

Workplace Humor and Job Embeddedness: A Cross-National Study between Chinese and U.S. Hospitality Employees

by

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Abstract

The hospitality industry has a higher turnover rate when compared to other sectors of the economy. Job embeddedness (JE) was found to be an effective solution of voluntary turnover. The current study aimed to investigate the relationships among hospitality employees' workplace humor, perceived workplace fun, perceived workplace aggression, and organizational JE. In addition, the research also examined the moderating role of national culture on the relationship among these four variables. Two types of workplace humor, affiliative humor (positive humor) and aggressive humor (negative humor) were investigated in the current study. Both workplace fun and workplace aggression were studied from a multi foci perspective with each including two dimensions, namely, supervisor support for fun, coworker socializing, and supervisor aggression, coworker aggression. Structural Equation Modeling was employed for hypotheses testing. A total of 540 responses were collected from full time entry level restaurant employees in the U.S. (n=274) and China (n=266). The results indicated that hospitality employees' use of affiliative humor and aggressive humor at workplace was positively associated with their perception of supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing and negatively associated with perceived supervisor aggression and coworker aggression. Furthermore, supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing were positively related to hospitality employees' organizational JE while only perceived coworker aggression was negatively associated with the organizational JE. Moreover, the results showed that national culture difference between China and the U.S. moderated the relationships between aggressive humor and hospitality employees' perceived

workplace fun, between affiliative humor and perception of workplace aggression, and between perceived workplace fun and hospitality employees' organizational JE. The research investigated workplace aggression from the target's perspective and responded to the call for more research of the negative antecedents of JE. The results of the research could contribute to the design of hospitality human resource practices such as training hospitality employees how to use appropriate humor at workplace and reinforcing their perception of workplace fun and reducing the perceived workplace aggression, which will further contribute to the enhanced organizational JE. The research also provided useful human resource practices for hospitality businesses operating internationally, especially in China and the U.S.

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List of Abbreviations

AH	Affiliative Humor
AGH	Aggressive Humor
SSF	Supervisor Support for Fun
CS	Coworker Socializing
SA	Supervisor Aggression
CA	Coworker Aggression
JE	Job Embeddedness
OJE	Organizational Job Embeddedness
CJE	Community Job Embeddedness

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

Given that hospitality employees often perform routine tasks, are paid relatively low wages with few benefits, are afforded few opportunities for advancement, and work shifts that are frequently erratic and irregular (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000), the hospitality industry has a higher turnover rate when compared to other sectors of the economy (Blomme, Rheede & Tromp, 2010). The substantial costs associated with high employee turnover have raised growing awareness within hospitality businesses that the retention of committed employees is central to their comparative advantage and success (Alexandrov, Babakus & Yavas, 2007). Recently, Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski and Erez (2001) has offered a relatively new approach to this issue by arguing that job embeddedness (JE), which focuses on factors that encourage an employee to stay with an organization, is an effective solution of voluntary turnover.

Several key aspects of JE were identified, including links, fit, and sacrifice, which represent the relationships with other individuals or organizations, the comfort toward to his/her organization and its atmosphere, and the perceived prices of tangible or intangible utilities that might be lost by resigning the present job (Mitchell et al., 2001). A number of studies have followed this research

direction and found that JE explained significant incremental variance in turnover beyond that is explained by job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006; Holtom & O’Neill, 2004). Therefore, identifying factors that influence employees’ level of JE is crucial to hospitality organizations.

Social exchange theory is employed to study the influencing factors of hospitality employees’ JE. The basic notion of the social exchange theory implies that employees who perceive benefits from their organizations are more likely reciprocate with more positive work behaviors, such as being more embedded in their jobs. Employees perceiving negative stressors in the workplace may reciprocate with negative work behaviors or choosing not to engage in positive work behaviors, such as reducing the level of JE.

Social exchange theory also demonstrates that the currency of exchange is different depending on the partner; employees tend to use different behaviors and attitudes to repay their obligations to their coworkers versus their supervisors (Moorman, 1991; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). As is known to all, hospitality employees interact with different groups, including organization, supervisor, coworker and also consumers. Among them, hospitality employees interact most often with their coworkers (Ma & Qu, 2011). Therefore, in addition to the organization-employee exchange, supervisor-employee exchange and coworker exchange also need researchers’ attention to enrich social exchange theory in its application to JE, which would also be meaningful for the hospitality industry.

According to the social exchange theory, workplace fun, which was defined as “playful,

social, interpersonal, recreational, or task activities intended to provide amusement, enjoyment, or pleasure” (Lamm & Meeks, 2009, p. 614), is supposed to be one of the factors that may have a positive influence on hospitality employees’ JE. Workplace fun helps bring employees close to each other and provide them opportunities to develop friendship with coworkers. Those positive relationships with coworker and supervisor and feeling comfortable with the current hospitality organization make the employees more embedded. Previous research findings highlighted that workplace fun is important and is valued more in some employment contexts than others. Hospitality industry might be one of the industries where workplace fun is highly valued since it is typically thought of as a fun and social industry (Tews, Michel, & Allen, 2014). Individuals may want to work in the hospitality industry because it is fun and dynamic. Another reason that workplace fun may be important in the context of the hospitality industry is because it can compensate for other less desirable aspects of work for employees who often perform routine tasks, are paid relatively low wages with few benefits, are afforded few opportunities for advancement, and work shifts that are frequently erratic and irregular (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). However, not every hospitality organization provides equally fun at work, making workplace fun a potential reason that hospitality employees decide to stay (Tews et al., 2014).

On the other side, there is a dearth of empirical research pertaining to factors that negatively influence employees’ JE (Holtom, Burton, & Crossley, 2012). Based on the basic notion of the social exchange theory, workplace aggression, one of the common workplace stressors (Glomb, 2002), can be a potential factor that has a negative effect on hospitality employees’ JE. Workplace

aggression is defined as “negative acts perpetrated by individual or individuals within or outside an organization and occur in a work-related context that are experienced by an organizational member who is the target of these acts” (Raver, 2004; Schat & Kelloway, 2005). As indicated by the social exchange theory that employees tend to use different behaviors and attitudes to repay their obligations to their organizations versus their coworkers or supervisors (Moorman, 1991; Settoon et al., 1996), the current study examines workplace aggression from two different levels, which are supervisor aggression and coworker aggression. Experiencing aggression from coworkers or supervisors makes the hospitality employee perceive that the costs of relationships they formed at work outweigh the benefit. They may further choose to reduce their level of JE.

Empirical finding shows great differences in the frequency of aggression at work to some degree depending on type of organization (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). Hospitality organizations are more personal and employees are most vulnerable to workplace aggressions compared to other service sectors (Patah, Abdullah, Naba, Zahari, & Radzi, 2010). It is because hospitality jobs need employees to interact closely with other employees and provide outstanding services to guests whenever it is required (Patah et al., 2010). In addition, employees in hospitality businesses are experiencing more workplace stress due to poor training, insufficient pay, excessive job demands, conflicts in the work-family interface, unsocial work hours, and job insecurity (Gin Choi, Kwon, & Kim, 2013; Karatepe, 2013b). Such problems appear to have a negative impact on employees’ JE (Karatepe, 2013b). Moreover, research on outcomes of workplace aggression with a focus on the target of aggression is limited. Existing research shows that outcomes for targets of

workplace aggression are overwhelmingly negative and include: poorer psychological well-being (Aquino & Thau, 2009), poorer physical well-being (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002) and lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and higher turnover intentions (Aquino & Thau, 2009), again supporting the assumption that workplace aggression can potentially have a negative effect on hospitality employees' JE.

Moreover, individual differences such as the use of humor at workplace might be a factor that influences hospitality employees' perceived workplace fun and workplace aggression. Humor style as one dimension of sense of humor has drawn the most attention from scholars, which relates to individual differences in everyday uses of humor. There are four styles of humor: potentially beneficial uses of humor to enhance the self (self-enhancing humor) and to enhance one's relationships with others (affiliative humor), use of humor to enhance the self at the expense of others (aggressive humor), and use of humor to enhance relationships at the expense of the self (self-defeating humor) (Martin, Puhlik-Doris, Larsen, Gray, & Weir, 2003). Among them, self-enhancing humor and affiliative humor are considered to be positive humor styles while self-defeating humor and aggressive humor are known to be negative humors. Since all four humor styles can occur at workplace, it is necessary to investigate the functions of both positive and negative workplace humor styles (Scheel, Gerdenitsch, & Korunka, 2016).

Positive workplace humor such as affiliative humor has been found to improve peer relations (Sherman, 1988) and may have the potential to buffer the deleterious effects of workplace stress through its use as a coping mechanism and its ability to lubricate social interactions in

stressful circumstances (Martin et al., 2003). Moreover, negative humor style such as aggressive humor may have the opposite effects on these above-mentioned relationships. Therefore, we assume workplace humor styles have an effect on hospitality employees' perceived workplace fun and workplace aggression.

With the rapid development of the international hospitality market, it is essential for hospitality organizations to expand globally and therefore paying attention to the role of cultural differences in designing human resource management practices. In relation to cultural issues, Hofstede (1980) ranked countries differently in four dimensions such as power distance, individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance and femininity/masculinity. Supervisors or managers in high power distance culture are likely to emphasize control and status distinctions by being less supportive of employees having fun at workplace (Robert & Yan, 2007). In such cultures, employees would respond less negatively to workplace aggression than employees from cultures that score low on power distance (Loh, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2010). Moreover, employees from collectivist cultures value more about group cohesiveness so that they tend to use more positive humor and less negative humor at workplace to enhance the interpersonal relationship when compared to employees from individualist cultures. Meanwhile, employees from collectivist culture tend to react less negatively toward workplace aggression due to the fact that they do not want to terminate the relationship and they do not want to cause any harm to the organization. Therefore, cultural difference might influence hospitality employees' use of workplace humor, perceived workplace fun, workplace aggression and organizational JE differently.

In view of the above and given that workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE are still under researched topics, exploring the relationships between them and the moderating role of the national culture in the hospitality context, would strengthen and enrich current knowledge and practice.

Problem Statement

Although JE has received considerable attention from researchers over the past few years, not too many of them focused on the context of hospitality industry where the retention of committed employees is essential to their competitive advantages (Alexandrov, Babakus & Yavas, 2007). In addition, most of the JE research focused on the outcomes that JE may bring, examining how JE can predict employees' voluntary turnover or intention to quit (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007; Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001). Very few studies investigated the antecedents of employees' JE. Among these studies about JE's antecedents, there is a dearth of empirical research pertaining to individual, situational, and/or organizational variables that have negative impacts on employees' JE (Holtom et al., 2012).

Despite that some research within the hospitality setting has examined the outcomes of consumer aggression (Karatepe, Yorganci, & Haktanir, 2009), there is a paucity of research exploring the influence of workplace aggression perpetuated by organizational insiders from a multi-foci perspective, including both supervisor aggression and coworker aggression, on hospitality employees' JE. This paucity of research implies that little is known about whether different types of workplace aggression influence hospitality employees' JE differently.

Previous research of workplace humor mostly targeted on the leaders' use of humor, particularly positive humor, on employees work outcomes (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran, 2012). Very few of them investigated how individual employees' use of workplace humor, especially negative humor, influence their work outcomes such as perceived workplace fun and workplace aggression in the hospitality context.

In addition, most of the humor studies focused on the Western culture, especially U.S. and Canada, with very limited research explored the use of humor in other cultural backgrounds such as China, a fast-developing market for the hospitality industry (Wolfington & Wolfington, 2012). Even limited research has looked at the role of culture in workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE. Investigating the impact of national culture on the relationships among workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE can provide practical implications for designing human resource management strategies in terms of cultural difference for the globalized hospitality corporations.

Thus, the questions of whether hospitality employees' workplace humor styles have an effect on their perceived workplace fun and workplace aggression, which might further influence their JE, and whether national culture moderates the above-mentioned relationships, need to be answered.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of hospitality employees' workplace humor on their perceived workplace fun and workplace aggression, and the effect of workplace

fun and workplace aggression on hospitality employees' JE. Moreover, the study aims to examine the moderating role of national culture on the relationships between workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE exhibited by hospitality employees. To the researcher's knowledge, a few if any of the previous studies have investigated the relationships among workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression, and JE within the hospitality literature.

The purpose of this study is further clarified by the following research questions:

1. To what extent is workplace humor associated with hospitality employees' workplace fun?
2. To what extent is workplace humor associated with hospitality employees' workplace aggression?
3. To what extent is workplace fun positively associated with hospitality employees' JE?
4. To what extent is workplace aggression negatively associated with hospitality employees' JE?
5. To what extent does national culture moderate the relationships between workplace humor and hospitality employees' workplace fun, between workplace humor and hospitality employees' workplace aggression, between workplace fun and hospitality employees' JE, and between workplace aggression and hospitality employees' JE?

Significance of the Study

The current study adds to the literature in several ways. Theoretically, the current study seeks to identify specific relationships between workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE. It responds to the call of Holtom et al. (2012) for more research on factors that may reduce JE. Moreover, the study also fills the literature gap identified by Mesmer-Magnus et

al. (2012), which is known as the lack of research of employee work outcomes caused by negative workplace humor styles. Additionally, this study contributes to the body of literature by responding to calls for more research on workplace fun and workplace aggression as very few studies have been conducted in the hospitality setting (Raver, 2004; Tews, Michel, & Stafford, 2013), especially from a multi foci perspective. Moreover, the current study is among the first few studies that aim to fill the gap in the hospitality literature by investigating the relationship between workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE as well as the moderating role of national culture on these relationships. Not paying attention to the potential consequences of these relationships can negatively influence hospitality employees, which in turn may lead to undesirable outcomes such as higher employee turnover rate.

Practically, the findings of this study would provide significant insights to the hospitality human resource managers about how hospitality employees' humor styles might influence their perceived workplace fun and workplace aggression and how this perception influences their JE. In addition, based on the notion that an employee's workplace humor style is open to develop and change, this study will provide hospitality HR managers with an empirical evidence that, human resource practices designed to capitalize on employees' humor styles such as humor training seminars, can influence employees' perceptions of workplace fun and workplace aggression. Evidences that practices targeting workplace fun and workplace aggression can also influence hospitality employees' JE will also be provided by the current study. Furthermore, this study provides implications to international hospitality companies operating in both China and the U.S.

to reduce hospitality employees' perceived workplace aggression and enhance their perceived workplace fun and JE.

Organization of the Study

The paper is organized as follows. In the literature review section, the academic literature on each of the constructs as well as the theoretical foundation are explored; the hypotheses and research model are developed. In the methods section, the research design is explained. In the results section, data analysis and results are shown and discussed. In the discussion section, theoretical and practical implications, limitations, future research directions and conclusions are provided.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This research seeks to fill the existing gap in the hospitality and the mainstream literature by exploring the relationship between workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE. Additionally, this study aims to examine the moderating effect of national culture on the above-mentioned relationships. A review of the literature presented in this chapter will include previous research related to workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE.

Workplace Humor

Definition and Types of Workplace Humor

There are various definitions of humor and workplace humor in the literature. Martineau (1972) defined humor as “any communicative instance, which is perceived as humorous” (p. 114). Thorson and Powell (1993) articulated humor as being a multidimensional construct. They proposed four dimensions of humor in their Multidimensional Sense of Humor Scale (MSHS), which include (1) having a sense of playfulness and having the ability to have a good time; (2) recognizing humor and being able to create humor; (3) appreciating humor; and (4) using humor as a coping or adaptive mechanism.

As for the workplace humor, Romero and Cruthirds (2006) defined it as “amusing communications that produce positive emotions and cognitions in the individual, group, or organization” (p. 59). Robert and Yan (2007) viewed workplace humor as “an intentional form of social communication delivered by a ‘producer’ toward an ‘audience’” (p. 209). In addition, Cooper (2005) defined workplace humor as “any event shared by an agent (e.g. an employee) with another individual (i.e. a target) that is intended to be amusing to the target and that the target perceives as an intentional act” (p. 767), which encompassed different types of humor as well as specified humor’s intentional characteristic regardless of the effect of the humor.

Similarly, instead of viewing humor as a unitary and positive construct, Martin et al. (2003) viewed it as a two-dimensional construct with potentially detrimental and beneficial facets. Based on Martin et al.’s (2003) framework, humor may be organized based on whether it is focused on oneself or used on one’s relationships with others and whether it is relatively beneficial and positive or is potentially detrimental and negative. This two-dimensional framework further generates four different humor types with two positive humor styles being self-enhancing humor and affiliative humor, and two negative humor styles being self-defeating humor and aggressive humor. Moreover, affiliative humor and aggressive humor are targeting the relationship with others while self-enhancing and self-defeating humor are focusing on the user him/her self.

Affiliative humor style can be described as affirming and non-threatening. Individuals who use affiliative humor attract others with jokes, funny stories and other forms of appealing humor. They are confident and extroverted and can bring people together by sharing humor and reducing

interpersonal tensions (Martin et al., 2003). In comparison to affiliative humor, self-enhancing humor style is more focused on the individual. Individuals who use self-enhancing humor are not too stressed by life's daily problems because they have a humorous world view. For them, using humor is a stress reduction method that helps them keep a constructive view of life. Martin et al. (2003) found that self-enhancing humor is positively related to self-esteem and favorable emotions, while negatively related to neuroticism.

Aggressive humor includes belittling, ridiculing and excessive teasing, which is believed to make people feel better about themselves at someone else's expense (De Koning & Weiss, 2002). Martin et al. (2003) indicated that aggressive humor is positively related to neuroticism, while negatively related to conscientiousness and agreeableness. Compared to aggressive humor, self-defeating humor is focused on the individual and is used by individuals who ridicule themselves excessively to amuse other people. They use humor to obscure negative emotions and thoughts about themselves. This humor style is positively related to anxiety, depression, hostility and other negative emotions that are related to psychological problems (Martin et al., 2003).

The current study adopts the humor framework proposed by Martin et al. (2003) and applies it to the workplace since all four humor styles can occur at work (Scheel, Gerdenitsch, & Korunka, 2016). In addition, the current paper focuses on the individual hospitality employee's use of humor and investigates how their use of humor can be related to the perceived workplace fun and workplace aggression, which are at the interpersonal level. Therefore, for the purpose of the study, only affiliative humor (positive humor style) and aggressive humor (negative humor

style), both are focusing on the relationships with others, were used.

Outcomes of Positive Workplace Humor

Much humor research was focused on its effect on personal outcomes such as burnout, stress, coping as well as health (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). In addition, humor, particularly positive humor, has been shown to be positively associated with work-related outcomes. There are two streams of research in the field of workplace humor, one focuses on leaders' use of humor and its effect on employees' work outcomes while the other one emphasizes how the employees' use of humor can influence their own work outcomes.

Leaders' positive humor has been shown to reduce employees' turnover intentions and increase their job satisfaction and commitment (Burford, 1987). The use of positive humor by leaders is related to increases in individual and unit performance (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999) and has important implications for employees' satisfaction with supervisors (Decker & Rotondo, 2001). It can also enhance the effectiveness of leadership (Decker & Rotondo, 2001). In a more recent study, Gkorezis, Hatzithomas and Petridou (2011) demonstrated that leader's positive humor exerted positive effects on employee's psychological empowerment. More specifically, leaders' use of affiliative humor can secure their power as well as reduce social distance between the leader and their subordinates (Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). In addition, leaders could use affiliative humor to improve the quality of leader-follower relationships (Pundt & Herrmann, 2015) and employees' psychological well-being (Kim, Lee, & Wong, 2016).

