β***
Challenge Stress	-.193**	-.152**	-.175**	.203**	.238**	.213**
PsyCap		.465**	.510**		.395**	.443**
Challenge Stress × PsyCap			.149**			.160**
R²	.043	.250	.273	.044	.182	.207
ΔR	___	.207**	.023**	___	.138**	.025**
ΔF	9.378	57.954	6.595	9.704	35.520	6.488

Note. N=213. * p<.05. * p<.0.01 ** p<.001***.

The graph in Figure 2 plots high and low levels of PsyCap and challenges stress. As depicted in the graph, the effect of challenge stress on OCB-O is positive for both employees with high and low PsyCap. However, the positive relationship between challenge stress and OCB-O is strengthened when employees' PsyCap is high compared to low. That is, as the levels of PsyCap increased, the employees OCB-O is also increased. Thus, H3b is supported, PsyCap moderates the positive relationship between challenge stress and OCB-O.

Figure 2. Effect of Challenge stress and PsyCap on OCB-I and OCB-O



Moderating effects of PsyCap in the relationship between Hindrance Stressors and OCB-I, and Hindrance Stressors and OCB-O.

To test the hypothesis 4a which postulates that the hindrance stress has a negative effect on employees OCB-I, and more specifically if the employee PsyCap can significantly mitigate the negative relationship between the two variables, a moderated hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. The overall model was significant, R^2 = .258, F(12, 51), p = .001. When

the independent variable was entered step 1, hindrance stress was negatively and significantly related to OCB-I, (t = -3.501, $p < 0.05$); in step 2 when PsyCap was entered into the model, the results showed a significant increase in variance explained over step 1, (ΔR^2 = .187; $\Delta F = 51.769, p < .001$). PsyCap was positively and significantly related to OCB-I ($t = 7.195, p < .001$). This hypothesis would be supported if the interaction terms between hindrance stress (independent variable) and PsyCap (moderator) accounted for a significant incremental variance in explaining OCB-I, as manifested by beta value (b). Table 6 illustrates that when the interaction term was entered into the model in step 3, there was a significant increase in variance explained over step 2 (ΔR^2 = .017; $\Delta F = 4.688, p < 0.001$). PsyCap moderates the negative relationship between hindrance stress and OCB-I.

The graph in Figure 3 plots high and low levels of PsyCap and hindrance stress using standard deviations above and below the mean. As depicted in the figure 3, the effect of hindrance stress on OCB-I is negative for employees with low PsyCap and the effect of hindrance stress on OCB-I is positive for employees with high PsyCap. The interaction effect illustrated in figure 3 indicates that when employees are high in their PsyCap they are more likely to show OCB-I than those with low PsyCap, this indicates a significant interactive role of PsyCap, that is as the PsyCap increased, the OCB-O is also increased. Thus, hypothesis 4a is supported.

To test for this hypothesis 4b, which assumed that PsyCap will moderate the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and OCB-O, a moderated hierarchical regression test was run. When the independent variable was entered in step 1, hindrance stress was positively related to OCB-O, ($t = 2.386, p < .05$), when the PsyCap was entered into the model in step 2, the results showed a significant increase in variance explained over the first step (ΔR^2 = 156; ΔF

= 39.934, p < .001). This hypothesis would be supported if the interaction term between hindrance stress (independent variable) and PsyCap (moderator) accounted for a significant incremental variance in explaining OCB-O, as manifested by a statistically significant beta value (*b*).

When the interaction term was entered to the model in step 3, the results showed a significant increase in variance over step 2, ($\Delta R^2 = .043$; *ΔF = 11.606, p < .001*). The results of the analysis as presented in the Table 6 indicate that PsyCap significantly moderates the relationship between hindrance stress and OCB-O (β=.225; $p < 0.05$).

Table 6. Results of Moderated Regression of Hindrance Stress and PsyCap on OCB (OCB-I and OCB-O)

	Dependent Variables					
	OCB-I			**OCB-O**		
Predictor Variables	Step 1 ***β***	Step 2 ***β***	Step 3 ***β***	Step 1 ***β***	Step 2 ***β***	Step 3 ***β***
Hindrance Stress	-.220**	-.130**	-.132**	.158*	.244***	.240***
PsyCap		.451**	.472**		.427***	.462***
Hindrance Stress × PsyCap			.135**			.225**
R²	.055	.242	.258	.026	.182	.225
ΔR	___	.187**	.017**	___	.156***	.043**
ΔF	12.260	51.769	4.688	5.693	39.934	11.606
Note. *N*=213. *p*<.05. * *p*<.0.01 ** *p*<.001***.						

