Effect of job insecurity on frontline employee's performance:
Looking through the lens of psychological strains and leverages

Mahlagha Darvishmotevali

Submitted to the
Tourism Management Department
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Tourism Management

Eastern Mediterranean University
September 2016
Gazimağusa, North Cyprus

Approval of the Institute of Graduate Studies and Research

_____
Prof. Dr. Mustafa Tümer
Acting Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management.

_____
Prof. Dr. HasanKılıç
Dean of Faculty of Tourism

We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate in scope and quality as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management.

_____   _____
Prof. Dr. HüseyinAraslı   Prof. Dr. HasanKılıç
Co-SupervisorSupervisor

Examining Committee
_____

1. Prof. Dr.LeventAltınay   _____

2. Prof. Dr.HüseyinAraslı   _____

3. Prof. Dr. TurgayAvcı   _____

4. Prof. Dr.HimmetKaradal   _____

5. Asst.Prof.Dr. M. GüvenArdahan   _____

ABSTRACT

Purpose - The aim of present research is to examine the mediating role of psychological strain and also the moderation role of psychological leverage on the relation between job insecurity and job performance.

Methodology - A sample of 288 frontline employees was selected through random and non-random sampling from five and four star hotels in north Cyprus.

Findings - Results showed that anxiety as a psychological strain mediate the impact of job insecurity on job performance. Also, psychological leverages (supervisor support and intrinsic motivation) play a role as a delimiter against negative effect of job insecurity on job performance.

Implication/limitation - This research extends the job insecurity literature to better understand the work stress consequences, and further takes note of the effective role of supervisor support and intrinsically motivated employee to cope with stress in workplace. By implication, lacking time lag is considered as the limitation.

Originality/value – The main thrust of this research is the effect of job insecurity on frontline employees in the hospitality industry which has been overlooked by most contemporary researches. Therefore, particular focus is to test the role of intrinsic motivation as a damper on the relationship between job insecurity and its behavioral consequence.

Keywords: Job Insecurity, Job Performance, Hotel, KKTC, Tourism Industry

ÖZ

Bu çalışmanın amacı, çalışanların iş ortamında maruz kaldığı iş güvencesizliğinden kaynaklanan etkileri ile iş performansı üzerindeki etkilerini ölçmek, aynı zamanda bu ilişkideki psikolojik gerginlik ve baskı algılarının aracı rolünü belirlemektir. İş güvencesizliğinin etkisi örgüt seviyesinde geçmiş araştırmalarda incelenmiş olmasına rağmen, iş performansı üzerine psikolojik gerginlik ve baskı aracılığıyla ve moderasyonuyla ilgili etkisi henüz hiç bir çalışma tarafından araştırılmamıştır. KKTC" de bulunan 4 ve 5 yıldızlı otellerde görev yapan 288 otel çalışanına anket yöntemi kullanılarak veri toplanmıştır. Elde edilen veriler, SPSS ve LISREL istatistik programları yardımıyla faktör analizi, tanımlayıcı betimsel istatistik, korelasyon ve regresyon analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Araştırma bulguları, iş güvencesizliğinin iş performansını negatif ve anlamlı bir şekilde etkilediğini, çalışanların endişelerinin iş performansı üzerine negatif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip oldugunu göstermiştir. Danışman ve içsel motivasyon değişkenlerinin bahsedilen ilişki üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğunu da göstermiştir. Araştırma bulgularına dayanan yönetimsel tavsiye ve önerilere sonuç kısmında yer verilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İş Güvensizliği, İş Performansı, Otel, KKTC, Turizm Endüstrisi

I dedicate this thesis

to my always active mind and loyal body that during 35

years of my life have been helping me to reach all my

ambitious goals.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Foremost, I am highly grateful to God for all blessing which encourage me to continue my life, and make me strong and steadfast against all odds and adversities.

With a great pleasure I would like to acknowledge of individuals who support me from the beginning of my Ph.D. education until the completion of this thesis.

Heartfelt thanks to Prof. Dr. Hasan KILIÇ for accepting to be my supervisor.

To Prof. Dr. Huseyin ARASLI, my dear professor and co-supervisor, thank you so much. I highly value to our constructive discussions on the thesis, your comments, academic support, optimistic attitude, and encouragement that contribute to improve the thesis.

To my family, I thank you for your continuing long distance prayers and moral support, understanding and encouragement during all these years of my study. I love you.

At the end, heartfelt thanks to my dear friend, classmate and brother Dr. HamedRezapouraghdam.

MahlaghaDarvishmotevali, September 2016

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Background

Providing high quality services to the customersis considered as the most important competitive advantage in the hospitality industry (Ncube, Sibanda, & Maunganidze, 2013). This has resulted in the prominent role of frontline employees (FEs) in the service delivery, service recovery and retaining loyalcustomers are vital and strategic (Ye & Liang, 2010). On the other hand, tourism industry especially hospitality industry(Higham & Hinch, 2002)has been recognized with high work intensity, lack of unionization, a poorly developed internal labor market, contingent contracts, as well as low social and professional status (Vujičić et al., 2014;Ünsal-Akbıyıket al., 2012). The service climate in north Cyprus exhibits similar characteristics such as temporary employment and labor force shortages (Kurtyka, 2005), non-organized employment, minimum wage and temporary contract (Ktenas, 2014), nepotism, unfair selection and promotion (Arasli, Bavik, &Ekiz, 2006; Daskin, 2015). Under these circumstances, it can be noted that employees in this sectorhabitually express fears of losing their jobs. This is what is practically referred to as job insecurity (JI). Significant relationships between JI and indicators of performance outcomes, and also work related behaviors have been created in cross-sectional and longitudinal researchers(Cheng & Chan, 2008).Experiential evidences generally hold theview that JI is negatively related to the various type of job performance (JP) (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006), task and contextual performance(Konig et al., 2010), employee extra-

role & in-role performance(Schreurset al., 2012) and creative problem solving (Probst & Lawler, 2006).Although previous researches(Schreurs et al., 2012;Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010 ; Wang et al., 2014)have examined the impacts of JI on different kinds of job outcomes among various kind of employees, to the researchers' knowledge, none of them focused on the relationship betwixt JI andjob performance as one of the important consequences of stress (George & Jones, 2005) among FEs in hospitality industry in north Cyprus.Thus the first contribution of current research is to close the study gap bytesting the impacts of JI on JP among FEs in hospitality industry in this touristic island.

Psychological strain (PS) is another variable included in this study, which is a potentially harmful reaction to astressful condition. This manifest as a feeling of anxiety, depression, andworry and then converts to emotional exhaustion and burnout in long run (Pierre et al., 2007;Houtman et al., 2007 ; George & Jones, 2005).However, a number of researches have concentrated on the role of mediators among job insecurity and job outcomes relationship (DeSpiegelaere et al., 2014; Vander Elst et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014), but none of them showed that how and under what process JI negatively effects on performance outcomes. Psychological strain as anintermediary in the relation among work stressors, such as JI and stress behavioral consequences, such as job performance can be explained by Job Demand Resource (JD-R) theory (Demerouti et al., 2001). We propose that job insecurity negatively impact on job performance through psychological strain. To buttress this, anxiety (ANX) as an early symptoms of stress (Gazzaniga & Heatherton, 2003) and emotional exhaustion (EE) as a symptoms of long term and high intensity of stress (Li, Lin, & Fang, 2010) are two components of Psychological strain which have been

chosen to test and examine as mediators in this study. Therefore the second meaningful contribution of this discourse is the examination of the intermediary role ofPS (EE & ANX) betweenJIonJP relationship.