As for research on employees' use of positive humor at workplace, previous research has

identified main work outcomes including enhanced employee creativity, performance and group cohesiveness. For instance, employees' positive humor could enhance their performance under stress (Bizi, Keinan, & Beit-Hallahmi, 1988) and could also improve their performance through increasing team creativity (Holmes, 2007; Thorson & Powell, 1993). Positive emotions shared among coworkers have been found to promote group member performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and work satisfaction (Gully, Devine, & Whitney, 1995; Mullen & Copper, 1994), factors which are also known to relate to reduced work withdrawal and turnover (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Positive humor was also associated with job satisfaction (Robert & Yan, 2007), lower turnover intentions and higher organizational commitment (Susa, 2002).

Research suggested employees' positive workplace humor might help build and maintain good relations with colleagues (Holmes, 2006) and could also function as a social lubricant that helps construct group consensus (Morreall, 1991). Positive emotions shared among coworkers contribute to positive affect spirals which have been found to promote improved coworker relationships (Byrne & Neuman, 1992; Evans & Dion, 1991). Positive workplace humor also affected team cohesion by emphasizing shared values (Robert & Yan, 2007), masking the unpleasant content of messages (Holmes, 2000), and limiting friction in interactions (Fine & Soucey, 2005). One of the possible justifications would be that affiliative humor was negatively associated with loneliness (Hampes, 2005). More specifically, shy individuals tended to use less affiliative humor, which led to more loneliness (Fitts, Sebby, & Zlokovich, 2009). Therefore, employees who use more affiliative humor would be less lonely and would be more open to build

relationships with their coworkers.

In addition, positive workplace humor can be used to communicate information or to make a point in a positive way (Ullian, 1976), reduce social distance between group members (Graham, 1995), facilitate higher levels of trust (Hampes, 1999), and assist in creating the group's identity (Weick & Westley, 1996). Holmes and Marra (2002) used qualitative method and found that positive humor was used by factory workers to make their routine tasks interesting and to enhance close relationships with coworkers and to facilitate interaction at work. More recently, Romero and Arendt (2011) employed quantitative approach and found the employees' affiliative humor to be positively correlated with satisfaction, team cooperation, and organizational commitment. However, most of the research that explored positive humor in workplace context employed a qualitative approach which needs more empirical investigations (Robert & Yan, 2007).

Outcomes of Negative Workplace Humor

The vast majority of research on humor in the workplace has explored positive humor (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). Very few of them targeted negative humor styles and their influence on work outcomes. Negative humor in the form of excessive and distracting humor and its impact has not been widely investigated yet (Romero & Pescosolido, 2008).

Unlike positive humor style studies that focused on both employee humor and leader humor, almost all negative humor style research focused on the leadership. Martin, Rich, and Gayle (2004) investigated the relationships among negative humor use and manager-subordinate relations, communication style and indicated that male managers reported engaging in significantly more

negative humor use than female managers. Decker, Yao, and Calo (2011) found that leaders' negative humor was negatively associated with employees' evaluation of leadership. More particularly, leaders' aggressive humor was found to be negatively related to leader-member exchange (Pundt & Herrmann, 2015). Additionally, leaders' aggressive humor had negative influences on their own innovative behavior and leadership effectiveness (Ho, Wang, Huang, & Chen, 2011). Huo, Lam, and Chen (2012) investigated the influence of supervisors' aggressive humor on employees' strain and addictive behaviors and indicated that supervisors' aggressive humor related positively to employees' strain and the positive relationship became stronger when the supervisors did not use aggressive humor with the peers of the target employees. Hopton, Barling, and Turner (2013) demonstrated that leaders using aggressive humor were rated lower on transformational leadership by their employees than those who used self-deprecating humor. More recently, Ünal (2014) found that leaders' aggressive humor has a significantly negative effect on job relative positive affective well-being of employees while having a positive impact on job related negative affective well-being of employees.

Not too many studies have focused on employees' negative humor styles. Among the existent literatures, most of them explored the relationship between employees' use of negative humor and their physical well-being or their job satisfaction. Avtgis and Taber (2006) found that employees' use of self-defeating humor was positively related to emotional exhaustion. The use of negative humor is an aggressive way to establish hierarchical relations, teasing and belittling the lower status employees (Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). More specifically, employees' aggressive

humor can be detrimental to the well-being of employees since it induces hostility and anger, while at the same time is negatively related to relationship satisfaction (Martin et al., 2003). Avtgis and Taber (2006) again conducted a study among print media employees and found that employees' use of aggressive humor was related to dimensions of employee burnout syndrome, job stress and job satisfaction. In addition, employees' use of negative humor can potentially harm the relationship with coworkers as well (Avtgis & Taber, 2006). As indicated by previous researchers, continual targeting of individuals with negative humor would alienate those targeted and, depending upon the recipient's status relative to the presenter, would impair social and interpersonal relationships between the presenter and recipient (Hemmasi, Graf, & Russ, 1994; Kuiper, Grimshaw, Leite, & Kirsh, 2004). In addition, Romero and Arendt (2011) demonstrated that employees' aggressive humor to be negatively associated with satisfaction with coworkers, team cooperation and also organizational commitment.

However, although employees' negative humor was often associated with negative work outcomes, an experimental study of employees' use of negative humor by Dews, Kaplan, and Winner (1995) found that ironic criticism of poor performance was perceived as funnier and less insulting and had a less damaging effect on the presenter–recipient relationship than literal criticism. In addition, Terrion and Ashforth (2002) found that the use of negative put-down humor can serve an important role in fostering a sense of identity and community. Similarly, Scogin and Pollio (1980) found that people who targeted others with negative humors such as teasing tended to be targets themselves as well, which suggested that even humor that is perceived by observers

as aggressive might be perceived as amusing by members of the audience. Martineau (1972) indicated that humor with a disparaging tone might also have positive influence on team cohesiveness when this humor is being used in a group. Supervisors frequently used teasing humor to help get things done since this type of humor helped maintain a collegial atmosphere (Vinton, 1989). Hence, it is important that aggressive or other negative humor be defined by people within the social context (Robert & Wilbanks, 2012).

Summary of Workplace Humor

In general, there is even more scarce study with a focus on workplace humor in hospitality industry. Gkorezis et al. (2011) indicated that the supervisors of U.S. dinner houses use more frequently positive humor and less frequently negative humor, which may be attributed to supervisors' recognition that their positive humorous expressions in the workplace lead to be viewed as more likeable and effective (Priest & Swain, 2002; Rizzo, Wanzer, & Booth-Butterfield, 1999). In addition, leaders' negative humor had a negative effect on employees' psychological empowerment (Gkorezis et al., 2011).

In conclusion, most workplace humor studies in the mainstream focused on positive humor styles. For the limited negative humor styles studies, the majority of them investigated employees' work outcomes as the target of leaders' use of negative humor. In addition, for both existent positive and negative workplace humor studies, the vast majority of them adopted a qualitative approach. Therefore, more humor studies in the hospitality industry that employ quantitative approach investigating employees' use of workplace humor on their own work outcomes need to

be conducted to fill the literature gap.

Workplace Fun

Definition of Workplace Fun

The roots of the modern workplace fun movement can be found in the work of Peters and Waterman (1982) and Deal and Kennedy (1982), who encouraged managers to develop organizational cultures that promote play, humor, and fun.

The terms of workplace fun, fun at work, and fun work environment have been used interchangeably without formal academic definitions (Fluegge, 2008). Based on 572 human resource professionals' responses, Ford, McLaughlin, and Newstrom (2003) came up with the following definition: "A fun work environment intentionally encourages, initiates, and supports a variety of enjoyable and pleasurable activities that positively impact the attitude and productivity of individuals and groups" (p. 22). In addition, McDowell (2005) defined workplace fun as "engaging in activities not specifically related to the job that are enjoyable, amusing, or playful" (p. 9). Such activities are indicative of a fun work environment. Karl and Peluchette (2006) defined workplace fun as a work environment centered around fun that intentionally encourages, initiates, and supports a variety of enjoyable and pleasurable activities, such as participating in parties, giving awards, playing competitions, and gathering to have fun activities. In consistent with previous conceptualizations, Fluegge (2008) demonstrated that workplace fun "involves any social, interpersonal, or task activities at work of a playful or humorous nature, which provide an individual with amusement, enjoyment, or pleasure" (p. 15). Lamm and Meeks (2009) defined

workplace fun as “playful social, interpersonal, recreational, or task activities intended to provide amusement, enjoyment, or pleasure” (p. 614). Bolton and Houlihan (2009) criticized mainstream literature for its disregard of the distinction between manufactured and organic fun in the workplace. Manufactured fun, which is imposed or required, may create an environment of cubicle-decorating cynics. Organic fun, however, is a descendent of a positive organizational culture and will thrive in the most diverse workplace.

The current study adopts the definition provided by Lamm and Meeks (2009) and defines workplace fun as playful social, interpersonal, recreational or task activities intended to provide amusement, enjoyment, pleasure or support that are perceived by employees.

Elements of Workplace Fun

Due to the broad nature of workplace fun, several researchers have sought out to more specifically identify elements of workplace fun. For example, to determine the specific features that entail a fun work environment, Ford et al. (2003) surveyed 572 members of the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) and found that the top three categories of activities that contribute to a fun work environment were recognition of personal milestones (e.g., birthdays, anniversaries), social events (e.g., picnics, parties, social gatherings), and public celebrations of professional achievements (e.g. award banquets).

More recently, researchers (i.e., Karl, Peluchette, & Harland, 2007; McDowell, 2005) have begun to focus on presenting more comprehensive models of fun at work. Karl et al. (2007) proposed a model of workplace fun, which incorporated elements of attitudes towards fun,

experienced fun, personality, emotional dissonance, and related consequences. Experienced fun was defined as “the extent to which a person perceives the existence of fun in their workplace” (Karl et al., 2007, p. 415). Attitudes towards fun included elements regarding both the importance and appropriateness of having fun at work as well as the perceived consequences related to having fun at work (Karl et al., 2007).

Other studies have examined the impact of workplace fun as a multidimensional, higher-order construct (Fluegge, 2008; McDowell, 2005). McDowell (2005) broke down workplace fun into categories such as: socializing, celebrating, personal freedoms, and global fun. The first three categories are similar to experienced fun as defined by Karl et al. (2007) in that they tap the elements of experienced fun, whereas the global fun construct is more of an attitude towards fun at work. In either case, both experienced fun and attitudes towards fun are important elements to consider in study of workplace fun. Using the same framework of workplace fun as McDowell, Fluegge (2008) found that workplace fun had a positive impact on employee engagement, positive affect and job performance, including task performance, creative performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Because McDowell and Fluegge aggregated their dimensions of fun into a single measure, it could not be determined which aspects of fun were more influential.

Chan (2010) conducted a qualitative study and argued that workplace fun can be cataloged into four factors: (1) staff-oriented workplace fun, (2) supervisor-oriented workplace fun, (3) social-oriented workplace fun, and (4) strategy-oriented workplace fun. More recently, Tews et al. (2014) addressed elements of fun that specifically relate to the social experience of work.

Specifically, three interrelated constructs are identified, which are fun activities, coworker socializing and manager support for fun. Fun activities include a variety of social and group activities initiated by the organization intended to promote enjoyment among employees. Coworker socializing is characterized as coworkers being friendly, outgoing and social. Manager support for fun is conceptualized as the extent to which managers allow and encourage employees to have fun on the job, which to a certain extent reflects the support for workplace fun from the organizational level as well.

In the current study, we follow Tews et al. (2014) approach to investigate workplace fun from two different levels, which are supervisor/manager support for fun and coworker socializing. Since we use employees' perception to measure workplace fun and fun activity cannot be measured based on perceptions, therefore, we decided to focus only on the supervisor/manager support for fun and coworker socializing. Based on the social exchange theory that employees tend to use different behaviors and attitudes to repay their obligations to their coworkers versus their supervisors (Moorman, 1991; Settoon et al., 1996). The researcher believes that Tews et al.'s (2014) approach has covered the influence from both supervisor and coworkers on hospitality employees. Investigating them separately should provide the researcher more interesting findings.

Antecedents and Outcomes of Workplace Fun

Popular press articles introduced a variety of positive outcomes that may stem from workplace fun. It has been suggested that people who have fun at work should experience less stress (McGhee, 2000; Miller, 1996), demonstrate lower turnover (Mariotti, 1999), and are more

energized and motivated (Stern & Borcia, 1999). People having fun doing their jobs also get along with others better (Meyer, 1999) and provide better customer service (Berg, 2001). However, the majority of these results rely on anecdotal evidence provided by proponents of workplace fun, rather than by empirical research findings.

Very few empirical research studies have been conducted to investigate the relationships between workplace fun and various work outcomes. A stream of research conducted by Karl and colleagues focused on the positive effects of workplace fun on various job attitudes and outcomes (i.e., Karl, Peluchette, Hall-Indiana, & Harland, 2005; Karl et al., 2007; Karl & Peluchette, 2006; Peluchette & Karl, 2005). In each of these studies, workplace fun was positively associated with job satisfaction. Specifically, Karl et al. (2005) examined three sectors – public, non-profit, and private organizations – and found no significant differences across the three sectors in employees' attitudes towards workplace fun. However, further exploration revealed that there were significant differences in experienced fun. These findings are consistent with the assertion that significant differences exist in organizations regarding workplace fun, specifically how cultures facilitate, reward, and tolerate fun (Aldag & Sherony, 2001). Similarly, Karl and Peluchette (2006) found that experienced fun leads to greater job satisfaction and the relationship was greater for individuals placing a high value on workplace fun. In addition, Karl et al. (2007) examined workplace fun using graduate students employed in a health care setting and indicated that individuals with greater levels of experienced workplace fun reported significantly lower emotional exhaustion and emotional dissonance.

Other than Karl and colleagues' research, McDowell (2005) also examined the effects of the various dimensions of fun on work outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intentions. Results suggested that workplace fun was positively related to both job satisfaction and affective commitment and was negatively associated with turnover intentions. McDowell (2005) additionally explored a "fun person" dimension and attempted to link it to trait positive affect. Although results were not supported for trait positive affectivity in the analyses, this study marked an important step forward for exploring the link between workplace fun and positive affect. Pryor et al. (2010) argued that workplace fun was positively associated with key performance indicators, which could result in increased employee morale, higher creativity and innovation, better performance, greater organizational commitment, and lower turnover. More recently, Chan and Mak (2016) found that trust in management mediates the relationship between workplace fun and employees job satisfaction with a sample of frontline employees at retail store. Müceldili and Erdil (2016) adopted Tew et al.'s (2014) approach and indicated that workplace fun was positively related to employee engagement and taking charge.

As for qualitative investigations, a number of studies have illustrated that fun potentially resulted in desirable outcomes. For example, Van Maanen (1992) illustrated that fun activities and coworker socializing were central features of the employment experience that enhanced camaraderie and bonding among employees, who were primarily of college age. In addition, Strömberg and Karlsson (2009), in a study with female meatpackers, demonstrated that work environments characterized by fun, humor and laughter promoted group cohesion and enhanced

the quality of work life in an environment that might otherwise be perceived as “greasy, monotonous, and repetitive” (Strömberg & Karlsson, 2009, p. 638). In a recent research, Plester and Hutchison (2016) employed a qualitative approach and found that workplace fun potentially offers practitioners opportunities for fostering a climate of high employee engagement.

Despite its potential benefits, other qualitative studies have cast workplace fun in a more critical light. Taylor and Bain (2003) illustrated that supervisor efforts to support fun may at times be counterproductive. In addition, Baptisete (2009) found that senior managers could be resistant to participating in fun as such endeavors would “encroach on their already busy schedules” when confronted with work overload and other job stressors (p. 609).

Even fewer research investigated the antecedents of workplace fun. Some research studies focused on individual differences and workplace fun. Lamm and Meeks (2009) argued that not only do members of different generational cohorts respond differently to workplace fun, but also cohort membership moderates the relationship between workplace fun and individual work outcomes. Karl et al. (2007) demonstrated that the Big Five dimensions of extraversion and agreeableness are related to more favorable attitudes toward fun. Hence, there is a need for more research on examining the relationship between individual differences and workplace fun.

Workplace Fun in the Hospitality Industry

There are a few studies conducted in the hospitality context with a focus on workplace fun. A study conducted by Gin Choi et al. (2013) revealed that Generation Y hospitality employees’ attitude toward workplace fun positively affected their experienced workplace fun. In turn,

Generation Yers' experienced workplace fun showed positive direct effects on their job satisfaction, task performance, and organizational citizenship behavior.

Tews and colleagues conducted a stream of research on workplace fun in the hospitality industry. Tews et al. (2012) extended previous research on workplace fun by examining the influence of workplace fun—fun coworker interactions, fun job responsibilities, and formal fun activities—in the context of applicant attraction. The results demonstrated that workplace fun was a stronger predictor of applicant attraction than compensation and opportunities for advancement and that fun coworker interactions and fun job responsibilities were stronger predictors of applicant attraction than formal fun activities.

Tews et al. (2013) further found with a sample of 195 servers from a national restaurant chain that fun activities had a favorable impact on performance and manager support for fun had a favorable impact in reducing turnover. Additionally, manager support for fun had an adverse impact on performance. In another study conducted among servers from a national restaurant chain in the U.S., Tews et al. (2014) found coworker socializing and manager support for fun were demonstrated to be significantly related to turnover.

Becker and Tews (2016) examined the impact of fun activities among entry-level U.S. hotel employees and demonstrated that the fun activities overall were significantly related to both engagement and constituent attachment, but not to turnover. In addition, Tews and colleagues (2017) examined the influence of manager support for fun on informal learning among casual dining restaurant managers and found that manager support for fun was not related to overall

informal learning. Examination of the dimensions of informal learning indicated that manager support for fun was significantly associated with learning from oneself (Tews, Michel, & Noe, 2017).

Han, Kim, and Jeong (2016) conducted a research among U.S. hotel frontline employees and demonstrated that workplace fun activities enhanced team performance by promoting employees' workplace fun experience and by facilitating interpersonal trust and group cohesion, which, in turn, reduce intra-group conflict and stimulates interpersonal citizenship behaviors, respectively.

Summary of Workplace Fun

In conclusion, there is a lack of study on the antecedents of workplace fun since the majority of research in the main stream focused on the outcomes of workplace fun. Moreover, the existing research on outcomes of workplace fun focused heavily on either attitudes toward fun or experienced fun. Literature review indicates there is limited research investigating the relationship between individual difference and workplace fun, especially individual employees' use of workplace humor and workplace fun.

Research in the hospitality industry adopted a more comprehensive approach to examine workplace fun from three different levels, which are supervisor support for fun, fun activities and coworker socializing. Previous hospitality workplace fun research provided us some interesting findings such as fun can reduce employees' turnover intention and improve their job satisfaction (Karl & Peluchette, 2006; Tews et al., 2013; Tews et al., 2014). However, none of them has studied

the perceived workplace fun as the outcome of individual employee's use of humor and as the antecedent of employees' JE in a hospitality context in specific, which is one of the objectives of the current study.

Workplace Aggression

Definition of Workplace Aggression

Compared to aggression in general, workplace aggression is a relatively narrower concept since it only focuses on aggressive behaviors taking place at workplace (Zhou, 2012). It can also be considered as a broader concept since researchers are interested in not only harm to individuals, but also harm to organizations (e.g., Barling, Dupré, & Kelloway, 2009; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Schat & Kelloway, 2005; Spector, 1975). Definitions of workplace aggression varied in terms of perpetrators, intended targets, actions, intentionality, and consequences (Snyder et al., 2004).