The graph in Figure 3 plots high and low levels of PsyCap and hindrance stress. As depicted in the graph, the effect of hindrance stress on OCB-O is positive for employees with high PsyCap and the effect of hindrance stress on OCB-I is negative for employees with low PsyCap. The interaction term showed in figure 3 indicates that higher levels of PsyCap are associated with increased OCB-O. Thus, a significant interactive role of PsyCap with hindrance stressors is apparent as postulated in hypothesis 4b.

However, as shown in Table 6. the main effect of hindrance stress on OCB-O is positive, which is against the basic assumption, thus, it might be rational to suggest that hypothesis 4b is partially supported.

Figure 3. Effect of Hindrance stress and PsyCap on OCB-I and OCB-O

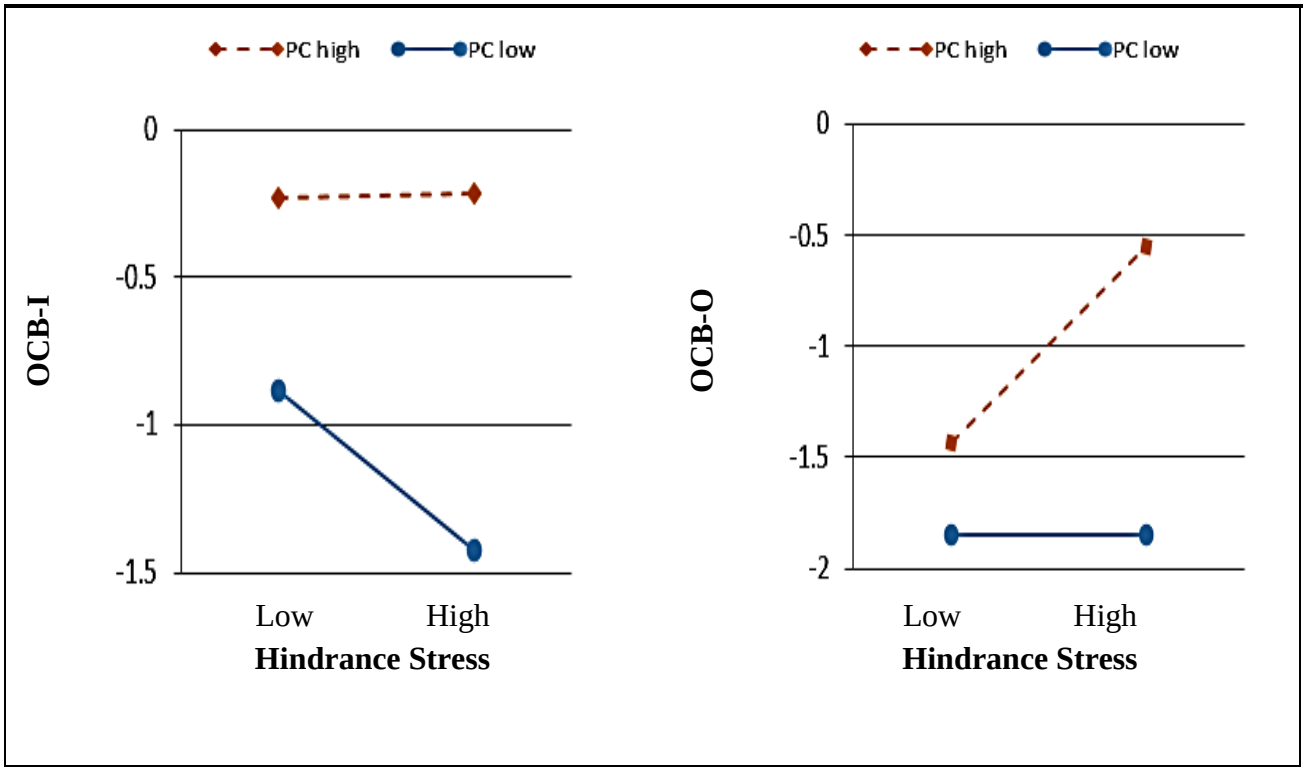


Table 7. Acceptance and/or rejection of the posited hypotheses

#	Hypothesis	Decision
H1.a	*There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Challenge stressors experienced by frontline employees and their OCB-I*	Rejected
H1.b	*There is a statistically significant positive relationship between Challenge stressors experienced by frontline employees and their OCB-O.*	Supported
H2.a	*There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Hindrance stressors experienced by frontline employees and their OCB-I*	Supported
H2.b	*There is a statistically significant negative relationship between Hindrance stressors experienced by frontline employees and their OCB-O.*	Rejected
H3.a	*PsyCap will moderate the positive relationships between Challenge stressors and OCB-I.*	Partial supported
H3.b	*PsyCap will moderate the positive relationships between Challenge stressors and OCB-O.*	Supported
H4.a	*PsyCap will moderate the negative relationships between Hindrance stressors and OCB-I.*	Supported
H4.b	*PsyCap will moderate the negative relationships between Hindrance stressors and OCB-O.*	Partial supported

CHAPTER 5 - DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Discussion of the Findings

The overall objective of this study was to test the relationships between the two types of job stress (challenge and hindrance stressors) and the two dimensions of OCB: individually (OCB-I) and organizationally directed (OCB-O). The study also sought to extend the two-dimensional framework of the challenge and hindrance stressors and employees' OCB by including the newly emerged construct of PsyCap as a moderator in the aforementioned relationships.

While there are few studies that have examined the relationship between challenge and hindrance stressors and OCB, previous literature has generally failed to address the moderation role that PsyCap can play in this relationship. Utilizing the theoretical framework of the social exchange theory, the results of this study demonstrated substantiated support for the hypothesized moderation effect of PsyCap on the relationships between both types of stressors (challenge and hindrance) and OCB-I and OCB-O.