At the end, since job performance (JP) and other job outcomes are perhaps most important and interesting to managers (George & Jones, 2005), so it is very important to search for affective strategies to help employees deal with JI till they may stay with high work efficiency (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2014). Hence researchers and managers need to know under what circumstances, response to negative impact of JI can be buffered. A number of moderators of the JI and outcomes relationship have been tested as follow: domestic responsibility (Rigotti, Mohr, & Isaksson, 2015), organizational justice (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2014), organizational support (Sora, Caballer, & Peiro, 2011), optimism (Zheng, Diaz, Tang, & Tang, 2014), individual flexibility (Otto, Hoffmann-Biencourt, & Mohr, 2011), and recovery experiences (Kinnunen, Mauno, & Siltaloppi, 2010). Nevertheless, as far as we know, in the relevant literature only limited studies have examined supervisor support as a moderator between mentioned relationship (Schreurs, Emmerik, Gunter, & Germeys, 2012), of course not in the hospitality industry, and as well as intrinsic motivation as a personal resource have not been directly tested as potential moderator.Therefore the researchers sought to examine the impactof social support (SS) and intrinsic motivation (IM) as two representatives of PL (Seniwoliba et al., 2013; Ozbay, et al., 2007), to know ifthey reduce the potential negative effect of JI on JP.

1.2 Significant of the Study

In summary, in current paper we aim to address the aforementioned gaps of research limitations. Therefore presentresearch contributes to current literature at least in three

ways.The first contribution of presentresearch is to close the study gap by examination the effect of JI on job performance among frontline employees in hospitality industry.Second meaningful contribution of this discourse is the testing of the intermediary role of psychological strain in the relationship among job insecurity and job performance. Anxiety and emotional exhaustion are two components of psychological strain which has been chosen.Third, the researchers sought to examine the impact of social support and intrinsic motivation as two representatives of psychological leverages (Ozbay et al., 2007; Seniwoliba et al., 2013), to know if they lessen the potential negative effect of JI on JP.

1.3 Research Objective

Accordingly, the current research has three main aims: first, to test the relation between JI and JP; second, to test the mediation role of psychological strains on the JI and JPrelationship and lastly, to investigate the buffering role of psychological leverage against the negative effect of job insecurity (Figure 1.1).

```
          ┌─────────────────────────────┐
          │ PSYCHOLOGICAL    STRAINS    │
          │                             │
          │         Anxiety             │
          │                             │
          │    Emotional Exhaustion     │
          └─────────────────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐              ┌─────────────────────────────┐
│  JOB INSECURITY  │              │  BEHAVIORAL CONSEQUENCES    │
│                  │              │                             │
│                  │              │      Job Performance        │
└──────────────────┘              └─────────────────────────────┘

          ┌─────────────────────────────┐
          │  PSYCHOLOGICAL LEVERAGES    │
          │                             │
          │    Intrinsic Motivation     │
          │                             │
          │     Supervisor support      │
          └─────────────────────────────┘
```
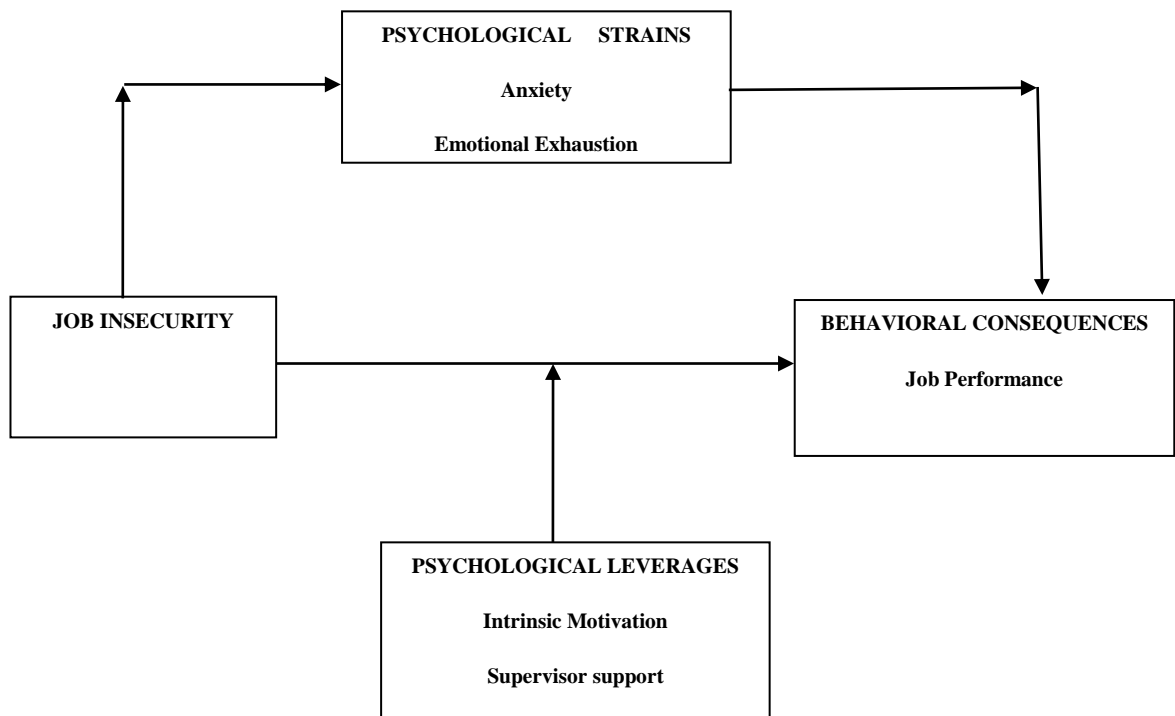
Figure 1.1: Mediating & Moderating model

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIWE

2.1 Stress

Stress is the general notion used to the pressures individuals feeling in their life. The presence of work stress is almost inevitable in many jobs. However, personal features and differences count for a whole range of responses to stress; one work considered as moderately challenging by one person may generate high levels of anxiety in another person. While pressure starts to increase, it may cause detrimental strain on an individual's feeling, sentiments, thought process, behaviors, and bodily situation. When stress be extreme, workers show different signs of stress which could damage their work performance and healthiness, and even menace their potency and ability to manage the situation.As shown in Figure 2.1people who suffer from stress maybe becomes nervous, high-strung, and chronically anxious.They are simply stimulated to infuriate and are incapable to be relaxed. Such these people may be unhelpful or using alcohol excessively. Although these situations also occur from other causes, these are common symptoms of stress. Stress also result in physical impairments, since the internal body system will change to cope with the stress. Physical disorders can occur in short-range, like an upset stomach, and also longer-range, such as a stomach ulcer. In some situation, an organization can be responsible for the psychological and physical effects of work stress on employees. Poor working conditions, sustained conflicts with supervisors, traumatic events, or intentional harassment of employees sometimes results in sorrow, neuroses, or even self-

destruction. If responsibility is established, workers could claim benefits under workers' compensation laws, also pursue for financial costs. Obviously, stress should not be overlooked (Newstrom, 2011).

Physiological:
Ulcers
Digestive Problems
Headaches
High Blood Pressure
Sleep Disruption

Psychological:
Emotional Instability
Moodiness
Nervousness And Tention
Chronic Worry
Depression
Burnout