Most of the studies defined workplace aggression from the perspective of the aggression perpetrators. For example, Neuman and Baron (1998) defined workplace aggression as “efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organizations in which they are presently, or were previously, employed” (p. 395), which is supported by O’Leary-Kelly, Duffy, and Griffin’s (2000) analysis that the construct of workplace aggression “consists of those behaviors perpetrated by organizational insiders, directed toward organizational insiders or the organization itself, and caused by either organizational or non-organizational factors. ” (p. 7). Moreover, Schat and Kelloway (2005) offered a more general definition of workplace aggression as “behavior by an individual or individuals within or outside an organization that is intended to

physically or psychologically harm a worker or workers and occurs in a work-related context” (p. 191), which encompassed aggressive behaviors enacted by a variety of sources within (e.g., supervisors, coworkers) and outside of (e.g., clients, customers) the organization (e.g., Greenberg & Barling, 1999; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002).

However, employees may be subjected to a variety of workplace aggressive acts on a regular basis (Neuman & Keashly, 2003), so it is extremely important for researchers to study from the perspective of the target and understand the impact of this organizational stressor on workplace aggression targets’ emotional, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes (Raver, 2004). Thus, Raver (2004) defined workplace aggression from the perspective of aggression targets as “negative acts perpetrated by an organizational member that are experienced by another organizational member who is the target of these acts” (p.14), which includes aggressive behaviors from both supervisors and coworkers, considering aggression to be a broad construct that includes a wide variety of negative acts (ranging from minor to severe) that can occur with varying frequencies.

Given the current study aiming to explore workplace aggressions from the perspective of the target, who is not possible to tell whether the perpetrator intended to cause them harm or not, we adopt Raver’s (2004) definition of workplace aggression which does not include the perpetrator’s intent to harm.

Types of Workplace Aggression

After reviewing different existing taxonomies of workplace aggression (Buss, 1961; Griffin, O’Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998; O’Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996; Robinson &

Bennett, 1995), Snyder et al. (2004) proposed a taxonomy of workplace aggression including three dimensions: direct (target is directly harmed, e.g., pushing someone)/ indirect (target is harmed indirectly through intermediary, e.g., spreading a rumor), active (performance of certain behaviors, e.g. insulting)/ passive (not performing certain actions, e.g., not passing on important information), interpersonal (aggressions target at people)/ organizational (aggressions target at organization). This taxonomy overlaps with Buss (1961) in that two dimensions are shared (direct/ indirect, and active/ passive), whereas there is also some departure in that the physical (e.g., attacking with a weapon)/ verbal (e.g., threats) dimension is excluded by Snyder et al. (2004) while interpersonal/ organizational dimension is added.

Neuman and Baron (1998) argued that verbal aggression is less dramatic than physical aggression, and verbal aggression would predominate in the workplace because it brings a larger effect/danger ratio than does physical aggression (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Lagerspetz, 1994). Therefore, our current study will only focus on workplace verbal aggression in the hospitality industry since verbal aggression was used more frequently than physical aggression in the workplace.

Based on the perpetrator-victim relationship, workplace aggression can be categorized into four types (Merchant & Lundell, 2001). Aggression committed by an organizational outsider who has no legitimate relationship to the organization (e.g., robbery, shoplifting, loitering) typifies Type I aggression, whereas aggression committed by an organizational outsider who has a legitimate relationship with the organization (e.g., client, customer, patient) typifies Type II aggression. Type

III aggression occurs when the perpetrator is a current (or former) employee of the organization and Type IV aggression occurs when the perpetrator has no direct relationship with the organization but has a personal relationship with the target (e.g., spouse, relative, friend, acquaintance).

Although customer aggression is common for employees working in the hospitality industry, the current study focuses on the workplace aggression perpetuated by only organizational insiders such as supervisors and coworkers since they are the ones that interact with the target employee on a daily basis and working in the hospitality industry requires higher level of teamwork and personal interactions (Tews et al., 2014). Therefore, in the current study, we only focus on type III workplace aggression from two different perpetrator types (supervisors and coworkers). Hence, our current study only investigates workplace verbal aggression perpetuated by organizational insiders (supervisors and coworkers) targeting at hospitality employees.

Antecedents of Workplace Aggression

Most of the workplace aggression research investigated the antecedents, which are the causes, of workplace aggression from the perspective of the perpetrators. More specifically, there are two streams of research, one explores how individual differences cause workplace aggression while the other one studies situational factors that potentially lead to workplace aggression.

Individual differences refer to stable personality traits such as trait anger, negative affectivity, type A behavior pattern, self-motivating behavior, hostile attributional bias, self-esteem and past history with aggression. Research has shown that individuals do have stable

characteristics to engage in certain behaviors (Shoda & Mischel, 1993) and that the manner in which an individual interprets a situation can vary as a function of these stable individual differences (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999), suggesting an important role for individual differences in predicting workplace aggression. People high in trait anger are likely to be more easily provoked to be aggressive because of their tendency to perceive situations as frustrating (Hershcovis et al., 2007). In addition, studies have supported that a link exists between negative affect and workplace aggression (Hershcovis et al., 2007). This phenomenon extends beyond the supervisor-subordinate relationship to coworkers in workgroups (Glomb & Liao, 2003).

Individuals classified as Type A lose their tempers more frequently and demonstrate higher levels of aggression (Holmes & Will, 1985). In work settings, Type As reported a higher frequency of conflict with subordinates than Type Bs (Baron, 1989) and demonstrated tendencies toward aggression and irritability on-the-job (Evans, Palsane & Carrere, 1987). A significant relationship between Type A behavior pattern and workplace aggression has been confirmed by Baron, Neuman, and Geddes (1999). Moreover, Neuman and Baron (1997) found a significant relationship between low self-monitoring and workplace aggression, which is to say, supervisors and employees low in self-monitoring tend to perform aggression toward subordinates and coworkers. When individuals interpret another person's behavior as hostile, they are, therefore, more likely to behave aggressively in response to even minor provocation (Dodge & Coie, 1987). Similarly, individuals low in self-esteem will be more susceptible to aggression in general, and there is empirical support for the link between self-esteem and workplace aggression as well (Inness, Barling, & Turner,

2005). Furthermore, social learning theory has long held that early exposure to aggression would have significant implications for subsequent enactment of aggression (Bandura, 1973). Greenberg and Barling (1999) showed that a history of aggression predicted current aggression against coworkers and supervisors (Inness et al., 2005).

Situational factors are aspects of the social context that are perceived by people and are largely influenced by other members of the organization. In contrast to the individual difference factors, situational factors suggest that aggression is a reaction to a situation. Aquino, Lewis, and Bradfield (1999) found that those who feel that their distributions are unfair are likely to blame the source of the decision and target the person responsible for the unfair distribution. Neuman and Baron (1997) found that individuals who perceived that they were being treated unfairly by their supervisors were significantly more likely to report that they engaged in aggression against those superiors. Interpersonal conflict can be another cause of workplace aggression. Andersson and Pearson (1999) argued that incivility escalates or spirals as coworkers reciprocate uncivil behavior from colleagues by responding with more severe forms of aggression. In addition, violent communities can sometimes provide models for aggressive behavior (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996).

In conclusion, the vast majority of research investigated the causes of workplace aggression from the perpetrator's perspective, very scarce number of research explored from the target's perspective, for example, how employees' individual differences associate with perceived workplace aggression. Positive affectivity and negative affectivity of the target have been examined, with target's positive affectivity negatively and negative affectivity positively

associated with workplace harassment (e.g., Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Spector & O'Connell, 1994; Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2006), but results were sometimes nonsignificant (e.g., Duffy et al., 2002; Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001). In addition, Bowling and Beehr (2006) have suggested other personality characteristics such as agreeableness and conscientiousness from the Big Five are less likely related to being the subject of workplace aggression and tend to perceive less workplace aggression as well. However, as identified by Bowling and Beehr (2006) that more research is needed in this regard, especially on how employees' individual differences associate with perceived workplace aggression.

Outcomes of Workplace Aggression

Since nearly all definitions of workplace aggression are based upon the perpetrator's point of view (Raver, 2004), the main focus of workplace aggression studies was investigating different predictors of these aggressive behaviors acted by various types of perpetrators such as customers, supervisors and coworkers (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Ladebo, Awotunde, & AbdulSalaam-Saghir, 2008).

Research on outcomes experienced by targets of aggression is limited. Existing research showed that outcomes for targets of workplace aggression are overwhelmingly negative and include: poorer psychological well-being (e.g., Aquino & Thau, 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Tepper, 2000), poorer physical well-being (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001; Duffy et al., 2002; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002) and lower job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and higher turnover intentions (Aquino & Thau,

2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Cortina et al., 2001; Tepper, 2000).

More specifically, studies about outcomes of organizational insiders' aggression indicated that compared with employees who did not feel their supervisors were abusive, those who did were more likely to quit their jobs and had greater psychological distress and conflict between the demands of work and family (Tepper, 2000). Perceptions of abusive supervision were also related to lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Mitchell and Ambrose (2012) also examined employees' behavioral reactions, which include retaliation, coworker displaced aggression and problem solving, to perceived supervisor aggression. The findings suggested loss of control, fear of retaliation from the aggressive supervisor, and behavioral modeling of coworkers impact the degree to which victims engage in destructive or constructive reactions. Also, supervisor aggression significantly and directly impacted retaliation.

More research focused on the organizational outsider initiated aggression such as the customer aggression. For example, Grandey, Dickter, and Sin (2004) found that both the frequency and stress appraisal of customer aggression positively related to service employees' emotional exhaustion, and this burnout dimension mediated the relationship of stress appraisal with absences. Goussinsky (2011) demonstrated that customer abusive behavior has been found to be a major source of stress for service workers. Results showed that frequency of customer aggression was a strong predictor of job induced tension, job-related attitudes and emotional dissonance even after controlling for negative affectivity. In another study conducted by Goussinsky (2012), he found that under high levels of exposure to customer aggression, employees with high negative

affectivity were more likely to use behavioral disengagement than low negative affectivity individuals, employees with low negative affectivity were less likely to vent negative emotions than high negative affectivity individuals, and employees with high self-efficacy were less likely to use venting and emotional support than employees with low self-efficacy.

Overall, knowledge about the outcomes of workplace aggression derives almost exclusively from (a) studies of outsider-initiated aggression and (b) studies that did not differentiate between outsider- and insider-initiated aggressions (LeBlanc & Barling, 2004). Moreover, recent research suggested that experiencing workplace aggression from different perpetrators may have different influences for victims (e.g., Hershcovis et al., 2007; Inness, LeBlanc, & Barling, 2008; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002), highlighting the importance of taking a multifoci perspective.

LeBlanc and Kelloway (2002) compared outcomes of insider-perpetrated aggression and outcomes of outsider-initiated aggression and demonstrated that victims of insider-initiated aggression tended to have reduced emotional and physical well-being, as well as organizational commitment; the latter predicted intentions to find another job. In contrast, victims of outsider-initiated aggression perceived the likelihood of future aggression to be higher than non-victims did, and this perception in turn was associated with fear of future aggression. Merecz, Drabek, and Mościcka (2009) investigated the outcomes of workplace aggression from coworkers and clients and found that aggression from coworkers and supervisors, as the phenomenon reflecting quality of long-term interpersonal relationships, may affect health and functioning of workers stronger

than a single incident in the short-term contacts with clients. Aggression from clients usually resulted in compassion of peers, and it is perceived as the organizational problem that should be solved. On the contrary, dealing with an aggressive coworker usually was perceived as employees' own business and resulted in the sense of unfairness and isolation.

Raver (2004) extended the workplace aggression literature by proposing and testing a more comprehensive model of behavioral outcomes associated with interpersonal aggression – i.e., counterproductive work behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, job search behaviors, and work-family conflict. Furthermore, Raver (2004) found that the frequency of interpersonal aggression experiences was significantly related to enacting high levels of counterproductive work behaviors aimed at both the organization and at other individuals, and also related to high levels of job search behaviors. Interpersonal aggression experiences were also associated with perceptions of interpersonal injustice and negative affect at work, but there was no evidence for these psychological processes mediating interpersonal aggression's relationships with the behavioral outcomes (Raver, 2004).

Chang and Lyons (2012) extended research on multifoci aggression and explored affective and cognitive pathways linking verbal aggression from four perpetrator types- supervisors, coworkers, customers, and significant others- and employee morale and turnover intention. The results indicated that both emotional strain and employees' corresponding judgments of their social exchange relationships with these perpetrators served as the mechanisms for the association between aggression from supervisors, coworkers, and customers and morale and turnover intention.

Coworker aggression had a direct association with turnover intention and significant other aggression was related to turnover intention only through emotional strain.

Chen (2016) investigated the relationships between multifoci workplace aggression by supervisors, coworkers, and customers and employees' work-family conflict. The results indicated direct effects of multifoci workplace aggression on employees' work-family conflict and also problem focused coping would weaken the relationship between supervisor/coworker aggression and employees' negative affect. In addition, a study conducted with psychiatric care providers indicated that their perceptions of family-supportive supervisor behaviors moderated the relationship between patient-initiated physical aggression and physical symptoms, exhaustion and cynicism (Yragui, Demsky, Hammer, Van Dyck, & Neradilek, 2016). It also moderated the relationship between coworker-initiated psychological aggression and physical symptoms and turnover intentions (Yragui et al., 2016).

In another recent meta-analysis, Hershcovis and Barling (2010) found that attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of aggression differ depending on whether the aggressor is a supervisor, coworker, or organizational outsider. Supervisor aggression has the strongest negative relationships with workplace attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, affective commitment, intentions to quit) and behaviors (i.e., organizational deviance), followed by coworker aggression, while the weakest effects were observed for aggression from an organizational outsider. This serves one of the reasons that our current study focuses on only organizational insiders' (supervisor and coworker) aggression.

Workplace Aggression in the Hospitality Industry

To the best of my knowledge, not too many workplace aggression studies have been conducted in the hospitality industry, where aggression can easily happen (Patah et al., 2010). One of the reasons that workplace aggression is common in the hospitality industry is that the work settings are vulnerable as the employees are demanded to meet customers' expectations in the process of service delivery (Patah et al., 2010). The hospitality industry is well known for its high frequency of interaction with customers compared to other service industries. Therefore, the workplace itself presents opportunities for a wide range of aggressions (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2005).

Karatepe et al. (2009) collected data from frontline hotel employees in Northern Cyprus and found emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion to be significant outcomes of customer verbal aggression. The results also demonstrated that emotional dissonance amplified exhaustion, which further revealed that customer verbal aggression and emotional dissonance intensified turnover intentions. Patah et al. (2010) used a sample of diploma students majoring in culinary arts and hotel management from two universities in Malaysia to study the influence of workplace aggression. They found negative influences of workplace aggression on the students' subsequent career intentions. Zhao et al. (2013) used a time-lagged research design to study workplace ostracism with data collected from 239 supervisor-subordinate dyads in 21 Chinese hotels. The results showed that workplace ostracism was positively related to hospitality employees' counterproductive work behaviors, specifically organizational counterproductive behaviors and interpersonal counterproductive behaviors. In addition, Torres, van Niekerk, and Orlowski (2017)

identified customer actions that are perceived as uncivil by hotel employees and coping strategies used by hotel employees. Results indicated that the effects of customer incivility would increase customer aggression, hotel employee negative emotions, employee-to-customer incivility, employee-to-employee incivility, and employee sensitivity to uncivil acts.

For existing hospitality workplace aggression studies, very few of them focused on customer aggression while all the remaining ones failed to specify perpetrator types of workplace aggression. As for studies with a multi-foci perspective, recently Cho, Bonn, Han, and Lee (2016) investigated consequences of workplace incivility upon restaurant frontline service employees caused by customers, supervisors and coworkers. Results indicated that workplace incivility significantly increased emotional exhaustion and further led to low levels of job service performance with customer incivility having the strongest power for increasing emotional exhaustion, followed by supervisor incivility (Cho et al., 2016).

As a fact, with limited prior research focused on employees' work outcomes of workplace aggression perpetuated by organizational insiders in the hospitality context, more studies with a multi-foci perspective need to be conducted to fill the literature gap.

Job Embeddedness

Voluntary organizational turnover is costly to the organization in terms of financial costs associated with recruiting, staffing, and training new employees (Robinson & Dechant, 1997). Mitchell et al. (2001) drew from various perspectives (i.e., field theory and embedded figures) and developed a construct called job embeddedness (JE), focusing on factors that encourage an

employee to remain with an organization. JE is defined as a broad constellation of psychological, social, and financial influences on employee retention (Mitchell et al., 2001; Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablinski, 2004). These influences are present on the job, as well as outside the employee's immediate work environment, and are often likened to strands in a “web” or “net” in which a person can become “stuck” (Mitchell et al., 2001). Individuals with a greater number of strands become more embedded in the web and have greater difficulty in leaving their job.

Dimensions of Job Embeddedness

Mitchell et al. (2001) identified two types of JE: organizational (on-the-job) embeddedness and community (off-the-job) embeddedness. The former one refers to forces in the workplace that keep employees tethered to their positions, while the latter one refers to forces in employees' personal lives and communities that keep them geographically stable (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Each of the two types of JE comprises three dimensions: links, fit, and sacrifice, thus forming six sub-dimensions of JE. These six dimensions are organization fit, community fit, organization links, community links, organization sacrifice, and community sacrifice (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010).

Links are defined as formal or informal connections between a person, institutions, or other people (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). JE theory posits that a number of links attach an employee and his or her family in a social, psychological, and financial web that includes co-workers and non-work friends, groups, and the community in which he or she lives (Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). There are links to entities in the organization, such as a team of work colleagues in one's working team, and there are links to entities in one's community, such as relatives, friends

and social groups. The greater the number of links between the individual and the web and the more important those links are, the more a worker is bound to the job, the supervisor and entities in the organizations such as teams (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). A variety of research streams suggest team members and other colleagues exert considerable normative pressure to stay on a job (Maertz, Stevens, Campion, & Fernandez, 1996; Prestholdt, Lane, & Mathews, 1987).

Fit refers to an employee's perceived compatibility with the organization and surrounding community (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Good person-organization fit occurs when an employee's personal values, career aspirations, knowledge, skills, and ability are compatible with the organizational culture, and with the requirements of his or her job (Zhang et al., 2012). In addition, a person will consider how well he or she fits with aspects of the community and surrounding environment such as climate, weather conditions, religious beliefs, and entertainment activities (Mitchell et al., 2001). JE theory postulates that the better the fit with the organization and the surrounding community, the stronger the ties to the organization (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) found that "misfits" quit slightly faster than "fits". Employees are also likely to leave an organization when organizational entry produced poor person-organization fit (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Personal attributes fit with a job may decrease turnover (Chan, 1996). Villanova, Bernardin, Johnsonm, and Dahmus (1994) also found that lack of job compatibility predicted turnover. Thus, a person's fit with job and organization influences his or her attachment to the organization (Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney, & Stephen Taylor, 2009).

Sacrifice is the perceived psychological, social, or material cost of leaving one's organization and community (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Leaving an organization incurs job-related losses such as giving up familiar colleagues, interesting projects or desirable benefits. Leaving an organization may also result in community-related losses, for example, giving up an easy commute, good day care, or local club membership (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1998). Moreover, an individual who stays can benefit from various advantages such as promotion or pension benefit. Leaving the current job means giving up all these advantages (Zhang et al., 2012).

Since the present study focuses on the effects of workplace fun and workplace aggression on JE, only organizational JE (on-the-job embeddedness) will be the interest of the study. In addition, previous research has provided evidence of differences of the two dimensions of JE (Allen, 2006; Giosan, 2003; Lee et al., 2004). Therefore, it is appropriate for this study to investigate only organizational JE and control for the effect of community JE.