Although hindrances and challenges are interpreted reciprocally, there is emerging evidence that people are consistently more likely to appraise certain stressors as hindrances and others as challenges. The current study examined whether Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) challenge and hindrance stressors framework can be applied to hotel settings, with a particular focus on frontline employees.

Challenge stressors and OCB toward individuals (OCB-I)

The empirical findings of this study demonstrated a significant negative correlation between the challenge stressors and frontline employees' citizenship behaviors that are directed at individuals (OCB-I). This negative correlation contrasts with previous research that reported positive enhancing effects of challenge stressors on OCB in general (Rodell & Judge, 2009; Webster et al., 2010). Two explanations for this surprising result can be suggested. First, this study used Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) scale to measure employees' perceived challenge and hindrance stressors. Although this scale has been widely used and validated in previous research, Webster et al. (2011) cautioned that incorporating the term 'stress' on the response scale of the stressors measure (as used in this study: 1 = *no stress at all*, 5 = *a great deal of stress*) might inflate the relationships with strain variables, which in turn can change the direction of the correlation. Thus, it is rational to assume that participants failed to perceive challenge stressors measured in this scale as challenging.

Another explanation relates to the way by which employees perceive the cause of the challenge stressors they experience. A few, if any of the previous research studies investigated the antecedents of the challenge stressors in the organization's context. For instance, most of the prior research on the two-dimensional framework of challenge and hindrance stressors classified work overload and the associated time pressure with this load as challenge stressors. Hotel frontline employees—who have heavy work demands and various customer requests to satisfy—might attribute the work overload they experience as being a result of their co-workers' deficient performance, and thus they feel obliged to perform their co-workers' duties and responsibilities. As a result, their intention is to accomplish the task for the benefit of the organization, rather than channeling their efforts to help co-workers.

This argument is consistent with Settoon (1997), who argued that unmanageable work overload reduces employees helping behaviors. That is, when employees have a difficult workload to handle, they tend to reduce the amount of discretionary behavior they display toward their co-workers so that they can focus on the in-role behaviors they are required to perform.