Behavioral:
Excessive Smoking
Abuse Of Alcohol Or Drugs
Absenteeism
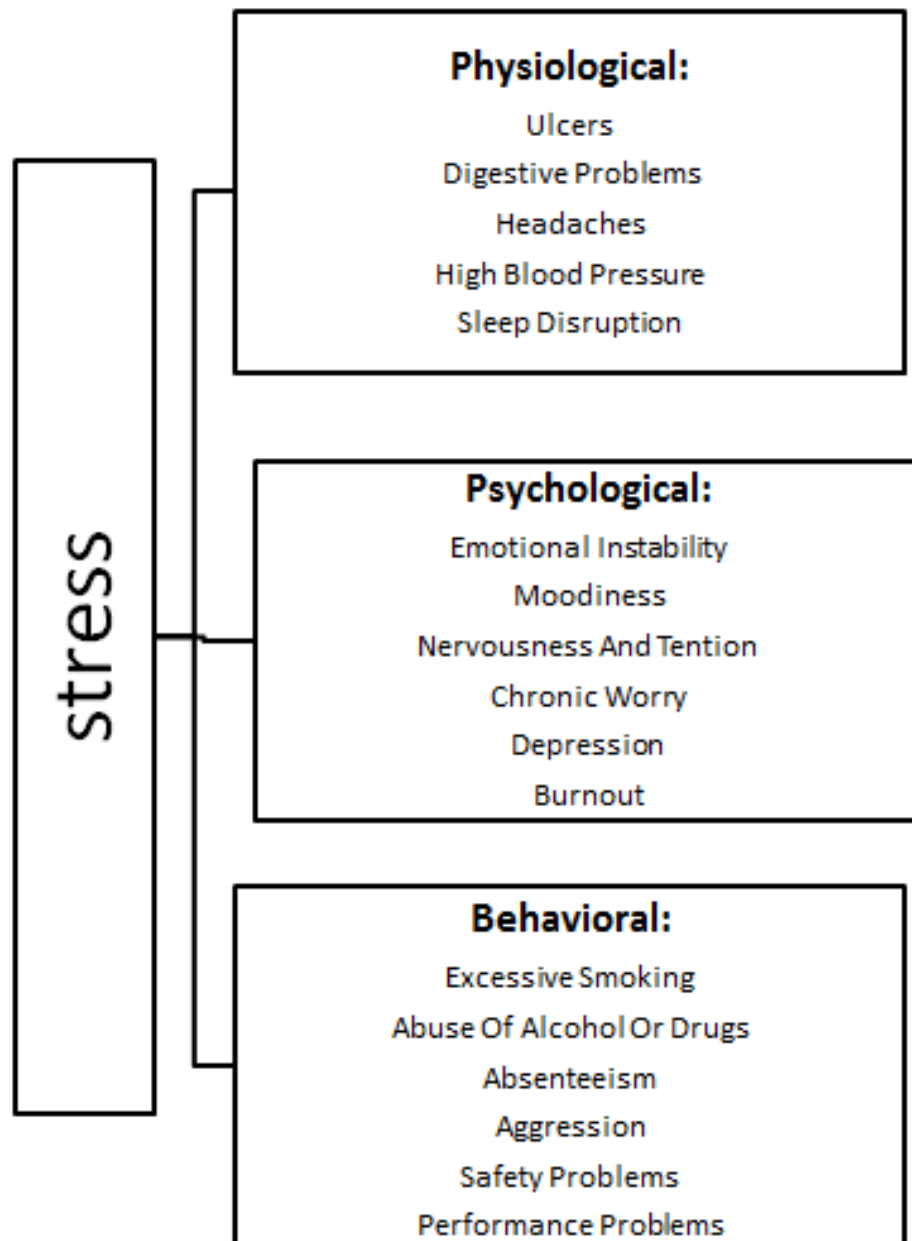Aggression
Safety Problems
Performance Problems

stress

Figure 2.1: Typical Negative Symptoms of Stress
Source: (Newstrom, 2011)

2.1.1 Causes of Stress

A significant first step to prevent of stress is to examine and find the causes of stress (Richter, 2011). Condition or situation which tends to cause stress is called stressors. We must consider that even a single stressor may be created major and intense stress. Stressors generally combine to pressure employees in a different variety of ways till major feelings of stress generated.The main sources of stress among employees are evenly divided to organizational factors and the non-work environment (Newstrom, 2011).

Certain macro level of related work stressors are in four categories (Luthans, 2003):

(a) Managerial policies and strategies(e.g., downsizing, competitive condition, bureaucratic plan).

(b) Internal and external organizational structure and design (e.g., centralization & formalization, specialization, role ambiguity and conflict, no chance for promotion, favoritism, restrictive & untrusting culture).

(c) Organizational processes (e.g., tight control, little performance feedback, Centralized decision making, and punitive assessment systems).

(d) Work conditions (e.g., crowded area, noise, atmosphere, polluted air, unsafe conditions, poor lighting, and Toxic chemicals or radiations).

In other hand, organizations are greatly affected by the non-work environment. External environmental situations have a potential threat to cause stress. Some non-organizational factors which may create threat in the organizational life are:

(a) Social/ technological change (e.g., pace of modernization, cultural changes).

(b) Family (relocation, dual career, divorce & trauma, illness or death of family and friend).

(c) Economic/ financial situations (business cycle changes, economic downturn, individuals' income changes).

(d) Race and class (stereotype working, discrimination, and also social isolation).

(e) Community conditions (housing situation, services and shopping, neighborhood, and level of noise and air pollution (Lunenburg et al., 2003; Luthans, 2010).

Figure 2.2 shows that individual differences and characteristics among employees may cause some these stressors as positive stress, while others perceive as negative stress. As a result, either positive or negative consequences may arise for both organization and employees. These impacts maybe short-run and lessen fast, or maybe long- time. To control and manage stress, organizations usually should search for the job related causes.

Causes   **types**   **consequences**

Organizational
Stressors

individual
differences

Positive stress ——————————→ constructive organizational
and personal consequences
- Short term
- Long term

————→ Employees

Non-work
Stressors

Negative stress ——————————→ destructive organizational
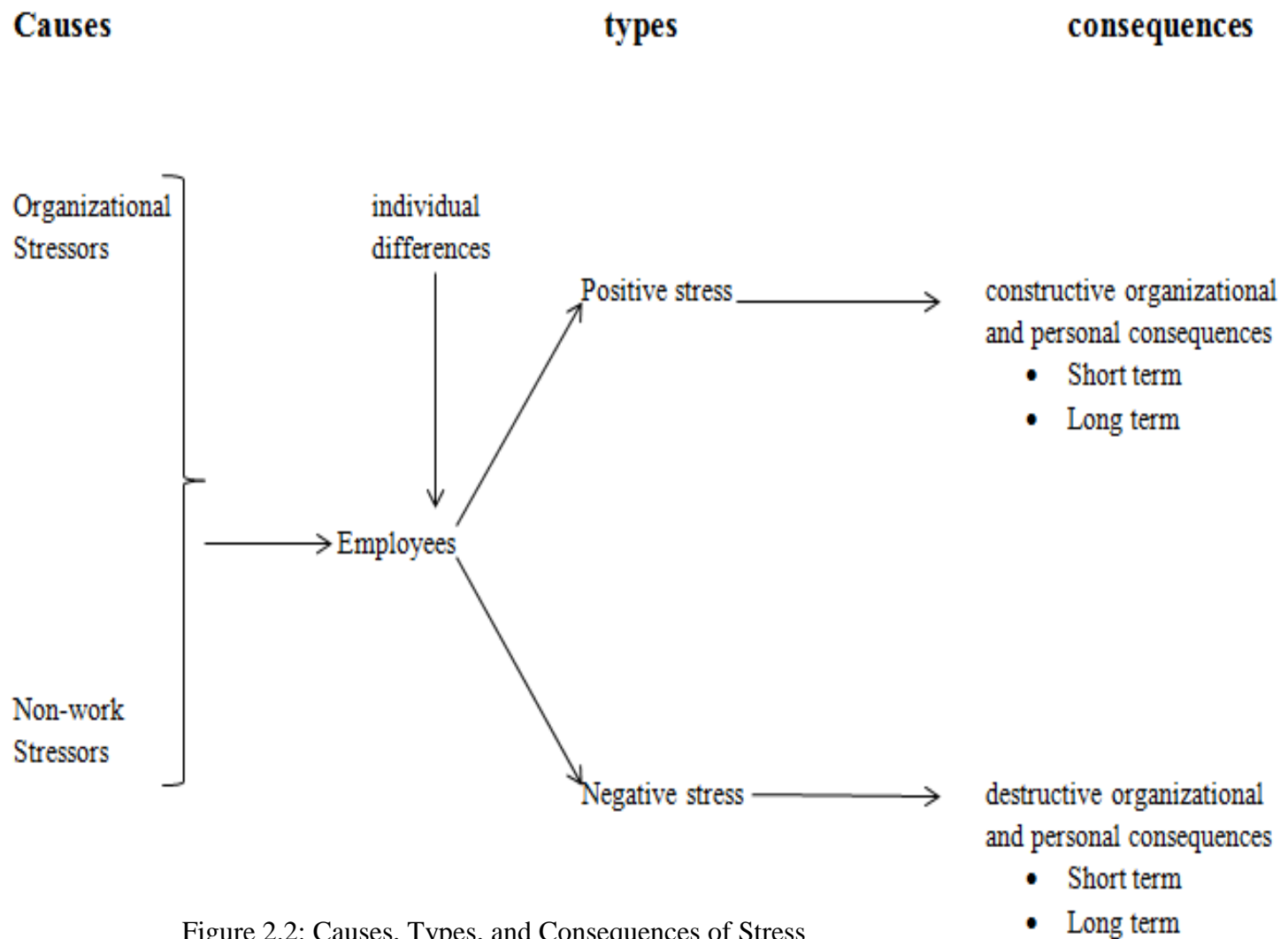and personal consequences
- Short term
- Long term