Antecedents of job embeddedness

Only a handful of empirical studies examined individual and/or organizational variables such as psychological capital, mutual investment and over-investment, and effective human resource practices that made employees become embedded in their jobs. For example, Bergiel et al. (2009) investigated the mediation effect of JE on the relationship between employees' intentions to leave and four areas of human resource practices: compensation, supervisor support, growth opportunity and training. Results showed that JE fully mediated compensation and growth

opportunity, partially mediated supervisor support, and did not mediate training in relation to employees' intention to quit, suggesting that managers can utilize several strategies and tactics from a variety of human resource practices such as growth opportunity, compensation and supervisor support to enhance employees' JE. Sun, Zhao, Yang, and Fan (2012) conducted a study on the relationships between psychological capital, JE and nurses' performance and found that improving the individual accumulated psychological state would have a positive impact on their JE and job performance. More recently, Ferreira (2017) argued that employees learn specific ethical behavior by observing leader and peers which influences their JE. The results indicated that ethical leadership is related to JE and that perceived supervisor support mediated the influence of ethical leadership on JE.

Ng and Feldman (2011) conducted research with managerial employees in various industries and demonstrated that contract non-replicability and social networking behaviors acted as full mediators in the relationship between internal locus of control and JE. Karatepe and Ngeche's (2012) recent study showed that work engagement was an antecedent to JE for a sample of frontline hotel employees in Cameroon. Mutual investment and over-investment were also demonstrated to be antecedents of employees' JE (Hom et al., 2009).

The abovementioned studies delineate variables enhancing employees' JE. However, there is a dearth of empirical research pertaining to individual, situational, and/or organizational variables reducing employees' JE (Holtom et al., 2012). Poor training, insufficient pay, excessive job demands, conflicts in the work-family interface, unsocial work hours, and job insecurity appear

to be among problems facing the global hospitality industry (e.g. Davidson & Wang, 2011; Poulston, 2008). Such problems appear to hinder employee retention and erode employee performance. Work overload, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict are three stressors that are frequently experienced by frontline employees in the hospitality industry (e.g. Deery, 2008; Karatepe, 2008). Frontline employees also often experience (emotional) exhaustion (Kim et al., 2007; Liang, 2012). Karatepe (2013b) tested a research model that investigated emotional exhaustion as a mediator of the effects of work overload, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict on JE. The results suggested that emotional exhaustion functions as a full mediator of the effects of work overload, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict on JE. Specifically, employees who have heavy workloads were less embedded in their jobs and displayed poor performance in the service delivery process. In addition, leader narcissism can have a negative influence on subordinate embeddedness (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2017).

Outcomes of job embeddedness

Most of the existing JE studies were conducted to predict voluntary turnover. Several studies revealed that JE predicts incremental variation in turnover after controlling for traditional turnover predictors, such as job satisfaction and quit intentions (Crossley et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2004; Mallol et al., 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001). However, More and more studies are paying attention to other outcomes that JE may have an influence on.

Lee et al.'s (2004) study extended theory and research on JE, which was disaggregated into its two major subdimensions, on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness. Results revealed that off-

the-job embeddedness was significantly predictive of voluntary turnover and volitional absences, whereas on-the-job embeddedness was not. Also, on-the-job embeddedness was significantly predictive of organizational citizenship and job performance, whereas off-the-job embeddedness was not.

Burton, Holtom, Sablinski, Mitchell, and Lee (2010) examined the role that JE plays in creating work enhancement reaction when employees face negative events. Instead of withdrawing in an attempt to “get even” by reducing work outputs, these individuals improved their in-role and extra-role performance. The study discovered that on-the-job embeddedness helps reduce the impact of negative shocks on organizational citizenship and overall job performance (Burton et al., 2010). In addition, Ng and Feldman (2010) proposed that JE can strengthen employees’ motivation to generate, spread, and implement innovative ideas in organizations. The findings showed that JE was positively related to innovation-related behaviors, even after controlling for demographic variables, the job attitudes, and the job perceptions that are frequently associated with JE.

Most prior research had focused on the positive side of JE (William Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). However, understanding both the positive and negative sides of embeddedness will greatly add to the body of knowledge and the construct’s larger nomological network (William Lee et al., 2014). Focusing on organizational JE, Ng & Feldman (2010) argued that increasing organizational JE leads to declines in social and human capital development over time. They reported a general finding that highly embedded employees decreased their behaviors aimed at building social capital, which may then have decreased efforts at building their human capital. Another study conducted

by them focused on both organizational and community embeddedness (Ng & Feldman, 2012), which offered competing hypotheses on the changes in both dimensions of embeddedness and changes in work-to-family and family-to-work conflict. Positive associations between both dimensions of embeddedness and forms of conflict were found and the effects were stronger for individuals with individualist values compare to the ones with collective value (Ng & Feldman, 2012).

Job Embeddedness in the Hospitality Industry

Compared to research in the mainstream, not too many studies have been conducted in the hospitality industry. Karatepe conducted a stream of research focusing on JE in the hospitality context. For example, Karatepe (2011) conducted a study with a sample of full-time frontline hotel employees and their immediate supervisors in Cameroon and found that JE moderated the relationship between coworker support and turnover intentions such that this relationship was stronger for frontline employees with high levels of JE over those with low levels of JE. The results also showed that JE acted as a moderator of the effects of perceived organizational support on turnover intentions such that this relationship would be stronger for frontline employees with high levels of JE (Karatepe, 2011). Karatepe and Karadas (2012) developed a conceptual model that examines JE as a partial mediator of the impact of management commitment to service quality on service recovery performance and extra-role customer service using a sample of fulltime frontline hotel employees in Romania. The results demonstrated that training, empowerment, and rewards were positively related to hotel employees' JE, which could further enhance service recovery

performance (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012).

In 2013, Karatepe conducted another two studies on hospitality employees' JE. JE fully mediated the effects of high-performance work practices and work social support on employee turnover intentions (Karatepe (2013a). Specifically, frontline employees with high-performance work practices and work social support are more embedded in their jobs, and therefore, are unlikely to display intentions to leave the organization (Karatepe, 2013a). The second study indicated that emotional exhaustion functions as a full mediator of the effects of work overload, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict on JE (Karatepe, 2013b). Employees who have heavy workloads are less embedded in their jobs and display poor performance in the service delivery process (Karatepe, 2013b). This study was so far the only study that examined factors that have negative impacts on JE in the hospitality industry.

In addition, Karatepe and Shahriari (2014) conducted a study to examine JE as a moderator of the effects of distributive, procedural and interactional justice on turnover intentions with a sample of full time Iranian frontline hotel employees and the results indicated that the negative effects of distributive, procedural and interactional justice on turnover intentions were stronger among frontline employees with high levels of JE. More recently, Karatepe (2016) found that coworker and family support could enhance JE which further improve hotel employees' creative performance.

Robinson, Kralj, Solnet, Goh, and Callan (2014) conducted a study among Australian hotel frontline employees and indicated that the embeddedness dimensions of organizational sacrifice

and community links displayed a positive relationship with organizational commitment. A negative relationship was found between organizational sacrifice and intentions to leave, while a positive relationship was found between community links and intentions to leave (Robinson et al., 2014). Nicholas, Mensah, and Owusu (2016) studied the relationship between JE and hotel employee turnover intentions and revealed that organization-person culture fitness, autonomy, experience, sense of belongingness, co-worker dependency have significant effect on hotel employee turnover intention.

Afsar and Badir (2016) examined the moderating effects of JE on organizational citizenship behavior through both person–organization fit and perceived organizational support using a sample of hotel employees and managers. The results indicated that when employees JE is high, both the relationship between person-organization fit and organizational citizenship behavior and the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior will be stronger (Afsar & Badir, 2016). Moreover, Purba, Oostrom, Born, and van der Molen (2016) conducted research with restaurant employees in Indonesia and suggested that organizational JE mediated the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover. With a sample of Portuguese hotel employees, Ferreira, Martinez, Lamelas, and Rodrigues (2017) demonstrated that both at the individual level and the hotel level of analysis, JE fully mediated the relationship between different task characteristics and employees' turnover intentions.

As discussed above, the majority of JE research focused on its outcomes, which is voluntary turnover. Very limited research has explored the potential antecedents, both positive and

negative ones, of employees JE, especially in the context of the hospitality industry. Thus, there is a need for more JE studies to be conducted in both the mainstream and in the hospitality context. The current study responds to this call and investigates both the positive and negative antecedents of JE from the perspective of hospitality employees.

Theories and Hypotheses Development

Social Exchange Theory

The exchange relationship between workplace fun, workplace aggression and organizational JE can be best explained by the social exchange theory. Social exchange theory assumes that social behavior is an exchange of goods, material goods but also nonmaterial ones, such as symbols of approval or prestige. People who give much to others try to get much from them, and people that get much from others are under pressure to give much back to them (Homans, 1958). Social exchange theory illustrates how people shape relationships with others through three concepts: (a) balancing what the individual devote to, and what he/she gains from a relationship; (b) finding a type of relationship he/she is seeking; and (c) having a positive relationship with others (Blau, 1964). Accordingly, social exchange theory is built on the notion that an individual's actions and behaviors are dependent on others' reactions in the relationship.

According to Blau (1986), social exchange refers to voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns that are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others. Previous empirical evidence suggested that the basic tenets of the social exchange theory hold in the workplace (Lambert, 2000) and have long been used by organizational researchers to describe

the motivational basis behind employees' behaviors and the formation of positive employee attitudes (e.g., Etzioni, 1961; Levinson, 1965); that is, "positive, beneficial actions directed at employees by the organization and/or its representatives contribute to the establishment of high quality exchange relationships that create obligations for employees to reciprocate in positive, beneficial ways" (Settoon et al., 1996, p. 219), which was consistent with research findings from researchers such as Settoon et al. (1996), Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975), Konovsky and Pugh (1994), and Shore and Wayne (1993).

According to the social exchange theory, social behavior is the result of an exchange process. The purpose of this exchange is to maximize benefits and minimize costs. It also suggests that we essentially take the benefits and minus the costs in order to determine how much a relationship is worth. Positive relationships are those in which the benefits outweigh the costs, while negative relationships occur when the costs are greater than the benefits. Meanwhile, JE research posits that relationships are a key factor enmeshing individuals in organizations (Mitchell et al., 2001). Employees in the organization can be exposed to both positive relationships and negative relationships. According to the social exchange theory, employees tend to stay in the positive relationship to get benefit while they tend to terminate a negative relationship to reduce cost, which results in either high or low levels of employees' JE.

However, hospitality employees do not only interact with their supervisors, they also interact most often with their coworkers (Ma & Qu, 2011). Therefore, the additional type of social exchange, coworker exchange also needs researchers' attention. Addressing these additional forms

of social exchange in the workplace would enrich social exchange theory in its application to JE, and would be more meaningful for the hospitality industry. Thus, the current study will follow the approach to investigate the relationships from a multi-foci perspective.

For employees' JE, previous research demonstrated that effective human resource practices have positive influences on JE (Bergiel et al., 2009). According to the social exchange theory, workplace fun as a positive beneficial action directed at employees should also create obligations for employees to reciprocate in a positive beneficial manner, which in the current study is enhanced JE. Which is to say, the employees feel the more their organizations, supervisors, and coworkers are supportive for fun activities at work or being friendly and social, the more embedded in the current organization they will be. In addition, Tews et al. (2014) studied workplace fun among hospitality employees and demonstrated that workplace fun can reduce employees' turnover intentions since they are more embedded to their organization.

On the other side of the social exchange theory, when the risks outweigh the rewards, people will terminate or abandon that relationship. As is known to all, highly stressful jobs are more likely to violate conditions of valuable benefits and fair administration since high stress can be perceived as a cost of investment for employees incurred towards their work organizations. Workplace aggression is one of the common occupational stressors. Hence, workplace aggression is considered by employees as costly and may impede the development of mutually beneficial social exchange relationships, which may result in a reduced level of JE to the organization. If facing more workplace aggression, employees may consider the cost of working outweighs the

rewards and will eventually decide to terminate the negative relationship. Karatepe (2013b) demonstrated that work stressors such as work overload, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict have negative influence on employees' JE. Specifically, employees who have heavy workloads are less embedded in their jobs. The current study is set out to investigate whether workplace aggression as a type of work stressor can also reduce hospitality employees' organizational JE.

In conclusion, based on the tenets of the social exchange theory, when individuals form social exchange relationships with their organizations, they tend to have higher level of organizational JE. When the social exchange relationship is violated, they tend to have lower level of organizational JE or even want to leave the organization.

Cultural Dimension Theory

Hofstede (1980) defined culture as "...the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (p. 25). He utilized a data bank from a U.S. multinational corporation, IBM, that had subsidiaries in about 50 countries. A total of 116,000 IBM employees participated in the survey that took place from 1967 to 1973. Four dimensions were emerged, which are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity, and individualism/collectivism. Hofstede attributed to each of the countries represented in his study an index value (between 0 and about 100) on each of these dimensions.

Power distance is defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions

and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1980). People from culture with high level of power distance accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. Subordinates are not expected to express disagreement with their supervisors and supervisors are not expected to consult with their subordinates in the decision-making process (Hofstede, 1980; 2001). Hierarchy in an organization is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralization is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to do and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat.

Individualism/collectivism is defined as “the degree to which people in a country prefer to act as individuals rather than as members of groups” (Hofstede, 1994, p. 6), which measures the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups (Hofstede, 1980). In Individualist societies people are supposed to look after themselves and their direct family only while in collectivist societies people belong to “in groups” that take care of them in exchange for loyalty (Hofstede, 1980).

Masculinity is defined as “the extent to which the dominant values in society are masculine – that is, assertiveness, the acquisition of money and things” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 46) while femininity is defined as “preference friendly atmosphere, position security, physical conditions, and cooperation” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 281). A high score (masculine) on this dimension indicates that the society will be driven by competition, achievement and success, with success being defined by the winner/best in field - a value system that starts in school and continues throughout organizational behavior. In feminine cultures, managers strive for consensus, people value equality,

solidarity and quality in their working lives. Conflicts are resolved by compromise and negotiation. Incentives such as free time and flexibility are favored. Focus is on well-being and status is not shown or emphasized.

Uncertainty avoidance dimension is known as “the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviors, and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise” (1980, p. 45). This dimension has to do with the way that a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should people try to control the future or just let it happen? Cultures exhibiting high uncertainty avoidance maintain rigid codes of belief and behavior and are intolerant of unorthodox behavior and ideas.

Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Development

The current study proposes and tests a model that explores the effects of hospitality employees’ workplace humor styles (affiliative humor and aggressive humor) on their perceived workplace fun (supervisor support and coworker socializing) and perceived workplace aggression (supervisor aggression and coworker aggression), which further influence the employees’ organizational JE. The study also examines the moderating effect of the national culture on the relationships between workplace humor and workplace fun, between workplace humor and workplace aggression, between workplace fun and organizational JE, and between workplace aggression and organizational JE.

Workplace Humor and Workplace Fun

Martin et al. (2003) demonstrated that employees who use affiliative humor attract others with jokes, funny stories and other forms of appealing humor are confident and extroverted and can bring people together by sharing humor and reducing interpersonal tensions. Research suggested affiliative humor may promote team cohesion via increased group harmony and inter-member attractiveness (Holmes, 2006), as well as by operating as a social lubricant (Morreall, 1991). Therefore, affiliative humor, as a positive humor style, should be able to bring employees closer to their coworkers and supervisors.

Meanwhile, affiliative humor can evoke positive emotions shared among coworkers that contribute to positive affect spirals which have been found to improve coworker relationships and work satisfaction (Gully et al., 1995; Mullen & Copper, 1994). In addition, McDowell (2005) suggested that positive affect should be associated with workplace fun. It would be safe to assume that affiliative humor will be positively related to hospitality employees' perceived workplace fun, which includes both supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing, by increasing team cohesiveness and bringing them closer to each other.

Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H₁: Affiliative humor is positively associated with hospitality employees' perceived workplace fun, more specifically: a) perceived supervisor support for fun and b) perceived coworker socializing.

People use aggressive humor to feel better about themselves at someone else's expense (De

Koning & Weiss, 2002; Martin et al., 2003). Romero and Arendt (2011) demonstrated that there was a negative relationship between aggressive humor and satisfaction with coworkers as well as between aggressive humor and team cooperation. Thus, employees who use aggressive humor at workplace tend to perceive negatively about the relationships at workplace, which may cause them feel being isolated by their coworkers and supervisors. Study also showed that aggressive humor was negatively related to job satisfaction and psychological empowerment (Avtgis & Taber, 2006). Employees use aggressive humor tend to think in a passive way, which may lead them to perceive a lower level of workplace fun, such as perceiving their supervisors as less supportive for fun at workplace and their coworkers as less friendly and social. Hence, the following hypothesis was posited:

H₂: Aggressive humor is negatively associated with hospitality employees' perceived workplace fun, more specifically: a) perceived supervisor support for fun and b) perceived coworker socializing.

Workplace Humor and Workplace Aggression

As mentioned above, positive humor styles can help reduce negative effects from workplace. As stated by Martin et al. (2003) affiliative humor can help reduce interpersonal tensions and can be used as a stress reduction method that helps people keep a constructive view of life. In addition, research showed that affiliative humor can mask the unpleasant content of messages at workplace (Holmes, 2000) and limit friction in interpersonal interactions (Fine & Soucey, 2005). When being the target of aggressive behaviors at workplace, hospitality employees

who use affiliative humor tend to use humor to cover the friction and the stress they experience at work, resulting in lower level of perceived workplace aggression. Therefore, the affiliative humor styles can act as lubricant and help employees buffer negative perception of both supervisor aggression and coworker aggression. Based on the literature review, we proposed the following hypothesis:

H₃: Affiliative humor is negatively associated with hospitality employees' perceived workplace aggression, more specifically: a) perceived supervisor aggression and b) perceived coworker aggression.

Previous research indicated that employees' aggressive humor could induce hostility and anger while at the same time is negatively related to relationship satisfaction (Martin et al., 2003). Romero and Arendt (2011) demonstrated that employees' aggressive humor to be negatively related to satisfaction with coworkers, team cooperation and also organizational commitment, which can further intensify their perceived aggressive behaviors at workplace with themselves as the target. In addition, study also demonstrated that aggressive humor style was positively related to job stress (Avtgis & Taber, 2006). While experiencing workplace aggression was considered as one type of the common job stress, employees with aggressive humor style tend to perceive higher level of workplace aggression when compared to their counterparts. Hence, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H₄: Aggressive humor is positively associated with hospitality employees' perceived workplace aggression, more specifically: a) perceived supervisor aggression and b)

perceived coworker aggression.

Workplace Fun and Organizational Job Embeddedness

Mossholder et al. (2005) demonstrated that positive relationships “enmesh individuals within a relational web, making them less susceptible to forces that could dislodge them” (p. 608). Friendships at work may provide a source of social contact, intimacy and support and are thought to be important in a hospitality context given the social intensity of the work environment, where quantity and frequency of social interactions are high (Tews et al., 2014). When the work is high in social intensity, coworkers have been demonstrated to have a greater influence on employees (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). The work for hospitality employees is especially socially intense because employees typically work alongside one another with duties that require regular interaction (Tews et al., 2014). According to the social exchange theory, the positive relationships with coworkers, supervisors and the organization will result in the hospitality employees’ increased level of JE.