Challenge stressors and OCB toward the organization (OCB-O)

The empirical findings of this study demonstrated that challenge stressors boost frontline employees' citizenship behaviors that are organizationally-directed. The positive relationship between challenge stressors and OCB-O can be better explained by Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory (COR). Central to COR theory is the notion that individuals will seek to obtain, keep, protect, and maintain what they perceive to be valuable resources. In other words, individuals will strive to both accumulate and preserve and resources in order to more successfully navigate their way through difficult demands and challenges (Dewe, O'Driscoll, & Cooper, 2012).

In this respect, challenge stressors represent the opportunity for growth (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) for frontline employees. When employees undergo challenge stressors (such as time pressure and work responsibilities), they are offered the potential to expand their personal resources, and so they tend to obtain future gains and resources, such as knowledge, skills, and abilities by choosing to show OCB as a means to gain more resources.

For instance, a frontline job in the hotel industry entails a considerable amount of responsibilities, a factor that is recognized in the literature as a being a significant challenge stressor (Podsakoff, 2007). That is, the nature of frontline employees' jobs requires them to deal with a large amount of requests and demands from customers. Under these circumstances,

frontline employees tend to appraise these demands as opportunities for learning, development, and growth. When employees recognize that their managers are developing their competencies by increasing the scope of their job responsibilities, frontline employees recompense their organization by demonstrating extra-role behaviors toward their organizations. Performing OCB is a means by which frontline employees might choose to reciprocate the opportunities offered to them by their organization, as these opportunities increase their potential to obtain future gains and resources.

Hindrance stressors and OCB toward individuals (OCB-I)

The empirical findings of this study demonstrated that hindrance stressors entail a significant negative relationship with frontline employees' citizenship behaviors that are directed toward individuals (OCB-I). This is consistent with previous similar research studies, which reported a negative association between perceived stress that is manifested in negative job demands and extra-role behavior (O'Brien, 2008; Paillé & Grima, 2011). For example, interpersonal conflict is a hindrance stress that is linked to several harmful outcomes in the hotel context (such as service sabotage and deviant behavior). This type of conflict with co-workers is likely to cause employees to react unhelpfully to organizational members compared to their organizations.

Challenge stressors and OCB toward the organization (OCB-O)

A surprising result in this study was that hindrance stressors were found to be positively and significantly related to hotel frontline employees' citizenship behaviors that are organizationally-directed (OCB-O). This might seem contrary to common perceptions of the effect of hindrance stressors on employees' positive attitudes and behaviors. Nonetheless, only a few empirical studies have examined the relationship between hindrance stressors and

organizational behaviors. The results of this study do not indicate which specific hindrance stressors can be positively perceived by employees, and therefore can influence OCB-O. However, these results contrasted prior research, which found a negative relationship between perceived negative stress in general and OCB-O (Podsakoff et al., 2000). One possible explanation for this finding might be that perceived hindrance stressors were reportedly found to include specific stressors such as role ambiguity and role conflict. It could be argued that when employees undergo role conflict and ambiguity stressors, they might choose to engage in extra-role behaviors as a means to figure out their tasks, duties, and role expectations. For instance, employees might choose to show citizenship behavior that is manifested in keeping abreast of changes that are happening in their department, so that they can obtain the implicit knowledge involved in their position (such as the hotel's organizational culture, service climate, and routines) and transform this into job competency to master their roles.

However, the inconsistency of the findings in this study regarding the relationships between hindrance stress, OCB-I, and OCB-O could be supported by Organ's (1988) study, which suggested that when job descriptions are more ambiguous, it is difficult for employees to distinguish between their job core requirements and discretionary behavior. That is, OCB might be valued equally, if not more than, in-role behaviors when role definitions are inherently vague (Eatough et al., 2011).

Moderation role of the PsyCap

The current research further hypothesized that PsyCap will interact with challenge stressors and hindrance stressors to predict OCB-I and OCB-O. That is, the positive effects of

challenge stressors on the both types of OCB will be increased for those with higher PsyCap, and the negative effect of hindrance stress on OCB will be mitigated for those with higher PsyCap.

The moderating effects of PsyCap in the relationship between challenge stressors and OCB-I and OCB-O.