Figure 2.2: Causes, Types, and Consequences of Stress

2.1.2 Work-Related Stress

Job-related stress may create when employees find themselves unable to match their knowledge and abilities with job pressures and demands, as well as inability to run and cope. work stress happens in a wide range of workplace conditions but is mostly become worse when employees feel their managers, supervisors and coworkers support them inadequate, and as well as little control and manage over job processes (De Dreu&Weingart, 2003). Usually there is uncertainty and confusion betwixt pressure or challenge and stress and in some cases it is applied to excuse poor management operations.Pressure and stress at workplace are inevitable due to the demands of the present job environment.

When pressure identified, perceived and accepted by employees, may even keeps them conscious, motivated, capable to act and fit, but it depends on the accessible social and individual resources. Nevertheless, if the pressures become extreme or uncontrollable, the pressure leads to stress. It can be harm and hurt employees' healthiness and also organizational functions and performance. However some job conditions often generate stress for workers, like work overload, poor quality of management and supervision, insecure work climate, time pressure, lack of direct control, poor authority to match responsibilities, role conflict and work ambiguity, differences between organization and members values, and technology with insufficient support and training (Leka, Griffiths, & Cox, 2003). Work-related stress can be created by weak work organization (e.g., poor design jobs & unfavorable working situations), weak work design (e.g., shortages of control over work procedures), and also poor quality of supervision (e.g., lack of support from managers, supervisors and coworkers) (leka et al., 2003). Related studies show that

the most significant work stressors occur when work ample demands and pressures don't be matched with employees' abilities and organizational resource. Those workers who are less likely to undergo stress, when - job demands are matched with their abilities and organizational resources (Demerouti& Bakker, 2011).

2.1.3 Stress-Related Risks at Work

Work Stress related risks or hazards can be divided into main categories: work content and work context (Leka, Griffiths, & Cox, 2003).

Work Contents:refers to job content (e.g., monotony, under-stimulation, tasks' meaningless, lack of diversity), job load and job velocity (e.g., high or low workload, time pressures), working hour (e.g., harsh or inflexible and long, uncertain, unpredictability, poorly shift systems' design), and also involvement, cooperation and control (e.g., decision-making process, weak control during work process, speed, hours, procedures, and generally the work environment).

Work Context: Work context refers to occupation development, position and wages (lack of job security, low social value, lack of progress opportunities, inequitable and uncharted systems to evaluate job performance, different levels of skin), role in the workplace (role ambiguity, role conflict), interpersonal relations (unfavorable relationships, low supervision, poor relations with coworkers, harassment, brutality or solitary job), work-life balance (work-family conflict, family-work conflict, the absence of sufficient organizational laws and policies to keep up and manage work-life balance), and organizational culture (weak communications, weak leadership, the absence of behavioral rules regarding to organizational goals, strategies and master plans).

2.2 Job Insecurity as a Work Stressor

Employment is a main income source, and also individual consent and security. one of the prominent features of the present situation of working communities is high rates of unemployment. In the past decade, tourism and hospitality industry, particularity hotels' management sector, have encountered the process of restructure and mass dismissals, in the direction of reducing costs, certainty of higher levels of pliability and adapt finer with new work situations (Vujičić et al., 2014).However, because of new situations on the labor market, most of employees willingly or unwillingly alter their work or are faced with different contractsfrom past ones (part-time or shorter work time), or have lost their works long-run or provisionally. These changes have created a raised feeling of insecurity regarding to their work between a large groups of remained employed employees.There are different definitions for Job insecurity. Greenhalgh et al., (1984) defined job insecurity as a sense of weakness in keeping the desirable continuity of the job status. Roskies et al., (1990) considered insecurity as a worry regarding to the likely of losing specified recruitment. Hartley et al. (1991) defined job insecurity as a valuation of the being of a menace of losing work owing to change in the work place, that is based on the interplay among the perceived probability of job loss and perceived certitude, which it won't happen, whereas Reisel et al. (2010) considered job insecurity as a collection of entire cognitive dangers, risks and concerns.Probst (2002) believed that job insecurity refers to the perceived instability and discontinuity of job, whereas De Witte (2005) described it as a severe work stress that contains of cognitive probability of losing work and impressive experiences that are associated to it. Đorđević (2012) noted that in different related articles one difference is built among job insecurity definition in a narrow and a broad concept. several researches related job insecurity to the present

employment situation, that is the narrow concept (De Witte, 1999; Van Wyk et al., 2008), while other researchers believe that job insecurity is a common employment insecurity that is not merely related to present employment situation, but is an integral section of the occupational life of the workers generally, that is the broader concept (Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2006).

Borg et al., (1992) defined job insecurity from two directions that are cognitive and affective insecurity. Cognitive insecurity refers to the probability of job loss, while affective insecurity refers to the fright of job loss. So, unlike job losing that is described as unemployment, job insecurity refers to the individuals' interpretation of various signals or signs from the workplace or environment. The definitions noted that job insecurity is associated with subjective feelings, and job insecurity conception may negatively impact on work attitudes and behaviors, therefore it may be considered as a persistent work stressor in the workplace (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Rigotti et al., 2015; Sverke et al., 2002). Hellgren et al. (1999) divided job insecurity in two main categories: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative job insecurity refers to as "the perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation", whereas qualitative job insecurity, referred to as "the anticipation of losing valued job features" (Greenhalgh et al., 1984), like job opportunities, special job tasks and payment (De Witte et al., 2010; Vander Elst et al., 2014). Hellgren et al., (1999) believed that this type of job insecurity (qualitative) refers to the consequences of the threat to work features, and also they claimed that qualitative aspect of job insecurity has a stronger negative relationship with job attitudes rather than quantitative aspect of job insecurity.

2.2.1 Job Insecurity in the Hospitality Industry

The hospitality, as a service industry is dedicated to high quality customer service. However the complex and dynamic environment of the hospitality industry provides various challenges which can exacerbate job stress (Ramarumo, 2015). Thus, it is not surprising, that the related literature (Akgunduz, 2015; Ghiselli, 2016; Jung & Yoon, 2015; Lin et al., 2015; Ramarumo, 2015) perceives work stress as a significant challenge in the industry. Previous studies examined the extent to which various job characteristics, such as work overload, long working hours, and working on holidays, influence job stress (Choi& Kim, 2012; Ghiselli, 2016; Karatepe, 2013).Specially, several factors (weakly developed internal work markets, high job intensity, low social and cultural situation, and professional status), which lead to stress, notably stress associated with job insecurity (JI), characterize hospitality industry(Gibola et al., 2008; Ünsal-Akbıyık et al., 2012; Vujičić et al., 2014). JI as one of the most important and common work stressors has been found to be negatively related to the employees' in-role performance, job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational trust and commitment (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Sverke et al., 2002).