Coworker socializing and supervisor support for fun link employees to each other. More importantly, employees can interact with each other less formally and get to know each other beyond the traditional confines of their job roles (Tews et al., 2014). For example, coworker socializing can help enhance friendly communication among colleagues and makes employees feel connected to each other. Moreover, supervisor support for fun could facilitate a more relaxed business attitude in general, where individuals may be more apt to interact in a friendly manner without fear of negative repercussions, which may leave the employee the impression that leaving

the current hospitality organization will bring them too much cost (Tews et al., 2014). In addition, supervisors and managers as representation of the organization, their support for fun at workplace would help hospitality employees connect with each other in a non-task context and give them the feeling that the organization is a good fit with them (Tews et al., 2014). In conclusion, workplace fun, which includes coworker socializing and supervisor support for fun, helps the hospitality employees form the perception that the positive exchange relationship between their organization and themselves has been established so that they need to reciprocate in positive, beneficial ways, which results in the enhanced organizational JE.

Based on these arguments, workplace fun is hypothesized to be positively related to hospitality employees' organizational JE.

H₅: Workplace fun is positively associated with hospitality employees' organizational JE.

More specifically:

H_{5a}: Supervisor support for fun is positively associated with hospitality employees' organizational JE.

H_{5b}: Coworker socializing is positively associated with hospitality employees' organizational JE.

Workplace Aggression and Organizational Job Embeddedness

It has been established that targets of workplace aggression tend to report intentions to leave the organization (Cortina et al., 2001; Tepper, 2000), which echoes with the social exchange theory that employees may want to terminate the relationship if they feel the cost outweighs the

benefit. Hospitality employees interact with their supervisors and coworkers on a daily basis, their relationships with these organizational insiders have critical effect on their perception of their relationship with the organization. For instance, aggressions from supervisor and coworker both can influence the employees' links to the organization that they work for. As a target of workplace aggression, the hospitality employee may feel the organization no longer fits him/her that well and feel less connected to his/her colleagues, supervisors and organizations. They may also perceive the costs outweigh the benefits of continuing to stay at the current organization, which further makes them think that leaving the current organization will not cause them too much cost. All these indicate that workplace aggression from both supervisor and coworker will make the hospitality employees perceive that the negative exchange relationship has been formed between the organization and themselves, which will push them to reciprocate with the reduced level of organizational JE.

Hence, we proposed the following hypotheses:

H₆: Workplace aggression is negatively associated with hospitality employees' organizational JE. More specifically:

H_{6a}: Supervisor aggression is negatively associated with hospitality employees' organizational JE.

H_{6b}: Coworker aggression is negatively associated with hospitality employees' organizational JE.

National Culture as a Moderator

Most of the humor studies focused on the western culture, especially U.S. and Canada, with very limited research explored the use of humor in other cultural backgrounds. Almost all the research that investigated humor use in other cultures employed college students sample. For example, Kalliny, Cruthirds, and Minor (2006) compared differences between American, Egyptian and Lebanese humor styles using university students sample and found that Americans scored significantly higher on self-enhancing and self-defeating humor styles when compared to Arabs. No difference was found regarding affiliative and aggressive humor styles. In a study targeting Chinese college students' use of humor, the results indicated that affiliative humor had negative effects on depression and anxiety while aggressive humor intensified depression, anxiety and irritation (Cheung & Yue, 2013). Moreover, Chen and Martin (2007) found that Chinese participants had significantly lower scores on all humor styles especially on aggressive humor than Canadian participants. Also, both Chinese and Canadian younger participants used more affiliative and aggressive humor than the older ones (Chen & Martin, 2007). Even limited research has looked at the role of culture in workplace fun, workplace aggression and organizational JE. Therefore, there is a need of research investigating workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression as well as organizational JE in a different culture context such as China.

In relation to cultural issues, Hofstede (1980) ranked national cultures according to four cultural dimensions: power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. U.S. and China have scored differently in two of the above-mentioned

cultural dimensions, which are power distance and individualism/collectivism. In the power distance dimension, U.S. received a score of 40, and thus has a low level of power distance. On the other hand, China scored 80 exhibiting high power distance. U.S. received a score of 91 for individualism/collectivism dimension, indicating a highly individualist culture, while China scored 20 in the same dimension as a country of collectivist culture. Both U.S. and China have similar scores when it comes to the dimension of masculinity/femininity and uncertainty avoidance. Hence, the following discussion will focus on how national cultural differences in power distance and individualism/collectivism dimensions would influence the proposed relationships between the U.S. and Chinese hospitality employees.

Power distance refers to the extent to which members of a society believe that power should be distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1980). People in societies such as China exhibiting a large degree of power distance accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. In societies with low power distance such as the U.S., people strive to equalize the distribution of power and demand justification for inequalities of power. Therefore, power distance can influence hospitality employees' use of workplace humor, perceived workplace fun, workplace aggression and organizational JE.

Low power distance societies are more egalitarian. Organizations in low power distance societies are less likely to have many layers of bureaucracy, and distinctions made along power or status dimensions are attributed to a need for functionality rather than inherent differences in the worth of individuals (Robert & Yan, 2007). Employees from low power distance cultures have a

lower tolerance for the unequally distributed power, therefore, they tend to use more negative type of humor such as the aggressive humor to express their dissatisfaction at work when compared to employees from a high power distance culture.

In addition, supervisors or managers in high power distance culture are likely to emphasize control and status distinctions by being less supportive of employees having fun at workplace (Robert & Yan, 2007), where employees also accept the existence of hierarchy inside of the organization. Therefore, employees in high power distance culture would be more sensitive to changes that lead to the equal distribution of power such as more workplace fun, especially supervisor support for fun, and less sensitive to changes that potentially increase the inequality of power distribution such as intensified workplace aggression, especially supervisor aggression. More specifically, in cultures high in power distance, individuals are likely to respect those who have achieved a position of status, such as a supervisor, and accord them the right to use their position of dominance (Kernan, Watson, Chen, & Kim, 2011). In such cultures, aggression from supervisors may be more prevalent, to the point where it may actually be expected (Kernan et al., 2011). Subordinates experiencing aggression in cultures high in power distance are likely to attribute the behavior to the position occupied by the perpetrator, not to the supervisor him/herself (Kernan et al., 2011). Indeed, employees may not perceive the actions to be aggressive at all. In cultures low in power distance, the supervisor is not accorded the right to use their position of dominance only because of the position they occupy, thus will be less acceptable and will be perceived as workplace aggression.

Power distance will influence employees' reaction to workplace aggression. Fischer and Smith (2006) suggested and demonstrated that the extent to which individuals are engulfed in hierarchical societies will influence their responses to unfair treatment. Specifically, individuals in hierarchical societies are accustomed to power differentials and the resulting unfair treatment, while individuals living in societies that are less hierarchical will be less likely to accept this type of treatment (Hofstede, 1980). Furthermore, Loh et al. (2010) argued that employees from low power distance cultures would respond more negatively to workplace aggression than employees from cultures that score highly on power distance. Consequently, potential perpetrators in cultures that have higher levels of power distance would often perceive a lower likelihood of being punished for exhibiting bullying behaviors and thus would be more likely to engage in aggression. Thus, power distance will influence employee reactions to workplace aggression such that employees from low power distance cultures, such as the U.S., who is the target of workplace aggression, will exhibit lower levels of job satisfaction than will employees from high power distance cultures. This difference is more common among employees reaction to supervisor aggression. Employees from a culture with higher level of power distance will perceive power distribution inequality as acceptable, thus will have a less negative reaction toward supervisor aggression. However, employees in low power distance cultures where smaller differences in power and status exist between people in different positions will react more negatively toward supervisor aggression such as exhibiting low level of organizational JE.

Individualism/collectivism is defined as “the degree to which people in a country prefer to

act as individuals rather than as members of groups” (Hofstede, 1994, p. 6), which measures the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups (Hofstede, 1980). Ingroups are important to collectivists, the goals of the group take precedence over individual goals, and group norms tend to be more closely followed in collectivist than individualist cultures (Robert & Yan, 2007). In contrast, in individualist cultures, people are loosely connected to groups, and tend to view relationships in terms of exchanges. In addition, workplace humor has been considered as an important determinant of interpersonal cohesiveness, especially the use of affiliative humor or aggressive humor that are targeted at interpersonal level. Employees from collectivist cultures such as China value more about group cohesiveness so that they tend to use more affiliative humor at workplace to enhance the interpersonal relationship when compared to employees from individualist cultures such as the U.S. Similarly, aggressive humor which was perceived as a type of humor that can be detrimental to interpersonal relationships will not be popular in collectivist cultures at workplace. It is reasonable for employees in collectivist culture try to main good personal relationship with their coworkers and more sensitive to the relationship with their supervisors since the ingroup relationship matters more to them when compared to their counterparts from the individualist culture.

Meanwhile, a culture of individualism implies competition, which may increase the likelihood of workplace aggression situations. Employees will typically value their individual achievement over that of coworkers, which may lead them to engage in aggressive behaviors in order to weaken their competitors (coworkers) (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007). While

for people in collectivism culture, they have less tendency to perform aggressions since they show care for others and the organization as a whole. For example, employees want to stay in a harmonious work environment and have coworkers to support them thus reducing their tendency to conduct coworker aggression. Similarly, employees from collectivist culture tend to react less negatively toward supervisor aggression and coworker aggression because they do not really want to terminate the relationship and they do not want to cause any harm to the organization. However, employees in individualist culture tend to have more negative reactions once they experience aggression from their supervisors and coworkers because they care more about their own feelings and benefits than the organization or anyone else.

Therefore, based on the literature review, it is safe to assume that national culture difference between the U.S. and China will moderate the relationships between workplace humor and workplace fun, between workplace humor and workplace aggression, between workplace fun and organizational JE, and between workplace aggression and organizational JE. Hence, the following hypotheses were posited:

H₇: National culture moderates the relationship between affiliative humor and hospitality employees' perceived workplace fun. More specifically:

H_{7a}: National culture moderates the relationship between affiliative humor and hospitality employees' perceived supervisor support for fun.

H_{7b}: National culture moderates the positive relationship between affiliative humor and hospitality employees' perceived coworker socializing.

H₈: National culture moderates the relationship between aggressive humor and hospitality employees' perceived workplace fun. More specifically:

H_{8a}: National culture moderates the relationship between aggressive humor and hospitality employees' perceived supervisor support for fun.

H_{8b}: National culture moderates the relationship between aggressive humor and hospitality employees' perceived coworker socializing.

H₉: National culture moderates the relationship between affiliative humor and hospitality employees' perceived workplace aggression. More specifically:

H_{9a}: National culture moderates the relationship between affiliative humor and hospitality employees' perceived supervisor aggression.

H_{9b}: National culture moderates the relationship between affiliative humor and hospitality employees' perceived coworker aggression.

H₁₀: National culture moderates the relationship between aggressive humor and hospitality employees' perceived workplace aggression. More specifically:

H_{10a}: National culture moderates the relationship between aggressive humor and hospitality employees' perceived supervisor aggression.

H_{10b}: National culture moderates the relationship between aggressive humor and hospitality employees' perceived coworker aggression.

H₁₁: National culture moderates the relationship between workplace fun and hospitality employees' organizational JE. More specifically:

H_{11a}: National culture moderates the relationship between supervisor support for fun and hospitality employees' organizational JE.

H_{11b}: National culture moderates the relationship between coworker socializing and hospitality employees' organizational JE.

H₁₂: National culture moderates the relationship between workplace aggression and hospitality employees' organizational JE. More specifically:

H_{12a}: National culture moderates the relationship between supervisor aggression and restaurant employees' organizational JE.

H_{12b}: National culture moderates the relationship between coworker aggression and restaurant employees' organizational JE.

The theoretical research model proposed for this study is represented in Figure 1. The proposed model examines the interplays between workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and hospitality employees' organizational JE, and it further tests the moderating effect of national culture in these relationships.

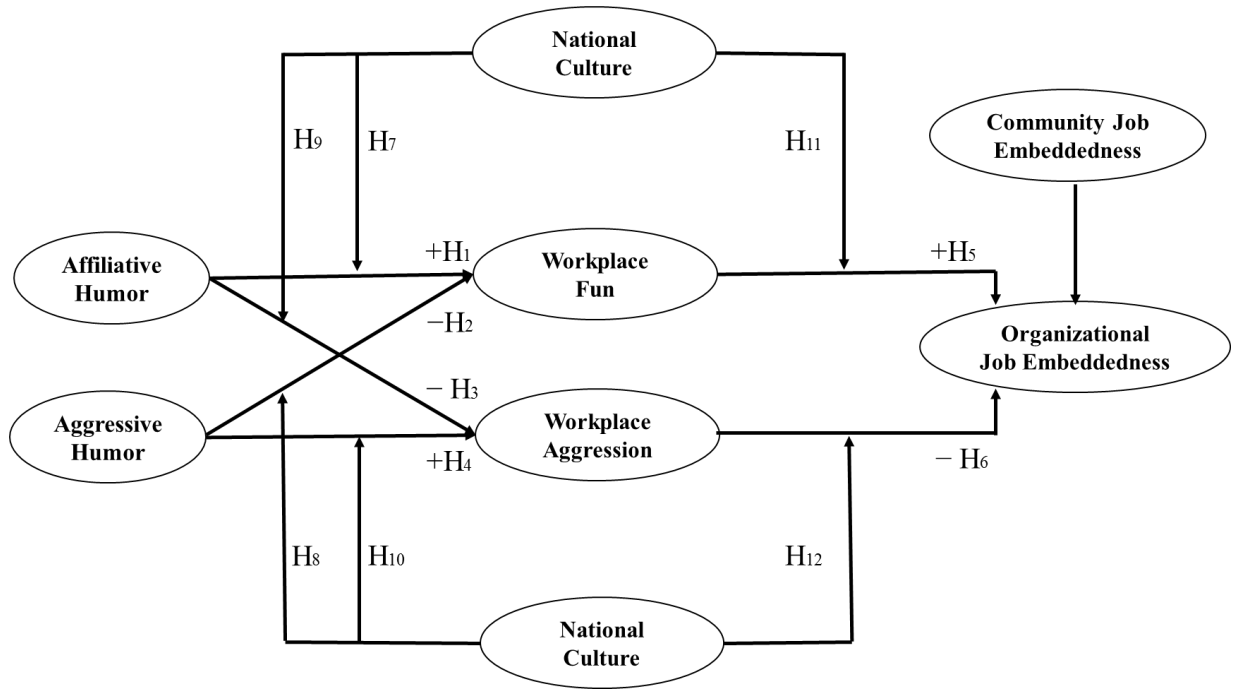


Figure 1 Conceptual Model

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Sample and Data Collection

The sample of the current study was consisted of full-time, entry-level restaurant employees who are eighteen years of age or older and have been working in their current restaurant for at least twelve months. Restaurant employees were employed because the restaurant industry is known to have a high turnover rate and employees tend to experience high levels of stress and aggression at workplace (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Wildes, 2007). The research was a cross-national study, which involved data collection in both the U.S. and China. The researcher obtained IRB approval for data collection in July 2016.

For the U.S. sample, a self-report online survey was prepared using Qualtrics. The survey was distributed via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), a crowd-sourcing platform where tasks are allocated to a population of unidentified workers for completion in exchange for compensation. According to Buhrmester, Kwang, and Gosling (2011) the data acquired via MTurk is as reliable as those gathered via conventional techniques and the participants are more demographically varied than are usual internet samples. For the Chinese sample, the researcher contacted the manager of a Chinese fine dining restaurant chain for their cooperation to conduct an on-site survey

among their employees. Five restaurants from the same fine dining restaurant chain participated in the research. These restaurants are located in three major cities in China, including Jinan, Chengdu and Haikou. Paper-based questionnaires were distributed to employees by managers. Instructions on how to complete the survey, including how to seal and drop completed questionnaire envelopes in a box provided for this data collection process were provided to employees. The boxes containing the completed questionnaires in sealed envelopes were then returned to the researcher.

At the beginning of the survey, participants were asked to think about their workplace experience at the current restaurant when filling out the survey. The survey started with screening questions asking if participants are full-time entry-level restaurant employees and have been working in the current restaurant for at least 12 months. People who answered “No” to any of the screening questions were automatically taken to the end of the online survey or were screened out for the paper-based questionnaire. To ensure the quality of the data, several attention check questions such as “Please select two to indicate you are reading each question thoroughly” were incorporated throughout both the English and Chinese surveys.

Data were collected simultaneously in both U.S. and China from March to April 2017 with a target sample size of 250 for each country. The sample size was estimated using the ratio of sample size to free parameters which according to Bentler and Chou (1987) should be between 5:1 and 10:1. With 41 free parameters to be estimated, a sample between 205 and 410 should be adequate. Descriptive analysis, reliability analysis, correlation analysis, independent t-test and

structural equation modeling were employed via SPSS version 23 and Amos 22.

Measures

The current study used employees' perceptions as measurement of workplace fun and workplace aggression. JE and workplace humor were reported by employees themselves. The measurement scales for all of the study variables were based on previously validated scales and were modified to fit into this study.

Short work-related Humor Styles Questionnaire (swHSQ) developed by Scheel, Gerdenitsch and Korunka (2016) was adopted to measure restaurant employees' affiliative humor and aggressive humor styles. The swHSQ is a 12-item measure comprising four, 3-item scales assessing different styles of humor, which include affiliative humor, aggressive humor, self-enhancing humor and self-defeating humor. For the purpose of this study, only affiliative and aggressive humors were used. Items for affiliative humor included "I enjoy making my colleagues laugh". An example of the aggressive humor included "If someone makes a mistake at work, I will often tease them about it". Workplace humor were measured with a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

Workplace fun was composed of two dimensions: supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing. Five items were used to measure supervisor support for fun. These items were based on the perceived supervisor support measure developed by Shanock and Eisenberger (2006) and were adapted by Tews et al. (2014) to reflect support for having fun in the workplace. Sample items included "My supervisors care about employees having fun on the job" and "My supervisors

allow employees to play around on the job”. Coworker socializing scale has four items and it was based on McDowell’s (2004) measure. Examples of these items were “My coworkers and I socialize outside of work” and “My coworkers and I joke around with each other”. Both supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing were measured with a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

Workplace aggression was also composed of two dimensions: supervisor aggression and coworker aggression. Supervisor aggression and coworker aggression were adopted from Neuman and Keashly (2004) with four items for each. Supervisor aggression and coworker aggression were measured with identical items, but with different instructions that ask the respondent to refer to aggressive experiences from either supervisors or coworkers. Participants were asked to respond to the question “Over the past 12 months, how often have you been subjected to the following behaviors in your workplace” with a response scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (daily). Sample items included “being yelled or sworn at by your supervisors/coworkers” and “being insulted or made fun of by your supervisors/coworkers”.

JE was measured using the 18-item scale developed by Robinson et al. (2014). Nine items for both the organizational JE and the community JE. Items of organizational JE included: “My job utilizes my skills and talents well”, “I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job”, and “I work closely with my coworkers”; Community JE was used as a control variable. Examples of these items were “I really love the place where I live”, “Leaving the community where I live would be very hard”, and “My family roots are in this community.” JE was measured with a five-point Likert-type scale

ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

Additionally, respondents were asked to provide demographic data, including their age, gender, educational level, marital status, number of children, work position, years of service in the current restaurant as well as in the restaurant industry.

The initial survey was developed in English. The Chinese version of the questionnaire was first translated into Chinese by the researcher and one professional translator, independently. The researcher then compared the two translated versions and made changes where appropriate. Next, two bilinguals who are proficient in both English and Chinese and were not involved in this research checked the readability of the survey and provided feedback to finalize the Chinese survey. To ensure conceptual consistency, back translation approach was used (Brislin, 1970). The back translation was performed by another professional translator. This translated English version was compared with the original English version by a bilingual professor. Based on the bilingual professor’s feedback, final revisions were made to the Chinese translation. Through the process, the items were revised and the reliability and validity of the translation were enhanced.