The results of this study demonstrated that when an employee's perception of the challenge stressors increased, the levels of OCB-I and OCB-O also increased when the level of PsyCap was high. On the other hand, when the challenge stress was low, employees with high PsyCap seemed to compensate for this by choosing to engage in more OCB-I and OCB-O. This provides empirical support for prior empirical studies regarding the positive effect of PsyCap on desirable work outcomes (Avey et al., 2006; Luthans, et al., 2007).

In this sense, when high PsyCap employees experience challenging stressors, they exert tenacious pursuit and persistent efforts driven by strong beliefs that their actions and abilities will enable them to overcome the demands and accomplish their assignments (self-efficacy). Being goal-directed and resourceful, and having agency, they are capable of overcoming challenging situations through their determined and creative willpower (hope). They are more likely to overcome challenging stressors through their positive reaction to the situation by attributing the causes of that stress to be personal, permanent, and pervasive. By doing this, they embrace stress and perceive it as an opportunity for future development and growth (optimism). So that, they are likely to use their problem-solving skills, autonomy, and sense of purpose and future to better handle the challenge stress (resiliency) (Luthans, 2007).

The moderating effects of PsyCap in the relationship between hindrance stressors and OCB-I and OCB-O.

PsyCap emerged as a predominant factor in alleviating the negative impact of hindrance stressors on the two types of OCB: OCB-I and OCB-O. This finding is congruent with prior empirical and conceptual research that reported PsyCap's moderating role in promoting positive organizational outcomes (Cheung, Tang, & Tang, 2011; Min et al., 2015).

When threatened by job demands, self-officious employees with high PsyCap levels do not see hindrance stressors as threatening the achievement of their goals and success, as they believe in their coping resources to deal with these demands. Hopeful employees are motivated by their sense of agency and willpower to invest the necessary energy and identify multiple pathways to overcome negative stress. Optimistic employees are more likely to attribute the causes of this stress to be external, temporary, and specific to the situation rather than indulging in feelings of inadequacy and self-blame. Resilient employees possess the ability to bounce back from adversity, uncertainty, and the failure that might be associated with hindrance stress.

In summary, it can be seen that employees with high PsyCap have a positive psychological state of development, which means that they tend to contribute the necessary efforts to succeed at demanding tasks (self-efficacy), persevere towards goals, and when necessary, redirect their paths toward their goals in order to succeed (hope). These employees make a positive contribution to succeeding now and in the future (optimism), and when beset by problems and adversity, they bounce back to attain success (resiliency).

As a result, employees with higher levels of PsyCap are more likely to perceive challenge and hindrance stressors as positive compared to those with lower PsyCap. Thus, they are more willing to engage in positive work-related behavior, including the two dimensions of OCB examined in this study (OCBI- and OCB-O).

Practical Implications

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this research is the first to explore the moderating role of PsyCap in the relationship between challenge and hindrance stress and OCB in the USA hotel industry. The study provides direct implications to hotel managers in their pursuit to design and implement stress management interventions. Hospitality organizations, and hotels in particular, should ensure their managers understand and able to use the challenge-hindrance stressors framework to develop proactive stress management strategies to support their frontline employees in coping with job demands. Managers of frontline departments should aim to avoid hindrance stressors, such as interpersonal conflict, role conflict, and role ambiguity, to reduce undesirable outcomes. For instance, managers can reduce role conflict at workplace by establishing open lines of communication between them and their employees, communicating their expectations from employees, and training the employees to tolerate role conflict whenever it happens. They should also strategically optimize the levels of challenge stressors, ensuring they have programs in place to buffer the energy-depleting effects associated with these challenges. This may potentially attract and satisfy those who thrive in highly challenging jobs.

Hotel managers must also consider the employee perception of work-related demands as a foundation for stress managements activities. In this respect, employees must be able to perceive challenge stressors positively, and thus consequently identify the advantageous value of challenge stressors toward their goal achievements, development and growth. Therefore, it is important that hotel managers and supervisor frequently communicate the potential benefits to their employees when offering opportunities for challenge stressors.

While hospitality organizations might lack the ability to eradicate the negative consequences of hindrance stressors on employees' performance and OCB, this research asserts

that managers can develop strategies and practices to reduce the impact of these stressors to a manageable level. For instance, the hindrance stressors of role ambiguity can be minimized by conducting a job redesign and establishing a clear job description and chain of command.