As previously indicated, ample evidence supports the detrimental effect of job stress in the hospitality industry (Deery et al., 2015; Gill et al., 2006; Kuruüzüm et al., 2008).Anxiety and emotional exhaustion can be perceived as psychological consequences of individuals' exposure to job stress (Gill et al., 2006; Hobfoll&Shirom, 2000). Job stress may be seen as a temporary process requiring short-term adjustments, and this process is usually accompanied by mental and physical symptoms include depression, anxiety and tension (Gazzaniga, Heatherton, & Halpern, 2015). EE, on the other hand, is a result of prolonged work stress that

could cause chronic dysfunction at work (Kim, 2008). In a recent research conducted in the hospitality industry, Kinnunen et al., (2010) found that JI is a job demand, which has been found to be associated with job exhaustion, according to the JD-R model.

It is important to search and find effective and efficient strategies to assist employees deal with JI so that they may stand engaged, committed and productive in their job, particularly in difficult conditions. Researches and directors therefore need to realize the circumstance in which employees' negative response to JI can be buffered. This objective not only is important for the theoretical development of the JI literature, but also presents practical implications to manage JI crisis. Traditionally, research on the hotel industry has concentrated on finding and minimizing negative factors related to work stress in an organization (Hodari et al., 2014; O'Neill & Davis, 2011). In spite of the numerous studies conducted in relation to "stress coping strategies" in hospitality industry (Lee et al., 2015), limited research is available on the moderators of the job insecurity. For example, Kinnunen et al.'s (2010) recent study found evidence in service industry (hotel, catering and travel services) that recovery experiences hinder the relation between job insecurity and occupational health and well-being.

In response to lack of research in this field, and also to fill the gap in the existing knowledge base, the presentresearch tries to extend the knowledge of the link between job insecurity and job performance by exploring potential mediating mechanism of psychological strains (anxiety & emotional exhaustion) using the COR theory and examining moderating role of psychological advantages (supervisor

support & intrinsic motivation) in the mentioned relation using the JD-R theory in the hospitality industry.

2.3 Job Insecurity and Its Psychological Consequences

2.3.1 Strain

Related literature demonstrates the relationship between stress, strain, and outcome. Stress, real or perceived, is "an event that people perceived as an annoying or troublesome which is endangering their well-being" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Strain is known as a consequence of stress and is anintermediating factor between stress and its outcomes (Koeske & Koeske, 1993). Koeske et al., (1993) asserted stress maycreate negative and positive outcomes, which strain is one of the negative outcomes of it. Strain is described as a state which is usually harmful and has unfavorable impacts on people who experience it.

Khalid &Naeem (2013) explained that strain is a state of feeling which is characterized by weakening emotional resources and energy. Past empirical researches show that strain arises from specific job features (Finney et al., 2013; Khalid et al., 2013; Panatik et al., 2012; Warr, 2002). Strain usually happens when employees perceive themselves unable and incapable to respond the workplace demands (Kahn & Byosiere, 1990). They believe that strain which result from the inconsistency between an employee and the workplace mainly those aspects that are essential for quality of life and well-being. Strain is certain type of stressor consequences, which include negative physiological (i.e., hypertension, coronary heart disease), psychological (i.e., anxiety, emotional exhaustion, frustration, rage), and behavioral (e.g., low performance, high absenteeism & turnover) problems (Jex et al., 1991; Kahn &Byosiere, 1990).

2.3.2 Psychological Strain

It is necessary at the outset to clearly distinguish between three interrelated related terms, namely (a) work stressor, (b) Work stress, and (c) psychological strain (Cartwright & Cooper, 2009). Work stressors are environmental strains or events (e.g., heavy work load) capable of producing a state of psychological stress in an individual. Work stress is individuals' internal responds to stressors characterized by arousal and some level of discomfort. Work stress is also used to refer to the area of research focusing on social psychological characteristics of work that are detrimental to employee's health. Interestingly, the phrase 'strain' is used to recognize special types of respond to stressors, and which of growing fondness to organizational scholars is the concept of 'psychological strain' (PS) (Noblet, Rodwell, & McWilliams, 2001). In the field of job stress, PS refers especially to the psychological outcomes (i.e., decentralization, loss of sensation of worth, depression or dumps) that happen in responding to workplace stressors. Psychological strain is a response produced in the individual to aversive and potentially harmful reactions to long-term exposure to stress, including anxiety, depression, and other ill-health such as cardiovascular diseases (Cartwright & Cooper, 2009).

In past decades the research investigating the impact of psychological strain has grown rapidly. In current study we propose that job insecurity negatively impact on job performance via psychological strain. To buttress this, anxiety as an early symptoms of stress (Gazzaniga & Heatherton, 2003) and emotional exhaustion as a symptoms of long term and high intensity of stress (Li, Lin, & Fang, 2010) are two components of psychological strain which have been chosen to test and examine as mediators in this study.

2.4 Anxiety

Everybody feels anxiety from time to time. People may feel anxiety when they face with an important event, like a job interview or a final exam, or when they perceive threats or intimidation, like waking to strange sounds and also be under the pressure and stress.Unfortunately, anxiety disorder is common. Anxiety disorderliness is the most prevalent type of mental health problems among women. This common disorder may cause difficult for individuals to work and study, to run daily works, duties and in relation with others, and mostly lead to financial pressure and deep suffering.There are different main categories of anxiety disorders which make them distinct from each other; however they all share the similar characteristics:

• Unreasonable and extreme fear

• Worry and tensionemotions

•Hardness to manage daily tasks and confusion (Rector et al., 2008).

2.4.1 Normal Anxiety

A specified amount of stress and anxiety is natural, necessary, and essential; it may result in acting about worries and keep safe from hurt. In some conditions, anxiety may even be crucial for survivorship. When we feel threatened, or danger, brain immediately sends a message to the nervous system directly, that answers via freeing adrenaline. Increasing adrenaline makes to bealert, and also creates a mutation of strength, ready us to assault (fight) or getaway to security (flight). On the other hand increasing adrenaline may also have adverse complications including feeling nervous, panicky, tension, giddy, perspiring, shaking or panting. Such these impacts may be worrying, but not detrimental and damaging to the body and normally do not for a long time (Rector et al., 2008).

2.4.2 General Anxiety Disorder (GDA)

Generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) involves "excessive anxiety and worry, occurring more days than not for a period of at least six months, about a number of events or activities." GAD is characterized by "difficulty in controlling worry."

Features: GDA causes persistent worry, typically moderate in intensity. The symptoms may ebb and flow, but tend to occur more days than not. Patients describe themselves as being tense, nervous and constantly on edged. They often fear something bad is about to happen, even though there is no reason to think it well. GDA is often called ¨free floating¨ because there may be no obvious reason for it, but it may result in worry about health, money, family or work. GDA can be exacerbated by additional stressful events, real or imagined. Simple domestic setbacks such as a cooker breaking down can seem like a major disaster.

Prevalence: GAD is the most commonly diagnosed emotional disorder. One adult in 20 suffers from GDA at any given time. GAD is twice as common in women as in men and often begins in the teens.

Related disorders: people with GAD may also suffering from other emotional disturbances, like panic attacks, phobic disorders or depression.

Diagnosis: because the symptoms of anxiety disorder can be so vague, it may take several consultations with the doctor to confirm the diagnosis. Occasionally over-active thyroid gland, as well as angina, diabetes, epilepsy or certain types of medicine may cause symptoms similar to GAD.

Treatment Options: the long-term outcome after receiving psychological treatment such as cognitive behavior theory (CBT) is very often positive, though drug therapy is also an option if such a course fails (Illman & Carter, 2007).

2.4.3 Causes of Anxiety Disorders

In spite of the fact that, there is no any clear-cut answer as to why some individualssuffer from anxiety disorders, however previous related study proposed that a number of elements can be involved. Similar to many psychological problems, anxiety disorder appears to be created by a compound of psychological factors (e.g., stressful or traumatic life events such as relationship problems, emotional shock, verbal, sexual, physical or emotional abuse or trauma, death or loss of a someone), biological factors (e.g., family background of anxiety disorders and childhood development issues), Personality factors (e.g., Perfectionism, easily flustered, fear, inhibited, lack self-esteem or management oriented), Medical factors (e.g., psychiatric problems, alcohol, drugs or illicit substances), Physical health problems(diabetes, asthma, hypertension and heart disease), and also other challenging life experiences (e.g., work stress or job insecurity, lack of living arrangements, repeated pregnancy) (Rector et al., 2008).