Before conducting the research in China, the Chinese version of the questionnaire was again checked by four Chinese hospitality professionals to ensure the clarity of the survey items. A couple of items were revised to make them easier for Chinese employees to understand. Similarly, prior to data collection in the U.S., the English survey was checked by a group of doctoral students and professors. Some changes were made based on their suggestions.

A pilot study was performed among 171 undergraduate students enrolled in the hospitality

management programs in ten different universities located in the U.S. These students are currently working or have previously worked in the hospitality industry. The respondents were asked to answer the questions based on their most recent hospitality work experience. The results of the pilot test indicated strong content validity and internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha of the measures ranged from .66 to .89 (affiliative humor: .66; aggressive humor: .69; supervisor support for fun: .89; coworker socializing: .75; supervisor aggression: .71; coworker aggression: .76; organizational JE: .87; community JE: .88).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Profile of Respondents

For the U.S. restaurant employees, 347 responses were collected from Amazon Mturk, out of which 73 failed the attention check questions, resulting in 274 usable responses. Respondents were from 42 different states of the U.S. Approximately 62 percent (n= 169) of the respondents were working for chain restaurants instead of independent ones. The majority (48.3 percent, n=126) of the participants worked at casual dining restaurants, followed by moderate/theme restaurants (21.5 percent, n=56). The respondents' demographic information indicated that 51.1 percent (n=140) were male and 47.6 percent (n=130) of them were in the age group of 26 to 35 years old. About 75.2 percent (n=206) of respondents had a degree of diploma or higher and 65 percent (n=178) of them were single, and approximately 70 percent (n=193) of them had no child living at home. Around 48 percent (n=128) respondents worked as a server and their average current restaurant tenure was two years and seven months, and their restaurant industry tenure was five years and seven months.

As for the Chinese sample, a total of 325 responses were collected from five restaurants of one single fine dining Chinese restaurant chain. Fifty-three participants failed the attention check

questions and there were six incomplete responses, resulting in 266 usable responses. The participants' demographic information showed that 57.2 percent (n=151) of them were female and 52.1 percent (n=139) were between the ages of 18 and 25 years old. Approximately 81 percent (n=213) of the respondents had an education level of high school or less and 50.8 percent (n=135) of them were single. About 63 percent (n=167) of the participants had no child living with them and most of them worked as a server (60.2 percent, n=160). Their average tenure at the current restaurant was one year and eleven months, and their restaurant industry tenure was two years and eight months. Table 1 shows the detailed demographic information of both U.S. and Chinese respondents.

Table 1 Demographic Information of Chinese and U.S. Restaurant Employees

	U.S. (n=274)		China (n=266)	
	frequency	%	frequency	%
Gender				
Male	140	51.1	113	42.8
Female	134	48.9	151	57.2
Age				
18-25	78	28.4	139	52.1
26-35	130	47.6	114	43.0
36-45	42	15.4	11	4.1
≥46	24	8.8	2	0.8
Education				
High school or less	68	24.8	213	80.7
Diploma/Associate's degree	91	33.2	42	15.9
Bachelor's degree	99	36.1	7	2.7
Graduate degree	12	4.4	1	0.4
Other	4	1.5	1	0.4
Marital Status				
Single	178	65.0	135	50.8
Married	71	25.9	121	45.5

Others	25	9.1	10	3.8
Job Position				
Server	128	46.7	160	60.2
Chef & Cook	44	16.1	24	9.0
Cashier	25	9.1	19	7.1
Host	34	12.4	10	3.8
Bartender	10	3.6	23	8.6
Other	33	12.0	30	11.3
Average Restaurant Tenure	2 years 7 months		1 years 11 months	
Average Industry Tenure	5 years 7 months		2 years 8 months	

Measurement Model

Data were checked for normality, skewness, kurtosis, and outliers. Nothing unusual was found. Since all of the constructs were measured from already established and validated scales, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was not conducted for the purpose of this study. Instead, the adequacy of the measurement model was examined using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Based on the CFA, one item of the affiliative humor “I don’t have to work very hard at making other people laugh – I seem to be a naturally humorous person” (0.29), one item of the aggressive humor “If I don’t like someone at work, I often use humor or teasing to put them down” (0.46), one item of supervisor support for fun “My supervisors allow employees to play around on the job” (0.36), one item of coworker socializing “My coworkers and I socialize at work” (0.40), and one item from coworker aggression “Received a threatening phone call from your coworkers” (0.49) were removed from the final analysis because the standardized item loading values were lower than 0.50.

After deleting items with low factor loadings, the CFA was again conducted using the

maximum likelihood estimation. The standardized factor loadings and fit statistics are provided in Table 2. The χ^2 value of the measurement models was significant ($\chi^2 (546) = 1809.92, p < 0.01$), which means the theoretical model and data did not fit each other well. However, given the likely effect of large sample size on the chi-square values, depending on χ^2 alone can be erroneous and other model fit indices should be selected to assess the fit of the model. Other indices of the model's fit included a comparative fit index (CFI) of .90, which ranges from zero to 1.00 with a value above 0.90 indicating good fit (Byrne, 1998), and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .06, which should not exceed 0.1 and ideally lie between 0.05 and 0.08 (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). In addition, the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) was .06, which ranges from zero to 1.00 with values less than .08 are deemed acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, given the sample size and the number of measured items, the measurement model is adequate.

Table 2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results Including Standardized Loading Estimates
(N=540)

Measure	AH	AGH	SSF	CS	SA	CA	OJE	CJE
AH1	.80							
AH2	.86							
AGH1		.93						
AGH2		.73						
SSF1			.86					
SSF2			.77					
SSF3			.83					
SSF4			.88					
CS1				.63				
CS2				.78				
CS3				.79				
SA1					.68			
SA2					.88			
SA3					.79			
SA4					.69			
CA1						.71		

CA2	.83	
CA3	.73	
OJE1		.85
OJE2		.82
OJE3		.83
OJE4		.80
OJE5		.64
OJE6		.71
OJE7		.57
OJE8		.59
OJE9		.55
CJE1		.80
CJE2		.82
CJE3		.80
CJE4		.78
CJE5		.83
CJE6		.65
CJE7		.57
CJE8		.63
CJE9		.50

Note: AH-Affiliative humor; AGH-Aggressive humor; SSF-Supervisor support for fun; CS-Coworker socializing; SA-Supervisor aggression; CA- Coworker aggression; OJE-Organizational job embeddedness; CJE-Community job embeddedness.

$\chi^2(546)=1809.92, p<.01$; CFI: .90; RMSEA: .06; SRMR: .06

Reliability and Validity

Both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) of the constructs were used to measure the latent variable's internal consistency. The results indicated that Cronbach's Alpha of constructs ranged from 0.75 to 0.91, exceeding the minimum of 0.70 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & William, 1995). In addition, the higher the CR value, the more precisely the measures can predict construct reliability. Researchers suggest that the CR value should be greater than 0.60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 3 shows that the CR values of all constructs are between 0.78 and 0.90, demonstrating good internal consistency.

Convergent validity refers to whether two similar constructs correspond with each other. Convergent validity was tested using factor loadings and t-values of each construct to see whether the measured items toward the construct have completely standardized estimates between 0.50 and 0.95 and whether it is statistically significant (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Table 2 shows that the majority of factor loadings are more than 0.70 and all factor loadings were greater than the 0.5 cutoff (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). In addition, all indicator loadings for the constructs in the model were significant at 0.05. Moreover, an adequate convergent validity should contain less than 50% average variances extracted (AVE) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In other words, the AVE value should be 0.50 or above. As shown in Table 3, the AVE value for each construct ranged from 0.51 to 0.70. Thus, the model has achieved the convergent validity.

Discriminant validity was also assessed. Adequate discriminant validity means that the indicators for different constructs should not be so highly correlated as to lead one to conclude that they are measuring the same thing (Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that discriminant validity is based on a comparison of squared pair-wise correlations between constructs and the AVE value for each construct. Hence, each construct's square root of AVE value (between 0.71 and 0.84) should be greater than their correlations with the other constructs (as shown in Table 3). Therefore, discriminant validity is achieved showing that each construct is statistically different from the other.

Table 3 Mean, Standard Deviations, Reliability and Correlations Coefficients (N=540)

Measure	AH	AGH	SSF	CS	SA	CA	OJE	CJE	AVE	The square root of AVE
AH	1								.69	.83
AGH	-.26**	1							.70	.84
SSF	.42**	-.09*	1						.70	.84
CS	.33**	.12**	.50**	1					.54	.73
SA	-.02	.01	-.22**	-.29**	1				.58	.76
CA	-.08	.17**	-.29**	-.23**	.74**	1			.58	.76
OJE	.33**	-.13**	.62**	.51**	-.26**	-.34**	1		.51	.71
CJE	.21**	.08	.42**	.36**	-.25**	-.26**	.56**	1	.52	.72
Mean	4.27	3.81	3.50	3.99	1.62	1.73	3.69	3.50		
SD	1.89	1.59	1.07	.77	1.00	1.07	.81	.92		
Cronbach's Alpha	.82	.81	.91	.75	.86	.83	.91	.90		
C.R.	.82	.82	.90	.78	.85	.80	.90	.90		

** $p < .001$; * $p < .05$

Relationships among Workplace Humor, Workplace Fun, Workplace Aggression and Organizational JE

A structural model with eight constructs was estimated using Maximum Likelihood (ML) through SPSS Amos 22. Table 4 displays the theoretical paths linking workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and organizational JE, with community JE as a control variable.

As for the relationship between workplace humor and workplace fun, the results showed that affiliative humor was significantly positively associated with both supervisor support for fun (0.68, $p < .05$) and coworker socializing (0.51, $p < .05$). Hence, hypothesis 1 was supported. Aggressive humor was also significantly positively related to both supervisor support fun (0.31, $p < .05$) and coworker socializing (0.36, $p < .05$). However, this finding contradicted the hypothesized direction, not supporting hypothesis 2.

When it comes to the relationship between workplace humor and workplace aggression, affiliative humor was found to be significantly negatively related to both supervisor aggression (-0.41, $p < .05$) and coworker aggression (-0.46, $p < .05$), supporting hypothesis 3. In addition, aggressive humor was negatively associated with supervisor aggression (-0.27, $p < .05$) and coworker aggression (-0.21, $p < .05$), which again was the opposite of the hypothesized direction. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was not supported.

The results indicated that both supervisor support for fun (0.39, $p < .05$) and coworker socializing (0.23, $p < .05$) were positively associated with organizational JE controlling for the effect of community JE, supporting hypothesis 5 that workplace fun is positively related to organizational JE. However, supervisor aggression was not significantly related to organizational JE controlling for CJE (0.07, $p = .05$). Only coworker aggression was negatively associated with organizational JE controlling for the effect of community JE (-0.13, $p < .05$). Hence, hypothesis 6 was partially supported.

The results of SEM are shown in Figure 2, only significant relationships were drawn to make the results clear, where relationships that were statistically significant but were not supported are represented by dotted lines.

Table 4 Structural Model Results (N=540)

	Path	Coefficients	P	Results
H _{1a}	Affiliative Humor → Supervisor Support for Fun	.68	**	Supported
H _{1b}	Affiliative Humor → Coworker Socializing	.51	**	Supported
H _{2a}	Aggressive Humor → Supervisor Support for Fun	.31	**	Not Supported
H _{2b}	Aggressive Humor → Coworker Socializing	.36	**	Not Supported
H _{3a}	Affiliative Humor → Supervisor Aggression	-.41	**	Supported
H _{3b}	Affiliative Humor → Coworker Aggression	-.46	**	Supported
H _{4a}	Aggressive Humor → Supervisor Aggression	-.27	**	Not Supported
H _{4b}	Aggressive Humor → Coworker Aggression	-.21	**	Not Supported
H _{5a}	Supervisor Support for Fun → OJE	.39	**	Supported
H _{5b}	Coworker Socializing → OJE	.23	**	Supported
H _{6a}	Supervisor Aggression → OJE	.07	.05	Not Supported
H _{6b}	Coworker Aggression → OJE	-.13	**	Supported

Note: VIF values ranged from 1.22 to 2.47.

** $p < .001$

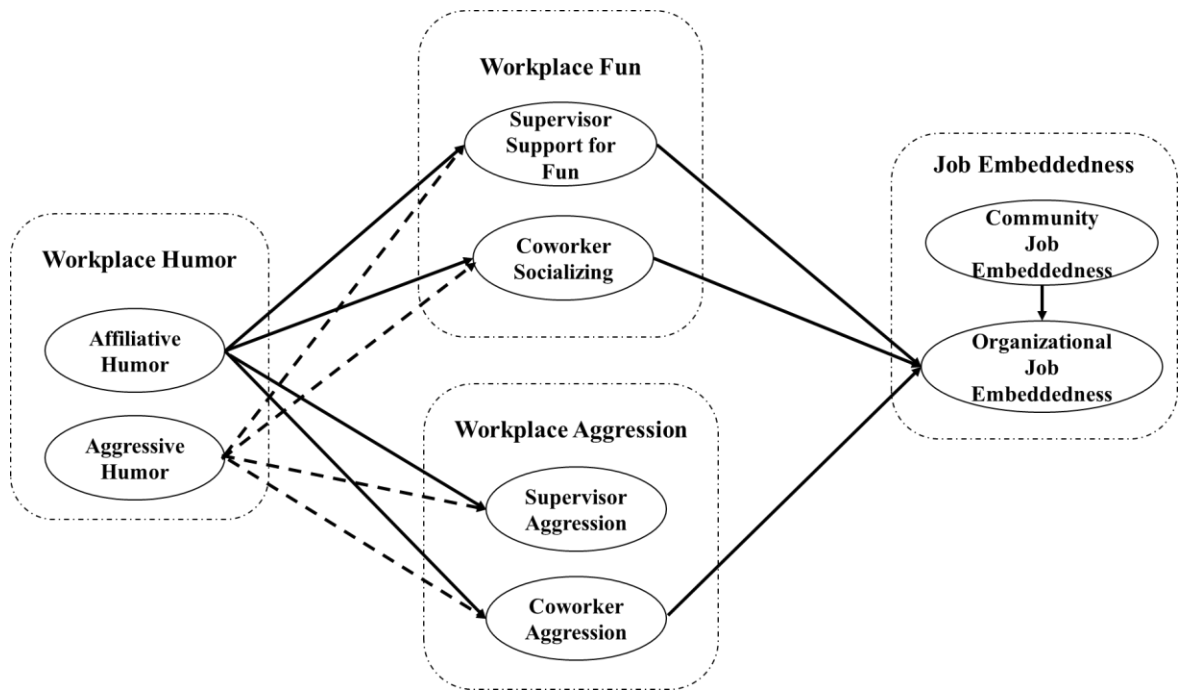


Figure 2 Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

Note: Only significant relationships were drawn, where relationships that were statistically significant but were not supported are denoted with dashed lines.

Differences in Workplace Humor, Fun, Aggression and JE between U.S. and Chinese Restaurant Employees

Prior to testing the moderating research hypotheses, the analysis investigated the mean differences of workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE between the U.S. and Chinese restaurant employees. As shown in Table 5, independent sample t-tests were conducted to examine significant differences in workplace humor, fun, aggression and JE between both groups. The results indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the U.S. and Chinese restaurant employees in all tested factors.

U.S. restaurant employees use significantly less affiliative humor ($t= 21.03, p < 0.05$) but more aggressive humor ($t= -12.53, p < 0.05$) than Chinese restaurant employees. In addition, Chinese restaurant employees perceive more supervisor support for fun ($t= 13.46, p < 0.05$) and coworker socializing ($t= 6.75, p < 0.05$) and a lesser extent of supervisor aggression ($t= -5.11, p < 0.05$) and coworker aggression ($t= -8.15, p < 0.05$) compared to the U.S. restaurant employees. Moreover, Chinese restaurant employees have a higher level of organizational job embeddedness than their U.S. counterparts ($t= 11.75, p < 0.05$).

Table 5 Mean Differences of Each Construct Between China and U.S. Restaurant Employees

	U.S. (n=274)		China (n=266)		<i>t</i>	95% CI
	M	SD	M	SD		
Affiliative Humor	3.03	1.69	5.56	1.01	21.03**	2.30, 2.77
Aggressive Humor	4.55	1.14	3.05	1.62	-12.53**	-1.74, -1.27
Supervisor Support for Fun	2.97	1.15	4.04	.62	13.46**	.92, 1.23
Coworker Socializing	3.77	.84	4.20	.62	6.75**	.31, .56
Supervisor Aggression	1.83	1.16	1.40	.74	-5.11**	-.59, -.26
Coworker Aggression	2.08	1.27	1.37	.65	-8.15**	-.88, -.54
Organizational Job Embeddedness	3.33	.85	4.06	.57	11.75**	.61, .85

**** $p < .001$**

Moderating Effect of National Culture

To identify the moderation effects of national culture on the relationship between workplace humor and workplace fun, workplace aggression as well as between workplace fun, workplace aggression and OJE, multi group analysis approach was employed through a structural model. A significant model comparison P value indicates there exists moderating effect of national culture.

As shown in Table 6, the moderating effect of national culture was confirmed in three groups of relationships: the relationships between aggressive humor and workplace fun, between affiliative humor and workplace aggression, and between workplace fun and OJE. As for the relationship between aggressive humor and workplace fun, aggressive humor was more positively associated with U.S. restaurant employees' perceived coworker socializing (0.73, $p < .05$) than their Chinese counterparts (0.33, $p < .05$). Aggressive humor was positively related to U.S. restaurant employees' perceived supervisor support for fun (0.43, $p < .05$). However, this relationship was not significant with Chinese employees (0.18, $p = 0.08$). In addition, affiliative humor was positively related to U.S. restaurant employees' perceived supervisor aggression (0.35, $p < .05$) and coworker aggression (0.47, $p < .05$), whereas, affiliative humor was negatively associated with Chinese restaurant employees' perceived supervisor aggression (-0.42, $p < .05$) and coworker aggression (-0.58, $p < .05$). Moreover, supervisor support for fun was more positively associated with Chinese restaurant employees' OJE (0.83, $p < .05$) than U.S. employees

(0.33, $p < .05$). Coworker socializing was positively related to U.S. employees' OJE (0.21, $p < .05$) but was not significantly associated with Chinese employees' OJE (-0.14, $p = .24$). Thus, hypotheses 8, 9, and 11 were supported by the results.

As for the relationship between affiliative humor and workplace fun, results indicated that affiliative humor was positively associated with both U.S. and Chinese restaurant employees' perceived supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing. However, the moderation effect of national culture was not significant (AH \rightarrow SSF: $p = 0.97$; AH \rightarrow CS: $p = 0.98$). Similarly, although aggressive humor was negatively related to both U.S. and Chinese restaurant employees' perceived supervisor aggression and coworker aggression, there was no significant moderating effect of the national culture (AGH \rightarrow SA: $p = 0.18$; AGH \rightarrow CA: $p = 0.88$). National culture did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between workplace aggression and OJE either (SA \rightarrow OJE: $p = 0.44$; CA \rightarrow OJE: $p = 0.19$). Supervisor aggression was not significantly associated with either U.S. or Chinese restaurant employees' OJE. As for the relationship between coworker aggression and OJE, perceived coworker aggression was negatively related to U.S. restaurant employees' OJE while this relationship was not significant with Chinese restaurant employees. Hence, hypotheses 7, 10 and 12 were not supported.