Moreover, examining the long-term interactive effects for PsyCap, challenge and hindrance stressors, and OCB provides practical implications to develop more positive workplaces. The results of this study imply that hotel managers should establish initiatives to help employees increase their levels of PsyCap. As PsyCap capacities are state-like, there is emerging evidence that PsyCap can be developed through short training interventions (Luthans et al., 2006; Luthans et al., 2010). These training interventions can improve the climate for each of these capacities across the hotel's various departments. By developing positive PsyCap resources for their employees, development initiatives implemented by managers and human resources may leverage and obtain a high quality service with subsequent improved customer satisfaction levels.

The study also suggests that managers should assess candidates using both objective and standard tests prior to employing them. For example, scenario-based tests can be used to discover whether the psychological capacities of job applicants mean that they are likely to cope well with the demands of frontline jobs.

Organizations seeking to promote OCB should establish methods to attract, select, and retain employees who have higher levels of PsyCap. These human resources practices should further be supported by intervention training programs and sessions. According to Person-Environment Fit theory (French et al., 1982), individuals prefer to work for organizations with a similar work environment to their own characteristics. A stronger fit between organizations and individuals will lead to greater job satisfaction and stronger performance, and furthermore will

promote OCB (Liang, 2012). This is to say that recognizing the antecedents of extra-role discretionary behaviors can enable managers to more efficiently foster OCB in their departments. Aside from the traditional measures of improving employee performance and productivity, managers are entailed to observe and encourage the work-related attitudes and behaviors that go above and beyond the prescribed job description and can efficiently contribute to the effectiveness of the organization.

Theoretical Implications

In addition to the previously discussed implications for the hotel industry, this study has significant implications for theory and research. Firstly, according to the results, challenge and hindrance stressors have significant effects on hotel frontline employees' OCB. This could inspire hospitality theorists and researchers to investigate the most positive and negative impacts that stressors have on frontline employee willingness to exhibit OCB.

The second implication derives from the lack of empirical research examining the impact of challenge stress on work-related outcomes in the hotel industry. While the adverse impact of hindrance or the negative stress has dominated hospitality literature, this study contributes to the current body of literature by outlining the positive effects of challenge stressors on work-related outcomes, particularly within the hotel industry context.

Thirdly, and surprisingly, the results revealed a significant positive relationship between hindrance stress and OCB-O. Research that builds upon this finding would be useful to enable a better understanding of the relationship between negative stress and employees' motivation to reciprocate by displaying OCB-O.

Fourth, this study is one of the few studies that demonstrate the impact of challenge and hindrance stressors on hotel frontline employees' work-related outcomes. The study revealed a significant moderating role of PsyCap in the relationships between challenge and hindrance stressors and OCB-I and OCB-O. Interestingly, little is known about whether individual factors such PsyCap may moderate an employee's evaluation of and reaction to the two types of job stress. Therefore, organizational behavior researchers might consider incorporating other individual characteristics as moderators of the relationships between challenge and hindrance stressors and OCB-I and OCB-O into their models in future research.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study has the following major limitations, which need to be addressed in future research. First, the study employs a cross-sectional design to test the relationships in the research model; although these hypotheses were presented based on well-established theories, the causality inferences permitted by the data collection approach are limited. Collecting cross-sectional data impedes making rigorous conclusions about the formulated relationships between the study variables. Future studies might utilize a longitudinal data collection approach to further test and extend the relationships established in this study.

Second, the scales used in this research were measuring variables that dictate self-rating responses by participants. Although self-report measures might be biased or influenced by common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003), most researchers in the work stress area continue to utilize self-reporting measures to study work-related stress (Jex & Beehr, 1991; Spector & Jex, 1998). This is because self-reporting enables the presentation of perceptions, an important factor in understanding the stress process. In addition, it might be suggested that some

respondents tend to overrate their positive capacities and characteristics, especially those related to their OCBs. That being said, the researcher does not claim the possibility of ruling out the inflated relationships between the variables, as sometimes this is the case with self-reports (Podsakoff et al., 2003). While common method variance could be reduced by using different sources to measure the participants' stressors, PsyCap, and OCB, this option was not available for the current study, taking into account that data was collected via a research marketing company and thus it was not possible to use different sources. Future research might consider having participants' complete scales on their perceptions of workplace stress and asking their supervisor to fill out scales on their employee's OCB.