2.4.4 Work Stress and Anxiety

Every employee may experience work stress, and it's quite normal. But if the stress be continues, irrational, severe and disrupt daily functions may portend an anxiety disorder. Employees suffer from anxiety since they cannot simply handle stress well.Stress is an inescapable part of an employee's working life. However stress can create positive qualities in that the employee may feel more exhilarated than worried and perceive the condition positively as a challenge form, but it can be also described as a threat to the quality of life and also somatic and mental health.Stress is a

complicated issue but in general it is explained as an individual's physical, mental, or emotional reactions to environmental tensions, conflicts, disputes, and pressures. Stress is often explained as being related to emotions such as rage, anxiety, dumps and depression, and as well as associated with impoverished mental health. Work related stress and anxiety can effect on employees wellbeing (Newbury-Birch & Kamali, 2001).

Wood (2008) examined the effect of work features, containing job controls and demands on well-being. The results showed that more anxiety created in more demanding occupations, and also perceived support from supervisors and managers lessen anxiety levels. Robone et al. (2008) examined the impact of contractual arrangements and work conditions on self-evaluated health and mental well-being. They found that low working condition increase the mental health problem among employees. In another study, Cottini and Lucifora (2010) worked on stress, sleeping problems, anxiety and irritability. The result showed that job characteristics such as shift work, repetitiveness, ambiguity and intensity of works are positively related to anxiety and psychological strain. In addition, in a study among British Workplace Employment, anxiety is showed to be significantly associated with job demands as measured by items like work hours (Jones, Latreille, & Sloane, 2015).

2.4.5 Job Insecurity and Anxiety

Fundamental shifts in work place structure and employment conditions cause significant increasing of psychosocial issues and job insecurity in career life. Job insecurity is demonstrated negatively effect on psychological and physical health (Boya et al., 2008). Employees who constantly and chronically perceive job insecurity are occasionally, indeed, in worse health compared to the unemployed

(Burgard, Kalousova, & Seefeldt, 2012). Job insecurity has been associated with different harmful healthiness outcomes.Regarding to physical health, it has been related to increased morbidity, high blood pressure, coronary artery disease, and heartfelt death (László et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2004), and also lead to some musculoskeletal disorders like low back or neck pain (Kivimäki et al., 2002; Lang et al., 2012). Based on mental health job insecurity has been correlated with psychosomatic symptoms, losing self-esteem, anxiety, and as well as psychiatric symptoms (Burgard et al., 2012; Cheng &chan, 2008; De Witt, 2005). Furthermore, job insecurity disturbs health behaviors such as sport, food habits, and sleeping (Park, Nakata, Swanson, & Chun, 2013).

In a recent research by Burgard et al., (2012),results demonstrated that perceived job insecurity is related to the poor health consequences.The symptoms betweenunsecured employees showed major or minor depression, anxiety attacks, even after entering confounding factors. Boya et al., (2008), in their cross-sectional research, examined the impacts of perceived qualitative and quantitative JI on depression and anxiety among nurses. They found that depression and anxiety among those nurses who are working in private hospitals were significantly affected by both kind of job insecurity. Nella et al., (2015), specificallyhave concentrated on " the effectof job insecurity on anxiety, depression, and psychosomatic and musculoskeletal symptoms."labor mobility had significantly positive relationship with increasing stress, anxiety, depression, marital conflicts, somatic symptoms, and musculoskeletal pain.This study via estimating the short term outcomes of job insecurity highlighted the instant detrimental impacts of JI on the physical, mental, and social employees' functions.

Although, a number of researches have concentrated on the job insecurity and anxiety relationship, but none of them focused on the mediating function of anxiety in the JI and job performance relation and under what process JI negatively effects on performance outcomes in hospitality industry. Therefore, on the basis of past researches, we propose that job insecurity negatively impact on job performance via psychological strain. To buttress this, anxiety as a symptom of short term stress (Gazzaniga & Heatherton, 2003),and as an important dimensions of PS has been chosen to test as a mediator in current study.

2.5 Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion (EE)mentions to the feeling of being overloaded at work (Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001), and it is the core aspect of burnout syndrome (de Rijk et al., 1998; Gaines &Jermier, 1983; Green et al., 1991; Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach, 1982; Maslach& Jackson, 1981).

Maslach (1982) explained emotional exhaustion concept that "employees feel they are no longer able to keep themselves at a psychological level". Employees experience EE when they feel their emotional resources are decreased (Maslachet al, 1986) that leads to lose trust, impression, fondness, trust, confident (Ledgerwood, Crotts, & Everett, 1998), and even to 'depersonalization'. Employees who suffer from emotional exhaustion show some behaviors like putting distance emotionally or even cognitively from others and as well as continue their work incuriosity or with cynical attitudes. Such these employees desire to feel disappointed, sad, unhappy, depressed and unsatisfied concerning themselves and their job achievements (Maslach, 1982).EE not only refers to employees' general losing of emotion, quietness, worry, feeling,confidence, certainty, fondness and interest (Maslach,

1982), but as well asassociates with feelings of weariness, irritability, moodiness, disappointment, fatigue, frustration, and as well as being way-worn (Maslach et al, 1981). Emotional exhaustion has considered being analogous to long-lasting fatigue, because of its influence and sustainable character(Griffith et al., 1950).

In the tourism industry especially hospitality industry, employees often encounter ongoing challenges in a dynamic and uncertain environment, which raises different levels of stress (Camillo, 2015). The special conditions of work in the hospitality industry can cause employees beemotionally and mentally strained. The condition and characteristics of work environment in this industry are considered as factors to create emotional exhaustion among employees   (Babakus et al., 2008; Pienaar & Willemse, 2008; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; O'Neill & Xiao, 2010; Kim, Shin, & Umbreit, 2007; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007). Empirical related literatures show that both quality and quantity of job demands are very significant factors for generating emotional exhaustion. Role conflict, ambiguity, and overload, compressed hours working, work overload are some example of quality and quantity work demand(Hussain et al., 2015). Karatepe (2013) found that work overload significantly correlated with EE among frontile employees. The work's nature seems to be associated with EE too. When a job needs more repeated and close interplay with clients, like service works are more probability to have employees with more physical and psychological strain (Ito & Brotheridge, 2003). When employees have to control their emotions, affection, feelings and expressions, while the same time must be concealing the real feelings to face with customers and work demands, therefore it may leads to feeling of emotional exhaustion (Ito & Brotheridge, 2003).

2.5.1 Job Insecurity and Emotional Exhaustion

Job insecurity (JI) indicates worries regarding to the continuity of individuals future recruitment or the menace of losing individual's present job (Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002). Individuals may experience differing degrees of job insecurity. Researchers found that JI is more continual experience (Mauno, Leskinen, & Kinnunen, 2001); therefore, it can be considered as a chronic work stressor (Vander Elst et al., 2014). Particularly, uncertainty regarding to the job loss if continue for a long term, may lead to cumulative negative effects on individuals' health and well-being (Piccoli & De Witte, 2015).

In the current study, we concentrate on the emotional exhaustion as one of the psychological consequences of JI. EE as a component of Maslach's (1993) burnout conception, is a chronic status of emotional and physical exhaustion and is considered as a main dimension for realizing the burnout process (Maslach & Leiter, 2008), for both experimental and conceptual reasons. This aspect of well-being and health seems to be related not merely for the employee but for the organization too. since it can be predict other various job out comes and behaviors, such as work engagement, organizational commitment, different kind of performance, job embeddedness, organizational citizenship behaviors, turnover intentions and as well as absenteeism(Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). General stress literature has supported the argument that organizational stressors such as JI may cause burnout and disruption in health and well-being (e.g. De Cuyper et al., 2006; Giunchi et al., 2015; Piccoli et al., 2015; Vander Elst et al., 2014; Van den Tooren et al., 2014).