Table 6 Multigroup Analysis Results

Path	U.S. (n=274)		China (n=266)		Model Comparison P Value	Result
	Coefficients	P	Coefficients	P		
H _{7a} AH → SSF	.24	**	.94	**	.97	Not Supported
H _{7b} AH → CS	.19	*	.81	**	.98	Not Supported
H _{8a} AGH → SSF	.43	**	.18	.08	**	Supported
H _{8b} AGH → CS	.73	**	.33	**	*	Supported
H _{9a} AH → SA	.35	**	-.42	**	**	Supported
H _{9b} AH → CA	.47	**	-.58	**	**	Supported
H _{10a} AGH → SA	-.28	**	-.30	**	.18	Not Supported
H _{10b} AGH → CA	-.22	*	-.27	**	.88	Not Supported
H _{11a} SSF → OJE	.33	**	.83	**	**	Supported
H _{11b} CS → OJE	.21	**	-.14	.24	*	Supported
H _{12a} SA → OJE	.04	.47	.11	.07	.44	Not Supported
H _{12b} CA → OJE	-.16	*	.03	.69	.19	Not Supported

Note: AH-Affiliative humor; AGH-Aggressive humor; SSF-Supervisor support for fun; CS-Coworker socializing; SA-Supervisor aggression; CA- Coworker aggression; OJE-Organizational job embeddedness; CJE-Community job embeddedness.

** $p < .001$; * $p < .05$

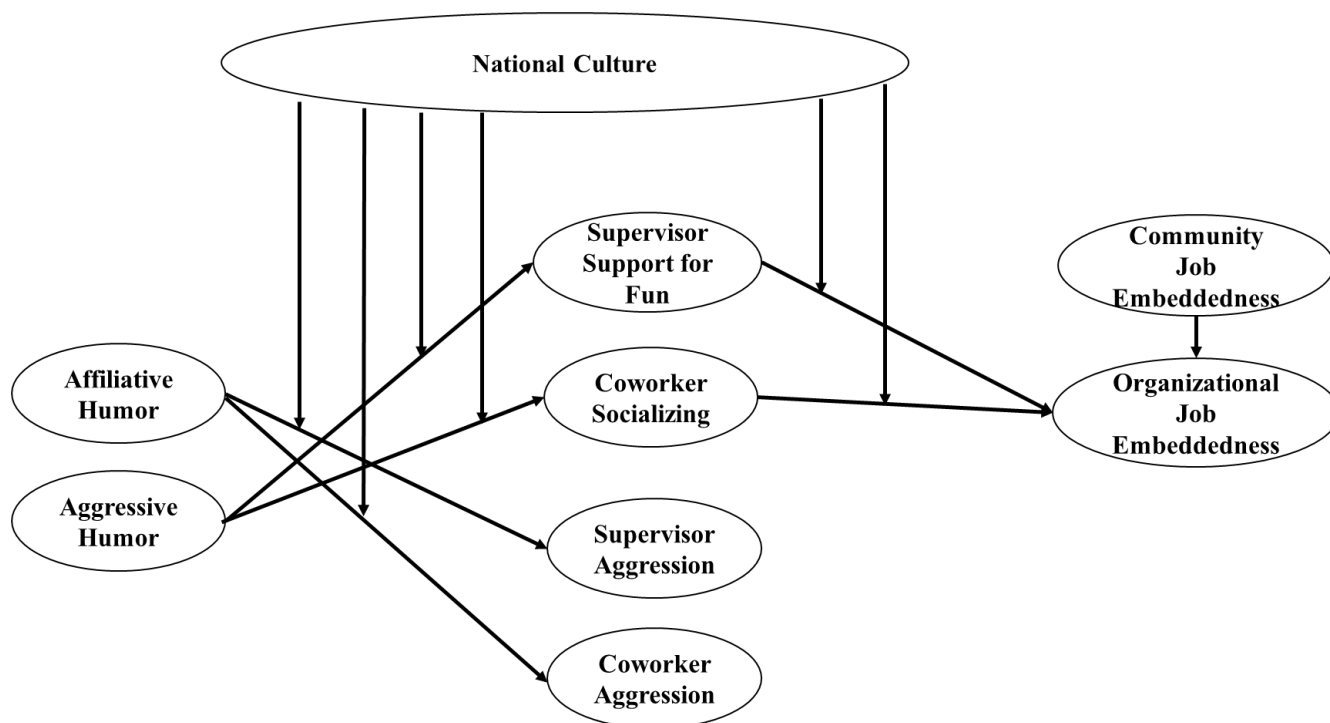


Figure 3 Moderating Effect of National Culture

Note: Only relationships that were supported were drawn.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The objective of the current study was to develop and test a conceptual model that seeks to advance understanding of hospitality employees' workplace humor styles, perceived workplace fun, workplace aggression and organizational JE. In addition, the research aimed to investigate national culture as a moderator in the relationships among the above mentioned four constructs. As a result, the study provides empirical evidence of the relationship among employees' use of workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and organizational JE for the hospitality industry. Implications for human resource management in the hospitality industry, especially those operating internationally, are suggested.

Relationships among Workplace Humor, Workplace Fun, Workplace Aggression and Organizational JE

The results indicated that hospitality employees' use of workplace humor, both affiliative humor and aggressive humor, is positively associated with their perceived workplace fun (both supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing), and is negatively related to perceived workplace aggression (both perceived supervisor aggression and perceived coworker aggression).

Hospitality employees' use of affiliative humor at workplace is positively associated with their perception of supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing, which is consistent with

previous research findings that using affiliative humor at work can bring people together and promote team cohesion (Holmes, 2006; Martin et al., 2003). In addition, previous research showed that affiliative humor can evoke positive emotions shared among coworkers which contributes to positive affect that can improve coworker relationships (Gully et al., 1995; Mullen & Copper, 1994). Hospitality employees interact with their coworkers and supervisors on a daily basis, the use of affiliative humor by sharing jokes, funny stories and other forms of humor can bring group members close to each other, therefore receiving more support for fun from the supervisor and interact more frequently with coworkers. At the same time, the positive affect evoked by the affiliative humor maybe contribute to the hospitality employees' perceived fun at workplace, as suggested by McDowell (2005) that positive affect should be positively associated with workplace fun. Hence, the more affiliative humor the employee use at workplace, the more workplace fun they tend to perceive from both their supervisor and their coworkers.

Instead of a negative relationship, hospitality employees' use of aggressive humor at workplace is also positively related to their perceived supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing, which is contradicted to Romero and Arendt's (2011) finding that aggressive humor associated negatively with satisfaction with coworkers and team cooperation. However, this result echoes with Dews et al.'s (1995) finding that ironic criticism was perceived as funnier and less insulting and had a less damaging influence on the presenter-recipient relationship. In this current study, hospitality employees might perceive aggressive humor, which using sarcasm or irony, as a way to show that they consider their coworkers as part of the group. The recipient of the aggressive

humor at workplace, which includes the humor presenter's coworkers and supervisors, also may take the aggressive humor as a sign that they were considered as a group member. As explained by Terrion and Ashforth (2002), the use of negative put-down humor (aggressive humor), can help foster a sense of identity and community. Therefore, hospitality employees' use of aggressive humor at workplace was perceived as acceptable by members of their working group, which can have positive effect on team cohesiveness, contributing to their perception of workplace fun from both supervisor and coworker sides. The result is again aligned with previous research findings from the main stream (Martineau, 1972; Robert & Wilbanks, 2012; Scogin & Pollio, 1980).

As for the relationship between hospitality employees' workplace humor and perceive workplace aggression, the use of affiliative humor at workplace is negatively related to hospitality employees' perceived workplace aggression, which may be explained by the fact that affiliative humor can help reduce interpersonal tensions (Fine & Soucey, 2005; Martin et al., 2003). The use of jokes, funny stories and other forms of humor can help bring the employee close to his/her coworkers and supervisors (Martin et al., 2003), which reduces the tendency of aggression targeting at the specific employee at workplace. Moreover, affiliative humor can function as a social lubricant in interpersonal relationships (Morreall, 1991), which can help ease the tension at workplace and reduce the aggressive behavior at work. In addition, the use of affiliative humor evokes the positive affect of the employee, where they tend to see the positive side of life and ignore the negative experience at work or mask the unpleasant messages (Holmes, 2000). Therefore, hospitality employees who use affiliative humor at work tend to perceive less

aggression from both their supervisors and coworkers.

Aggressive humor at workplace is negatively associated with hospitality employees' perceived workplace aggression, which is contradicted with previous finding that employees' aggressive humor could result in hostility and anger (Martin et al., 2003). This may be explained the same way as how aggressive humor is positively related to hospitality employees' perceived workplace fun. The recipient of the aggressive humor may take it as an indication that they are considered as part of the work group and may not perceive this type of humor as offensive. Other members in the work group, for example, the coworkers and supervisors, would develop a sense of identity and community through the employees' use of aggressive humor (Terrion & Ashforth, 2002). In addition, the coworkers and supervisors would perceive the aggressive humor as acceptable instead of hostile, which evokes their positive affect and therefore, the use of aggressive humor at workplace would not cause hostility or workplace aggression. Instead, the frequency of aggressive behavior targeting at the user of aggressive humor might be reduced. Hence, the employee who uses aggressive humor at workplace tend to perceive less workplace aggression from both the supervisor and coworkers.

Both types of workplace fun (supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing) are positively associated with hospitality employees' organizational JE, which is consistent with the proposition proposed by the social exchange theory. The more fun at work from supervisor's support and coworkers' socializing, the hospitality employee tends to perceive the benefit outweighs the cost of the relationship with the organization, resulting in more embedded

employees to the hospitality organization. In addition, socializing with coworkers at work helps hospitality employees develop friendship among each other and provides a source of social contact and support, which is especially important for employees in the hospitality industry (Tews et al., 2014). The close relationship with coworkers makes the employee feel linked to their current hospitality organization and perceive more sacrifice if leaving the current job, indicating a higher level of organizational JE. At the same time, the supervisor, as the representation of the hospitality organization, supporting employees having fun at work helps enhance the employee's perception of organizational fit and also makes employees feel more linked to their supervisors, resulting in highly embedded hospitality employees.

Perceived coworker aggression is found to be negatively related to hospitality employees' organizational JE while perception of supervisor aggression was not significantly associated with employees' organizational JE. According to the social exchange theory, when hospitality employees experience aggressive behaviors from coworkers, they tend to perceive the cost of continuing such a relationship with the current organization outweighs the benefit, resulting in lowered organizational JE. This finding is consistent with previous studies that targets of workplace aggression tend to report higher intentions to leave the organization (Cortina et al., 2001; Tepper, 2000). However, the same logic does not hold for the perception of supervisor aggression. It might be because hospitality employees spend most of their time at work interacting with their coworkers rather than supervisors. Therefore, compared to supervisors, the working group that the hospitality employee belongs to is a better representation of the organization. The negative

relationship with supervisor cannot affect their perception of fit or link to their current organization as long as they get along with their coworkers and are considered as members of the working group by their colleagues. Another possible explanation might be that when an employee experience supervisor aggression, his/her coworker can be there to support him/her emotionally, which can enhance the employees sense of community and identity. On the contrary, dealing with an aggressive coworker usually was perceived as employees' own business and resulted in the sense of unfairness and isolation (Merecz et al., 2009). When a hospitality employee is isolated by the working group or experience aggression from coworkers, he/she will perceive lower level of link and fit to the organization and less sacrifice for leaving the organization, leading to a lower level of organizational JE.

Moderating Effect of National Culture

The moderating role of national culture was confirmed in the relationships between aggressive humor and perceived workplace fun, between affiliative humor and perceived workplace aggression, and between workplace fun and organizational JE.

National culture moderates the relationship between hospitality employees' use of aggressive humor and their perception of coworker socializing. More specifically, when U.S. hospitality employees use aggressive humor at workplace, they tend to perceive higher level of coworker socializing when compared to their Chinese counterparts. As articulated before, the use of aggressive humor at workplace is positively associated with perception of coworker socializing since employees tend to consider themselves as part of the working group and develop senses of

identity and community through aggressive humor (Terrion & Ashforth, 2002). Based on the finding, U.S. hospitality employees use significantly more aggressive humor than Chinese hospitality employees, indicating that U.S. culture is relatively more acceptable for the use of aggressive humor. Another possible reason might be that U.S. as an individualist culture, employees are more sensitive to the signals of being identified as a group member at work, which tend to reciprocate with friendship with coworkers. This results in that U.S. hospitality employees with aggressive humor tend to perceive better relationship with their coworkers than their Chinese counterparts with a collectivist culture, who are used to being part of the working group.

National culture plays a moderating role on the relationship between aggressive humor at workplace and hospitality employees' perceived supervisor support for fun. Aggressive humor was positively related to U.S. hospitality employees' perception of supervisor support for fun but this relationship was not significant with Chinese employees. This can be explained by difference between China and U.S. in the power distance cultural dimension. U.S. scored much lower than China in the power distance dimension (Hofstede, 1980), indicating that U.S. hospitality employees strive to equalize the distribution of power while Chinese hospitality employees accept a hierarchical order within the organization. Therefore, U.S. hospitality employees tend to consider their supervisors as equal as themselves and can use aggressive humor during the interaction with their supervisors. While on the other side, the high power distance hinders Chinese hospitality employees use aggressive humor on their supervisors since this would be interpreted as a sign of lack of respect to someone who is at a higher position. Similarly, U.S. hospitality supervisors might

accept employees use of aggressive humor and consider it as a sign of being part of the working group, which would enhance their level of support for employees having fun at the workplace. As for Chinese hospitality supervisors, the high power distance might have an impact on their perception of employees' use of aggressive humor and interpret it in a less positive way and sometimes may even feel offended by the employees' aggressive humor, leading to lower level of support for fun for that specific employee.

This moderating effect also exists on the relationship between employees' affiliative humor and their perception of workplace aggression (both supervisor aggression and coworker aggression). When Chinese hospitality employees use affiliative humor at workplace, they tend to perceive less workplace aggression from both their supervisors and coworkers. However, when U.S. hospitality employees use affiliative humor at work, their perception of workplace aggression will increase. The negative relationship between Chinese hospitality employees' affiliative humor and perceived workplace aggression is consistent with previous research finding that affiliative humor functions as a social lubricant at workplace (Morreall, 1991) and can help reduce interpersonal tensions (Fine & Soucey, 2005; Martin et al., 2003). It also echoes with Holmes' (2000) finding that affiliative humor can evoke the positive affect of the employee, which leads them to ignore the negative experience at work, such as workplace aggression, or mask the unpleasant messages. As for the positive relationship between U.S. hospitality employees' affiliative humor and their perceived workplace aggression, it might be understood in the following ways. First of all, results indicated that U.S. hospitality employees use significantly less affiliative

humor than Chinese employees given the fact that U.S. has the individualist culture while Chinese culture is collectivist. Chinese hospitality employees use affiliative humors more often than the aggressive humor while it is the opposite with the U.S. hospitality employees. The results showed that Chinese employees tend to be more comfortable to share their humor or funny stories to people at work to bring their coworkers or supervisors closer. Secondly, results also showed that U.S. hospitality employees perceive higher level of both types of workplace aggression than their Chinese counterparts. This might be because that U.S. hospitality employees are more sensitive to aggressive behaviors at work since they are individual oriented rather than organization oriented. Therefore, even slight aggressive behavior from their coworkers or supervisors might be perceived as unacceptable by the U.S. hospitality employees. In addition, as the fact that ingroups are important to collectivists (Robert & Yan, 2007), Chinese hospitality employees would care more about their group cohesiveness. Using affiliative humor can enhance the group cohesiveness and evoke the positive affect, resulting in lower level of perceived workplace aggression. However, U.S. as an individualist culture, employees are loosely connected to groups and tend to view relationships as less important. The use of affiliative humor is not as popular and also does not function as effective as in the collectivist culture. This indicates that the use of affiliative humor in an individualist culture such as the U.S. does not necessarily bring employees together to form a working group, sometime can even get the employee isolated from the group since people tend to use more aggressive humor than affiliative humor. Therefore, the more affiliative humor is being used at workplace in the U.S. hospitality organizations, the more aggression the employee tends

to experience at workplace.

When Chinese hospitality employees perceive supervisor support for fun, they tend to exhibit higher level of organizational JE when compared to their U.S. counterparts. Hospitality employees in both China and the U.S. tend to be more embedded to their organization if they perceive supervisor support for fun at work, which is consistent with the social exchange theory that the more benefit employees perceive of their relationship with the current organization, the more positive attitude and behavior they tend to reciprocate. The difference in the strength of this relationship is because of the national cultural difference between China and the U.S. Chinese hospitality employees tend to respect their supervisors more since it is a culture high in power distance (Kernan et al., 2011). In such organizations, supervisors and employees have different hierarchy where it is common for supervisors to be strict to employees and maintain a distance from their employees. This power distance is also considered as a social norm by employees to the extent that sometimes even aggression from supervisors can be expected and attributed to the position instead of the supervisor him/herself (Kernan et al., 2011). Therefore, it is understandable that Chinese hospitality employees are more sensitive to changes in the support for fun at workplace by their supervisors given they would not expect their supervisors to be supportive for fun. On the other hand, the U.S. culture is low in power distance, supervisors and employees tend to maintain an equal relationship at work. Employees are used to joke around with their supervisors at workplace. Hence, the U.S. hospitality employees would not perceive too much changes in their relationship with the organization if their supervisors are supportive of having fun at workplace.

In addition, national culture also moderates the relationship between hospitality employees' perceived coworker socializing and their organizational JE. When U.S. hospitality employees perceive their coworkers being social, their level of organizational JE will increase. This finding confirms the social exchange theory that the more positive employees perceive their relationship with their coworkers, which is a representation of their organization, the more positive his/her attitude and behavior will be. As mentioned by Tews et al. (2014) that socializing with coworkers at workplace helps hospitality employees develop friendship among each other and provides a source of social contact and support, which is especially important for employees in the hospitality industry and make the employees more embedded to their current organization. However, the same relationship was not significant for Chinese hospitality employees. This national difference might be explained by the fact that U.S. culture is high in individualism, where employees are loosely connected to groups, and tend to view relationships in terms of exchanges (Robert & Yan, 2007). Employees from individualist culture do not expect their coworkers to be social and supportive at workplace. Thus, having coworkers who are social at work would lead the U.S. hospitality employees to perceive a higher level of link and fit to their organization, indicating a higher level of organizational JE. On the contrary, China as a culture high in collectivism, employees are integrated to groups and the interpersonal cohesiveness is very much valued (Hofstede, 1980). Chinese hospitality employees expect their coworkers to be supportive and social at work since the culture norm decides that the group goal take precedence over their individual goals (Robert & Yan, 2007). Hence, having coworkers who are social at workplace does not necessarily influence

Chinese hospitality employees' embeddedness to the organization.

Moreover, results indicated that national culture does not moderate the relationships between affiliative humor and perceived workplace fun, between aggressive humor and perceived workplace aggression, and between workplace aggression and organizational JE.

As for the relationship between affiliative humor and workplace fun, results indicated that for both Chinese and U.S. hospitality employees, the more affiliative humor they use at work, the more supervisor support for fun and coworker socializing they tend to perceive. However, the moderation effect of national culture was not significant. Similarly, although for both China and the U.S., the more aggressive humor hospitality employees use at workplace, the less supervisor aggression and coworker aggression they tend to perceive, there was no significant moderating effect of the national culture. The results demonstrated that regardless of culture difference, both U.S. and Chinese hospitality employees' use of affiliative humor enhances their group cohesiveness and evoke positive effect, resulting in higher level of perceived workplace fun. In addition, hospitality employees' use of aggressive humor at workplace enhances the sense of community and identity, which leads to a reduced level of perceived workplace aggression for both Chinese and U.S. hospitality employees.