Third, the study exclusively sampled frontline employees in the hotel industry, which might limit the generalizability of the findings to other contexts. Future research might replicate the current study among employees in different hospitality sectors.

Finally, the data for this study was collected between July and August 2016. The reason for collecting data during this time was due to the fact that this period marks the end of summer vacation for most tourists and travelers. As a result, employees in the hospitality industry, and hotels in particular, are more likely to experience increased job demands, which might result in higher levels of exposure to stress. Future research might consider sampling employees during other times of the year when occupational stress might be reduced.

To conclude, this study provides a significant first step for further examination of the impact of the two dimensions of occupational stress on OCB among hotel frontline employees. This study opens the door for future inquiries in the domain of positive psychology and organizational behavior within the hospitality context where employees' personality characteristics and psychological capacities should be considered.

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AUBURN
UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF HUMAN SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF NUTRITION, DIETETICS,
AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

(NOTE: DO NOT AGREE TO PARTICIPATE UNLESS IRB APPROVAL INFORMATION WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN ADDED TO THIS DOCUMENT)

INFORMATION LETTER
for a Research Study entitled

"The Impact of the Perceived Challenge and Hindrance Stressors on the Hotel Frontline Employees Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: An Empirical Investigation to the Moderating Role of the Psychological Capital"

You are invited to participate in a research study that aims at gaining better understanding about the impact of the occupational stress experienced by hotel frontline employees on their willingness to exhibit organizational citizenship behavior. The study is being conducted by Aahed Khliefat, doctorate candidate, under the supervision of Baker Ayoun, associate professor in Auburn University Department of Nutrition, D ietetics, and Hospitality Management.

You are invited to participate because you are a hotel frontline employee who has been working in the hotel industry for one year or more and are aged of 19 or older.

If you decide to participate in this research study, your total time commitment will be 10 to 15 minutes. If you change your mind about your participation in this study, you may withdraw at any time prior to returning the complete questionnaire to the researcher. Your decision about whether or not to participate or to stop participating will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University, Department of Nutrition, Dietetics, and Hospitality Management or your current employment status with your employer.

There will be no risk to you or to your privacy if you decide to join this study by filling out the attached survey. Your responses will be completely confidential. Participation will be anonymous; no identifying information will be collected. After your survey has been submitted, you will be unable to withdraw your survey since there will be no way to identify which survey you submitted.

The information collected in this study may benefit the hospitality industry in the future by providing better understanding on how the stress that is experienced by the hotel frontline employees affect their willingness to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviours.

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AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

The information collected through your participation may be published in a professional journal or book, and/or it may be presented as group data only, with no personally identifiable data. Any information obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. No information you provide in this study will be shared with anyone associated with your company.

If you have questions about this study, please contact Aahed Khliefat at 334-444-8547 or at amk0032@auburn.edu or his advisor Dr. Baker Ayoun at 334-844-8196 or at bayoun@auburn.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Auburn University Office of Research Compliance or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334) 844-5966 or e-mail at IRBadmin@auburn.edu or IRBChair@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION ABOVE, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, PLEASE FILL OUT THE ATTACHED SURVEY.

THIS LETTER IS YOURS TO KEEP

Primary Investigator _____ Date ____

Aahed Khliefat — March, 8th, 2016
Doctoral Candidate
amk0032@auburn.edu

Co-Investigator _____ Date ____

Baker Ayoun, Ph.D, MBA, CHE — March, 8th, 2016
Associate Professor
bayoun@auburn.edu

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this Document for use from 03/14/2016 to 03/13/2019
Protocol # 16-066 EX 1603