Van den Tooren et al., (2014) based on JD-R theory tested whether job insecurity is negatively associated with general health and welfare. The results show that general

health decreased among employees who suffer from job insecurity. In another study by Vander Elst et al., (2014), based on COR theory emotional exhaustion examined as one of the psychological consequences of JI as a work stressor via using 2-wave repeated-measures design. The results show that positive relationship between JI as a chronic stressor and emotional exhaustion as a core component of burnout. Piccoli et al., (2015) in their cross-sectional research described the job insecurity − strain relation based on transactional stress theory and social exchange paradigm. The findingsdemonstrated that uncertainty about future of job lead to EE. Additionally, other cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have showed positive and significant relationships between JI and EE (De Cuyper et al., 2010; Kausto et al., 2005; De Cuyper et al., 2012; Kinnunen et al., 1999).

However, a number of previous researches have focused on the job insecurity and emotional exhaustion relationship, but none of them focused on the intermediating role of emotional exhaustion in the JI and job performance relationship, and also under what process JI negatively impacts on performance outcomes. Thus, on the basis of past researches, we propose that job insecurity negatively impact on job performance through psychological strain. Emotional exhaustion as a symptom of long term and high intensity of stress (Li, Lin, & Fang, 2010), and a component of PS has been chosen to test and examine as a mediator in this study.

2.6 Job Insecurity and Its Behavioral Consequences

The potential behavior outcomes of stress are including job performance, troubled interpersonal relationships, turnover intention, and absenteeism. Normally agreeable workers who suddenly fly off the handle may be experience very high levels of stress. When an employee experience high levels of negative stress excessively, it is

often difficult for him/her to be as contacting and understanding with others (colleagues, subordinates, supervisors, clients) as they usually would be. Extreme stress increase turnover intention, as well as absenteeism among employees, particularly when they have other employment options. Nonetheless the potential outcome of stress on job performance is maybe of most interest to executives (George & Jones, 2005). Therefore in the following,wediscuss fully on job performance, stress and job performance, as well as impacts of job insecurity on job performance.

2.6.1 Job Performance

Job performance (JP) is a part of industrial and organizational psychology, and also is a part of human resource management (HRM) and organizational behavior. Performance is a significant scale for organizational achievements and outcomes(Campbell, 1990; Campbel et al., 1993). Job performance evaluates whether an individual performs a job well. Campbell (1990) defined JP as an individual-level variable, or something an individual does. However, it is widely accepted that JP is a multidimensional variable (Borman et al., 1993; Campbell et al., 1996).

Campbell's conceptualization of performance makes difference between a process aspect (e.g., behavior) and outcomes of performance (Borman et al., 1993; Campbell et al., 1993; Roe, 1999). From the behavioral perspective, job performance refers to what employees do while at workplace, the action itself. Performance include specific behavior such as sales conversations with clients, teaching mathematic, computer programming. In addition, this aspect of performance concept expressly describes behavior that is goal-oriented (e.g., behavior which the organizations hire

employees to do well as performance). From the outcome perspective, in turn performance refers to the result of employees' behavior. The actions explained above about employees' behavior may result in agreements or amount of selling, collegian' knowledge in mathematics, or a software production. Experimentally, the behavioral and outcome facets of performance are linked together. But there is no any full overlay and evidences that the outcomes side is influenced by other factors than behavioral side.

Furthermore, performance can be divided into effectiveness and productivity aspects (Campbell et al., 1993; Pritchard et al., 1992). The effectiveness aspects mentions to the assessments of the consequences of performance such as fiscal value of selling. In return, productivity is the proportion of effectiveness to the costs of achieving the outcomes. For instance, the proportion of work hours (input) in relation to manufactured product (output) reports productivity aspect.

Another main classification of performance which attracted a lot of attention and consideration refers to the task and contextual dimensions of performance (Borman et al., 1993; Motowidlo et al., 1999; Motowidlo et al., 1994).

Task performance refers to those behaviors which take part to the main transformation and performing activities in organizations, like producing productions and delivering services, selling goods, acquiring inventory, or managing employees (Motowidlo&Schmit, 1999).Task performance as an employee's contribution to organizational performance, mentions to actions which are part of the official system (Wi1liams et al.,1991). Generally task performance contains of activities which transmute substances into the merchandise and services made by organization or let

for effective functioning of organization (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Therefore, the task aspect of performance covers the completion of requirements which are part of the treaty among employers and employees.

In contrast, contextual performance is defined as those behaviors which contribute to organizational culture and climate. Contextual aspect of performance includes behaviors which do not directly take part to organizational performance, but support the psychological, cultural and social climates of organization. Contextual aspect indirectly partakes to an organization's performance through simplifying task performance. Mostly, this aspect of performance is predicted by motivation and personality and is discretionary and extra-role behaviors. In most cases, formal job requirements is not sufficient to reach organizational goals, and it requires to go beyond what is officially needed (Parker et al., 2006; Sonnentag et al., 2008).

Borman et al., (1993) considered five dimensions of contextual performance:

(1) Volunteer activities beyond an employee's formal duty

(2) Persistence of enthusiasm to complete important task

(3) Helping to others

(4) Following organizational rules and procedures even it is not convenient

(5) Openly defending of organization goals.

Extra role performance, recovery performance, persisting with enthusiasm, cooperating with coworkers, alerting coworkers about work-related problems or following organizational rules, policies and procedures are some samples of contextual behaviors (Motowidlo et al., 1999; Borman et al.,1993; Motowidlo et al., 1997).

2.6.2 Stress and Performance

Stress is essential for our survival. It alerts us to danger, helps us to cope with the demands of daily life and can sharpen our performance. Stress can be either useful or harmful to job outcomes specially job performance, depending on this level.
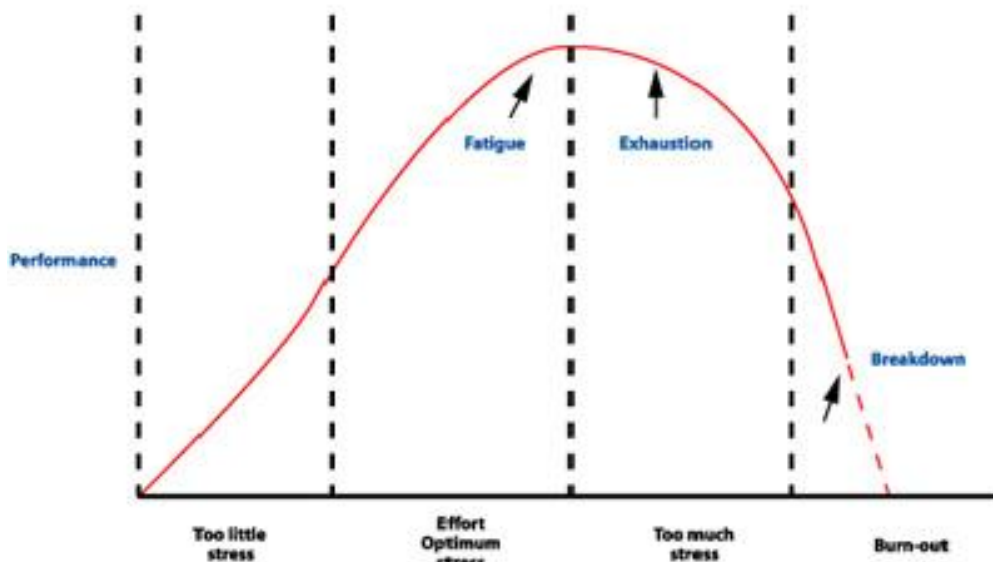
Figure 2.3: Human Performance Curve

Too little stress: this results in insufficient challenge to achieve a sense of personal accomplishment.
Optimum stress: life is balanced despite its ups and downs, and perfectly manageable.
Too much stress: constant feeling of having to do too much every day, resulting in permanent overdrive and emotional and physical exhaustion and finally burn-out (Illman & Carter, 2007).