National culture did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between workplace aggression and organizational JE either. The supervisor aggression was not significantly associated with either U.S. or Chinese hospitality employees' organizational JE, which as stated before, might be justified by the fact that when an employee experience supervisor aggression,

his/her coworkers can be there to support him/her emotionally, which can enhance the employees sense of community and identity. Therefore, the increased supervisor aggression at workplace does not always result in reduced organizational JE, which holds true for both Chinese and U.S. hospitality employees.

As for the relationship between coworker aggression and organizational JE, though national culture did not play a moderating role, perceived coworker aggression was negatively related to U.S. hospitality employees' organizational JE while this relationship was not significant with Chinese hospitality employees. Although not significant, the difference in the finding can be explained by national culture difference between China and the U.S. As a culture high in individualism, U.S. hospitality employees care more about their own individual goals more than the organization goal. Hence, U.S. hospitality employees have lower tolerance for coworker aggression and will exhibit lower level of organizational JE after being a target of workplace aggression. On the other hand, China as a culture high in collectivism, its hospitality employees value the organizational goal more than their personal goal (Robert & Yan, 2007). Even though the employee might be the target of coworker aggression, their organizational JE will not be influenced too much if they still perceive there is a good fit between them and the hospitality organization they are working for.

Theoretical Implications

The present study contributes to the current understanding of workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression, and job embeddedness in the following ways. First, the current study

examined the work outcomes of individual hospitality employees' use of both affiliative humor and aggressive humor at workplace. Different from the traditional belief that the use of aggressive humor should be discouraged at workplace, the study found that both affiliative humor and aggressive humor are positively associated with workplace fun and negatively related to workplace aggression, which enriches the findings in workplace humor literature and fills the gap in the negative workplace humor style studies (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). Second, the study investigated workplace fun and workplace aggression from a multi foci perspective with a focus in the hospitality industry. Particularly, studying the antecedents and outcomes of workplace aggression from the target's perspective instead of the perpetrators' perspective contributes to the enrichment of limited current body of literature. Third, the study utilizes the social exchange theory and applies it to the context of hospitality industry and identified two types of workplace aggression, which are supervisor aggression and coworker aggression, as factors that reduce employees' organizational JE. In addition, the research is among the first few studies employing the cultural dimension theory to explore the moderating role of national culture in the relationships between workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE, which adds to the application of the cultural dimension theory and the cross-national literature. Moreover, it also adds to the limited studies of workplace humor, workplace fun, workplace aggression and JE in non-Western cultures such as China.

Practical Implications

The findings provide significant insights to hospitality human resource managers about

how the individual employee's use of humor can influence his/her perception of workplace fun and aggression. In addition, this research provides implications to enhance employees' organizational JE for international hospitality companies operating in both China and the U.S.

Based on the findings of this study, several recommendations were made to the hospitality industry to improve the workplace humor. Hospitality managers and practitioners should encourage their employees use humor at workplace since the results indicate that both affiliative humor and aggressive humor are positively associated with hospitality employees' perception of workplace fun and negatively related to their perception of aggression. Based on the notion that an employee's workplace humor style is open to develop and change, hospitality human resource managers can design practices to capitalize on employees' humor styles. For example, seminars can be developed for every employee in the organization to teach them how to use workplace humor effectively. The managers can encourage their employees share jokes or funny stories with each other since these are commonly used humor delivery skills that are proved to be effective.

In addition, the findings of this research suggest international hospitality organizations should take different human resource practices when it comes to employees' use of humor at work. Based on the results, Chinese employees may be instructed to use more affiliative humor than aggressive humor since it can help them perceive more fun and less aggression at work. On the contrary, the U.S. hospitality employees can be encouraged to use more aggressive humor at workplace since this type of humor is more successful when it comes to reinforce employees' perception of workplace fun and reduce the perceived workplace aggression. At the same time,

hospitality managers can train their employees how to match their use of humor to expected work outcomes. For instance, U.S. hospitality employees should avoid using too much affiliative humor if they want to reduce their perception of workplace aggression. Instead, they may try to use more aggressive humor such as sarcasm and irony to experience more fun and less aggression at work. As for Chinese employees, if they want to perceive more fun at work, it is suggested to use more jokes, humor and funny stories instead of aggressive humor. Both affiliative and aggressive humor can help reduce their perception of workplace aggression. The research findings also provide implications for hiring practices in international hospitality organizations. Human resource managers may take potential candidates' workplace humor style into consideration when it comes to selecting and hiring. For instance, hospitality organizations can have all candidates taken online survey that includes questions of workplace humor styles and make hiring decisions based on the fit between the results and the organizational culture.

Hospitality human resource managers can also encourage their supervisors and managers to be more supportive of employees having fun on the job. For example, supervisors can randomly assign their newly hired employees having lunch or dinner outside with old employees paid by the organization. In this way, the progress of new employees getting to know the working group can be facilitated and at the same time employees can perceive supervisors support for fun at workplace. However, the HR should also help the supervisors and managers develop the skill of balancing support for employees' fun and performance since sometimes too much fun at work may hinder the productivity of employees. Therefore, activities such as productivity competition may be

advocated since it can help hospitality employees achieve the performance goal and at the same time maintain a fun working environment.

Training seminars to help employees develop social skills may also be provided by hospitality human resource managers. Hospitality employees can be trained to use humor or funny stories to break the ice at meetings and daily interactions with their coworkers. In addition, hospitality human resource managers can organize social activities such as birthday celebration, work anniversary, sports teams and also picnics to bring employees close and enhance the team cohesiveness. Team building activity opportunities may also be provided to hospitality employees to reinforce their relationships with each other and form a sense of community and belonging. Employees can also be trained to sing a song or dance a dance together as a team while at work, which allows them to socialize and have fun and at the same can impress the customers with an innovative of delivering service. Furthermore, when human resource managers make the hiring decision, they can recruit employees who are more outgoing and social. In this way, the hired hospitality employees tend to socialize with each other at work and they automatically will perceive more fun. As for hospitality businesses operate both in China and the U.S., the managers should pay more attention to the team cohesiveness among U.S. hospitality employees since the more they perceive coworkers as being social at workplace, they higher level of organizational JE they will exhibit.

Managers in hospitality organizations should also keep an eye on aggressive behaviors at work, especially aggression targeting coworkers, since it can reduce employees' organizational JE.

First, the managers and supervisors should make it clear to all hospitality employees that aggressive behavior will not be tolerated at workplace. Policies or practices aiming to reduce aggression can be implemented. For example, the employee who is caught to be aggressive toward his/her coworkers/subordinates will be verbally warned or even will get a low performance appraisal score depending on the degree of the aggression. Second, the hospitality organization should provide a friendly working environment where aggression toward coworkers/ subordinates will be reduced. The organization should encourage employees to speak up their experience as the target of aggression, particularly coworker aggression, so the behavior of the perpetrator can get attention from the organization and will be terminated. Moreover, effective human resource practices to reduce coworker aggression is especially important for hospitality businesses in the U.S. as the perceived coworker aggressive behavior is shown to make employees less embedded to their organization. Therefore, international hospitality companies need to take more practices targeting coworker aggression among U.S. employees when compared to Chinese employees. For example, managers can make the working schedule more flexible and having programs supporting work-family balance for U.S. employees to reduce their work stress which will further reduce the chance of aggressive behavior towards their coworkers. In addition, hospitality managers can hire counselling psychologists to encourage U.S. employees participate in free consulting. Both the target and the perpetrator of aggressive behavior can seek help from the consulting or assistance program. Showing care and support to employees who are targets of coworker aggression will help reduce their perception of the aggressive behavior and enhance their organizational JE. Paying

attention to employees who are under stress or have negative affect can prevent coworker aggression from taking place.

Moreover, hospitality organizations should try to build a fun and humorous organizational culture. Hospitality organizations in both U.S. and China can integrate fun and humor into the organization's mission and value statements so that the everyone who is working for the organization will be influenced by the culture in order to achieve a good fit. Under such an organizational culture, both supervisors/managers and employees will be comfortable of using appropriate humor at workplace, which help bring everyone together and enhance the group cohesiveness and reduce the friction at work. Supervisors/managers will be supportive for employees having fun at work and their use of humor will motivate their subordinates to be social as well. In addition, humor and fun can be integrated into daily work and social activities.

Limitations and Future Research

This study utilized a self-report survey asking participants to rate their workplace humor style, JE, and their perception of workplace fun and workplace aggression. Social desirability bias might be an issue that prevents participants from being honest with their responses. Secondly, we asked participants to think about their experience at workplace for the past 12 months. There might be a situation where participants could not accurately remember their overall experience. In addition, we used the crowd-sourcing platform Amazon MTurk to collect the U.S. hospitality employee sample, the limitations of crowd-sourcing platform such as lack of control, deceptive responses, rushed responses, etc., might have influenced the result of the study to a certain extent.

However, necessary precautions such as using filter questions to catch inattentive and rushed responses and monitoring the time participants take to fill out the items were undertaken to minimize such errors. As for the Chinese sample, only one restaurant chain participated in the current study, which might limit the generalizability of the results for the Chinese hospitality industry. Moreover, the study only involved restaurant employees in both countries, future study using employees from other sectors of the hospitality industry is also needed. Lastly, it is hard to decide the direction of the casual relationships given the study is cross-sectional in nature.

Future research can adopt a mixed-method approach to interview some of the participants in order to better understand the unexpected results such as the positive outcomes caused by the use of aggressive humor at workplace. In addition, given the above-mentioned limitations, future researchers can employ employees from other sectors of the hospitality industry as participants to validate the relationships. The moderating role of generation and gender on the proposed research model can also be investigated. More variables that measure organizational behavior can be integrated in to the current research model, for example, organizational citizenship behavior and job crafting behavior. Moreover, future researchers can expand the current research into more countries to validate the research findings.

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APPENDIX 1
English Version Questionnaire

Are you a restaurant employee?

- Yes No

Have you been working in the current restaurant for at least 12 months?

- Yes No

What is your employment status?

- Part-time (including internship, contract workers, contingent workers, etc.)
- Full-time

What is your current job position?

- Manager Supervisor
- Entry-level employee Other, please specify _____

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements in your workplace.

1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: somewhat disagree, 4: neither agree nor disagree, 5: somewhat agree, 6: agree, 7: strongly agree

(1) I don't have to work very hard at making my colleagues laugh - I seem to be a naturally

humorous person

- (2) I enjoy making my colleagues laugh
- (3) I usually think of witty things to say when I'm with my colleagues
- (4) If someone makes a mistake at work, I will often tease them about it
- (5) If I don't like someone at work, I often use humor or teasing to put them down
- (6) If something is really funny to me at work, I will laugh or joke about it even if someone will be offended
- (7) If I am feeling depressed at work, I can usually cheer myself up with humor
- (8) If I am feeling upset or unhappy at work, I usually try to think of something funny about the situation to make myself feel better
- (9) If I'm at work and I'm feeling unhappy, I make an effort to think of something funny to cheer myself up
- (10) I will often get carried away in putting myself down if it makes my colleagues laugh
- (11) I often try to make my colleagues like or accept me more by saying something funny about my own weaknesses, blunders, or faults
- (12) Letting others laugh at me is my way of keeping my colleagues in good spirits.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neither agree nor disagree, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree

- (1) My supervisors care about employees having fun on the job

- (2) My supervisors allow employees to play around on the job
- (3) My supervisors encourage employees to have fun on the job
- (4) My supervisors emphasize employee fun in the workplace
- (5) My supervisors try to make my work fun
- (6) My coworkers and I socialize at work
- (7) My coworkers and I socialize outside of work
- (8) My coworkers and I joke around with each other
- (9) My coworkers and I share stories with each other

How often have you been subjected to this behavior in your workplace over the past 12 months?

1: never, 2: once or twice, 3: a few times, 4: once every two months, 5: monthly, 6: weekly, 7: daily

- (1) Been yelled or sworn at by your supervisors
- (2) Been insulted or made fun of by your supervisors
- (3) Been threatened verbally or in a written message or note (including e-mail) by your supervisors
- (4) Received a threatening phone call from your supervisors
- (5) Been yelled or sworn at by your coworkers
- (6) Been insulted or made fun of by your coworkers
- (7) Been threatened verbally or in a written message or note (including e-mail) by your

coworkers

(8) Received a threatening phone call from your coworkers

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neither agree nor disagree, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree

(1) My job utilizes my skills and talents well

(2) I feel like I am a good match for my restaurant

(3) I believe the prospects for continuing employment with my restaurant are excellent

(4) If I stay with my restaurant, I will be able to achieve most of my goals

(5) I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job

(6) I have a lot of freedom on this job to pursue my goals

(7) I work closely with my co-workers

(8) I am a member of an effective work group

(9) On the job, I interact frequently with my work group members

(10) The place where I live is a good match for me

(11) I really love the place where I live

(12) The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like

(13) Leaving the community where I live would be very hard

(14) If I were to leave the area where I live, I would miss my neighborhood

(15) If I were to leave the community, I would miss my non-work friends

(16) I participate in cultural and recreational activities in my local area

(17) I am active in one or more community organizations

(18) My family roots are in this community

*Please complete the following **Demographic Information**:*

1. What is your gender?

- Male Female

2. What is your ethnicity?

- Caucasian African American Hispanic/Latino
 Asian or Pacific Islander Other, please specify _____

3. Which year were you born? _____

4. What is the highest level of education you obtained?

- High school or less Diploma/Associate Degree
 Bachelor's Degree Graduate Degree
 Other, please specify _____

5. What is your marital status?

- Single Married Widowed
 Divorced/Separated Other

6. How many children are living in your home?

- 0 1 2 3 4 or more

7. Which of the following can best describe the type of the restaurant that you are currently working at?

- Fine Dining (e.g. Morton's, Ruth's Chris)
- Moderate/ Theme (e.g. P.F. Chang's, Benihana)
- Casual Dining (e.g. Red Lobster, Chili's)
- Fast Casual (e.g. Panera Bread, Chipotle)
- Quick Service Restaurant (e.g. McDonald's, Burger king)

8. Are you working at a chain restaurant or an independent restaurant?

- Chain Restaurant
- Independent Restaurant

9. What is your current work position? (e.g. host/hostess, server, cashier, bartender, line cook, chef, dishwasher, etc.) _____

10. How long have you worked at the current restaurant _____ Years _____ Months

11. How long have you worked in the restaurant industry _____ Years _____ Months

12. Which state do you live in? _____

APPENDIX 2
Chinese Version Questionnaire

您是餐饮业员工吗？

- 是 否

您在当前餐厅工作是否已满 12 个月？

- 是 否

您当前的这份餐饮业工作是_____？

- 兼职（包括实习生、合同工、临时工等）
 全职

您当前的工作职位是什么？

- 经理 主管
 普通员工 其他, 请注明 _____

请根据实际情况就下列有关工作场合的叙述给予评价

1: 非常反对, 2: 反对, 3: 有些反对, 4: 不确定, 5: 有些同意, 6: 同意, 7: 非常同意

(1) 我不需要太努力就可以博得同事们开怀一笑——我似乎就是个天生幽默的人

(2) 我享受逗我的同事们笑

- (3) 和同事们相处时，我通常会讲一些俏皮话
- (4) 如果有人在工作时犯错误，我通常会拿这件事取笑他
- (5) 如果我不喜欢某位同事，我通常会用幽默或嘲笑的方式来让他们出丑
- (6) 如果工作中遇到对我来说特别有趣的事情，我会笑出来或者拿这件事开玩笑，即便这会冒犯别人
- (7) 如果工作时感到沮丧，我通常可以用幽默使自己振作起来
- (8) 如果工作时感到气馁或不开心，我通常会联想一些与当时情境有关的趣事来让自己高兴起来
- (9) 如果工作时感到不开心，我会努力想一些有趣的事情使自己振作起来
- (10) 我通常在自嘲时忘乎所以，如果这样可以逗同事笑
- (11) 我总是讲一些关于自身弱点、失误或者过错的趣事来使我的同事们更喜欢或更接受我
- (12) 让他人嘲笑我，是我让同事们保持精神抖擞的方式

请根据实际情况就下列叙述给予评价

1: 非常反对, 2: 反对, 3: 不确定, 4: 同意, 5: 非常同意

- (1) 我的主管关心员工的职场乐趣
- (2) 我的主管允许员工在工作时玩乐
- (3) 我的主管鼓励员工在工作时享受乐趣
- (4) 我的主管重视员工在工作时的乐趣

(5) 我的主管尝试着使我的工作变得有趣

(6) 我同事和我会上班时交际

(7) 我同事和我会下班后交际

(8) 我同事和我会互相开玩笑

(9) 我同事和我会互相分享故事

请根据过去 12 个月的实际情况，选择以下各项行为在工作场所发生在您身上的频率

1: 从来没有, 2: 一两次, 3: 几次, 4: 每两个月一次, 5: 每个月一次, 6: 每周一次,

7: 每天一次

(1) 您被主管吼叫或咒骂

(2) 您被主管侮辱或嘲弄

(3) 您被主管以口头或书面形式（包括电子邮件）威胁

(4) 接到过主管打来的恐吓电话

(5) 您被同事吼叫或咒骂

(6) 您被同事侮辱或嘲弄

(7) 您被同事以口头或书面形式（包括电子邮件）威胁

(8) 接到过同事打来的恐吓电话

请根据实际情况就下列叙述给予评价

1: 非常反对, 2: 反对, 3: 不确定, 4: 同意, 5: 非常同意

- (1) 我的工作可以很好的施展我的技能和才华
- (2) 我感觉我工作的餐厅很适合我
- (3) 我坚信继续在我们餐厅工作会有美好的前景
- (4) 如果我留在我们餐厅继续工作，我将可以实现自己大多数的目标
- (5) 辞去这份工作，我将会牺牲掉很多
- (6) 这份工作给了我许多自由去追寻自己的目标
- (7) 我与同事密切合作
- (8) 我是工作效率很高的团队的一员
- (9) 上班时，我经常与工作团队的成员互动
- (10) 我现在居住的地方很适合我
- (11) 我很喜爱我现在居住的地方
- (12) 我可以现在居住的地方进行喜欢的休闲活动
- (13) 我很难离开我现在居住的社区
- (14) 如果我要离开我现在居住的那片区域，我会想念那里
- (15) 如果我要离开我现在居住的社区，我会想念我工作之外的朋友们
- (16) 我参与我们当地的文化及娱乐活动
- (17) 我在一个或多个社区组织中都很活跃
- (18) 我们家世代居住在这片区域

请回答下列问题:

1. 您的性别?

- 男 女

2. 您的出生年份? _____

3. 您的最高学历是?

- 高中及以下 专科
 本科 研究生及以上
 其他, 请注明 _____

4. 您的婚姻状况是?

- 单身 已婚 丧偶
 离异/分居 其他

5. 您家中孩子的数量是?

- 0 个 1 个 2 个 3 个 4 个及以上

6. 以下哪项可以最恰当的描述您目前工作的餐厅的类型?

- 正餐餐厅 (例如, 俏江南, 海底捞, 西堤牛排等)
 简餐餐厅 (例如, 土大力, 必胜客, 味千拉面等)
 快餐餐厅 (例如, 真功夫, 永和豆浆, 麦当劳, 肯德基等)
 休闲饮品餐厅 (例如, 上岛咖啡, 星巴克, 水果捞, 85 度 C 等)
 其他 _____

7. 您所在的餐厅是连锁品牌餐厅吗？（例如，海底捞，外婆家，必胜客，肯德基等）

是

否

8. 您当前的工作岗位是？（例如，领位员，服务员，收银员，酒吧员，传菜员，厨师，洗碗工等）_____

9. 您已经在当前餐厅工作了 _____ 年 _____ 月

10. 您已经在餐饮业工作了 _____ 年 _____ 月

11. 您当前所在省份是？ _____