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Appendix 2

Survey of hotel frontline employees

1. Challenge and Hindrance Stressors					
Please indicate the extent of stress by which each of the following circumstances produce to you at work. ***1:** no stress at all, **2:** to a small extent, **3:** somewhat, **4:** to a large extent, **5:** a great deal of stress*	*Please Circle*				
The number of projects and/or assignments you have	1	2	3	4	5
The amount of time you spend at work	1	2	3	4	5
The volume of work that must be accomplished in the allotted time	1	2	3	4	5
Time pressures you experience at work	1	2	3	4	5
The amount of work responsibility you have	1	2	3	4	5
The scope of responsibility your position entails	1	2	3	4	5
The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions	1	2	3	4	5
The inability to clearly understand what is expected of you on the job	1	2	3	4	5
The amount of red tape you need to go through to get your job done	1	2	3	4	5
The lack of job security you have	1	2	3	4	5
The degree to which your career seems stalled	1	2	3	4	5

2. Psychological Capital

Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Circle the number that best describes your feelings about your job. *__1:__ Strongly Disagree, __2:__ Disagree, __3:__ Somewhat Disagree; __4:__ Somewhat Agree, __5:__ Agree, __6:__ Strongly Agree.*	*Please Circle*					
I feel confident contributing to discussions about the hotel's strategies	1	2	3	4	5	6
Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can be "on my own" so to speak at work if I have to	1	2	3	4	5	6
I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals	1	2	3	4	5	6
I usually take stressful things at work in stride	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management	1	2	3	4	5	6
If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it	1	2	3	4	5	6
At this time, I don't think I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can get through difficult times at work because I have experienced difficulty before	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel confident contacting people outside the hotel to discuss problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
There are lots of ways around any problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best.	1	2	3	4	5	6
If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
In this job, things never work out the way I want them to. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining."	1	2	3	4	5	6

3. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Circle the number that best describes your feelings about your job. *1: Strongly Disagree, 2: Disagree, 3: Neither Disagree nor Agree, 4: Agree, 5: Strongly Agree*	*Please Circle*				
I help others who have heavy workloads	1	2	3	4	5
I am the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing	1	2	3	4	5
I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay	1	2	3	4	5
I consume a considerable time complaining about trivial matters	1	2	3	4	5
I try to avoid creating problems for my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
I keep abreast of changes in the organization	1	2	3	4	5
I tend to make "mountains out of molehills"	1	2	3	4	5
I considers the impact of my actions on coworkers	1	2	3	4	5
I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important	1	2	3	4	5
I am always ready to lend a helpful hand to those around me	1	2	3	4	5
I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image	1	2	3	4	5
I read and keep up with the hotel's announcements, memos, and so on	1	2	3	4	5
I help others who have been absent	1	2	3	4	5
I do not abuse the rights of others	1	2	3	4	5
I willingly help others who have work related problems	1	2	3	4	5
I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side	1	2	3	4	5
I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers	1	2	3	4	5
My attendance at work is above the norms	1	2	3	4	5
I always find fault with what the organization is doing	1	2	3	4	5
I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's job	1	2	3	4	5
I do usually take extra breaks	1	2	3	4	5
I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching	1	2	3	4	5
I help orient new people, even though it is not required	1	2	3	4	5
I am one of the most conscientious employees in my organization	1	2	3	4	5

4. Demographics

Please complete the following Demographic Information:

What is your gender?
☐ Female ☐ Male

What is your age? ☐ (19-24) ☐ (25-29) ☐ (30-34) ☐ (35-39) ☐ (40-44) ☐ (45 -49) ☐ (50 or Over)

What is your ethnic origin?
☐ Caucasian
☐ African American
☐ Hispanic/Latino
☐ Asian or Pacific Islander
☐ Other, please indicate …….

What is your marital status?
☐ Single
☐ Married
☐ Widowed
☐ Divorced/Separated
☐ Other

What is your work department?
☐ Front Office
☐ Food and Beverage
☐ Sales and Marketing
☐ Housekeeping
☐ Other, please indicate ……..

What is the highest formal educational level you obtained?
☐ High School or GED
☐ Associate degree
☐ Bachelor's degree
☐ Graduate degree

What is your current employment status?
☐ Standard work (full-time)
☐ Nonstandard work (part-time, internship, contract workers, contingent workers, etc.)

What is your current job title?
_____

How many days and hours do you usually work per week?
_____ Days / Week
_____ Hours / Day

How long have you worked at this hotel?
_____ Years
_____ Months

For how long have you been a full-time employee in the hotel industry?
_____ Years _
_____ Months

Thank you for completing this survey.