The human performance curve, from Dr. Chandra Patel's book "The Complete Guide to Stress Management" (Vermillion, 1996) emphasizes the importance of balancing the stress in our life.Figure 2.3 shows a stress-performance model that displays the relation between stress and performance. By focusing on the model, we can see when there is small or no amount of stress, there is no any work challenging and performance tends to be low. But when stress increase, performance desires to growth, since stress assists an individual calls up resources to facework requirements. Constructive and useful stress is a healthy motivation that stimulates employees to

respond to the challenges. Finally, stress reaches a peak or a plateau which corresponds approximately with an individual's top day-to-day performance ability. In this level, additional stress tends to generate no more improvement. Ultimately, if stress increases too much, it turns into a harmful force. Performance starts to reduction at some points since too much stress interferes with performance. Employees lose the ability to deal; they become unable to make decision and show unpredictable behavior. When they are stressed and disengaged may report high turnover intention, high absenteeism, less motivated, and also less valued. In this situation, the significance of individual differences in the stress-performance relationship is highlighted by the results of surveys of employees' perceptions of stress, and also the managers' role is very prominent. The managerial challenge - like the violin player's- is to monitor tension levels and make periodic adjustments (Newstrom, 2011).

2.6.3 Job Insecurity and Performance

Job insecurity (JI) has been accepted as one of the main work stressors existing in the workplace, resulting in a list of detrimental outcomes, containing negative attitude towards the organization or work, creating disorder in health and well-being, and, most regarding to the current study, decreased job performance (Cheng et al., 2008; Gilboa et al., 2008; Sverke et al., 2002). The findings of different esearches on job insecurity and job performance demonstrated that employees who experience high levels of JIcommonly perform worse comparing with those employees who experience low levels of JI (Cheng et al., 2008).

Theoretically the negative effect of job insecurity on job performance can be explained at least by two broad ways: cognitive explanations and affect-based mechanisms.

- **Cognitive Explanation** refers to the idea that an employee may perceive job insecurity as a violation of the psychological contract with employer. This psychological contract is defined as the series of explicitly and implicitly certain and given promises regarding to the duties and rights between these two (employee & employer), as perceived by the employee (Conway & Briner, 2005). Based on psychological contract theory, job security as a main part of the so called "old deal" (Millward & Brewerton, 2000), being mostly specified by a providing job security as a part of the employer's relational orientation in return for loyalty as a part of the worker's duty (Rousseau, 1995). The great majority of the employees still expect that JI as a basic factor of the psychological agreement with employers. Therefore, for that employee who awaits job security, JI gives a breach of psychological agreement expectations and builds an imbalance social exchange in the relation betwixt employers and employees (De Cuyper& De Witte, 2006). When psychological agreement breach has happened, workers are mostly motivated and desirable to lessen their engagement and commitment (e.g., by engaging in turnover intention or absenteeism behaviors) and show less contribution to the job performance and participation in organizational activities(Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010). Based on cognitive explanation, the commentary of JI as violation of agreement is emphasized and after

perceiving it, work efficiency comes down deliberately, which, lead to reduction levels of job performance in the organization.

- **Affect-Based Mechanism** refers to that job unsecured employees who are uncertain the future of their job, losing job, losing of job characteristics, or continued employment (Sverke et al., 2002). Uncertainty creates feeling of powerlessness, externality, and lacking power to manage the conditions (De Witte, 1999; Sverke et al., 2002). Employees who recognize and perceive high levels of control over situation, Compared with employees who perceive little control over situation are more likely to consider the environment as stressful or difficult, have more negative emotional reactions, ordemonstrate more strain (Spector, 2002).

Hobfoll's (1989) COR theory asserts that in such stressful conditions (e.g., JI) employees may lose their (job) resources which can lead to low performance. In this regard, the control model of demand management (Hockey, 1993) argues that people will use additional resources to deal with the work stressor such as job uncertainty that in the long time lead to depleting the accessible resources which are essential to perform work tasks. Therefore, these series of comments widely assert that sense of JI may lead to a reduction of psychological and physiological resources of employees, and therefore result in reduced attempt. Previous studies are generally support thatJI negatively related to various types of performance outcomes (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Schreurs et al., 2012; Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010; Wang et al., 2014). For instance, high levels of job insecurity negatively is related to self-rated performance (De Cuyper& De Witte, 2006), creative problem solving (Probst et al.,

2007), extra-role & in- role performance (Schreurs et al., 2012), and as well as OCB(Reisel et al., 2010).

As far as we know, there is no study that examined the impacts of job insecurity on job performance among employees in north Cyprus. Accordingly, the current study tries to address this gap through examining the mentioned relationship among frontline employees in hospitality industry in north Cyprus.

2.7 Buffering Mechanism of Psychological leveragesin the Relationship betweenJob Insecurity and Performance

Both organization and employees are highly concerned about stress and its impacts. In efforts to manage and control stress, people have three broad options: prevent or manage, escape from it, or learn to adapt (Richter, 2011). Organizations can search to make better managerial communication skills, empowering employees, redesign jobs to be more fulfilling, as well as implement organizational development plans. These strategies are aimed to reduce or eliminate the negative effect of work stressors. Employees can escape from stress by application for job transfers, finding alternative job, taking early retirement, or obtaining assertive skills that allow them to cope with the work stressors (Cartwright & Cooper, 2009).

Conservation of resource (COR) theory has been known as one of the psychological and motivational frameworks to stress and is a significant describing system of individuals' behavioral responses in stressful conditions (Hobfoll, 1989). According to this theory, resources are defined as ". . . those entities that either are centrally valued in their own right, or act as means to obtain centrally valued ends" (Hobfoll, 2002). Hobfoll (1989) recognized four types of resources, namely material resources

(i.e., money), conditions (i.e. status), personal (i.e., self-esteem and optimism), and social resource (i.e., family, friends, and supervisor).He claimed that those individuals who accumulate resources are more flexible, resistant, and able to overcome threats and stress. The theory supposes a moderating role of resources in the stressors/demands and negative outcomes relationships (Westman et al., 2004). Therefore we would expect that the availability of resources would lead to a collection of resources, which help individuals to cope with threats and stressors to reach more positive outcomes. In current study we have focused on two main types of resources which are social and personal resource.

- **Social Resource -** Some individuals experience stress due to detached from others and their environment; they are without warm interpersonal relations. people with a driving ambitions, desires and a strong demand for independence may pass to expand close attachments to families, friends and coworkers. To reach success, they mostly victim fulfillment of their social demands and needs. The lack of social attachments may lead to anger, depression, anxiety, and even loneliness - all producing stress in their lives.

  The social support concept has been applied widely referring to the functions done for one by others, like family members, managers, coworkers and friends. These significant others can present various kinds of supports, like emotional (e.g., providing unanimity, care, passion, and trust), informational (e.g., helping people to assist themselves), instrumental support (e.g., various kind ofof practical help), and evaluation (e.g., transmission of information

relevant to self-evaluation) (Peeters & Le Blanc, 2001).These types of support show that social support may come from supervisors, co-workers, friends, or family. Social support is the set of supportive and helpful activities, interaction, and relations which provides employees with the satisfaction of main and significant needs. Both managers and co-workers play crucial roles in acknowledging the loss and providing social support. Research suggests that when employees have at least one person from whom they can receive social support (especially emotional support), they will experience lower stress and improved overall health. Managers may need to allow time for employees to develop and nature their social support networks at work. Supervisors need to develop the capacity to play this role for their employees when support is needed. An alternative action is to simply provide opportunities for social support and encourage it to develop among a group of workers (Newstrom, 2011).

Social support has mostly been mentioned as a significant delimiter against different workplace stressors (Halbesleben, 2006; Schreurs, 2012). The main idea is that social support has this power to reduce the negative impacts of stress via helping people to deal with the stressors (e.g., job insecurity). Consistent with these findings, in the present study we expect that if employees experience social support, this could have a buffering impact on the strain, and therefore barricade a reduction in employees' performance. In current study for testing the buffering capacities of social support, we choose support from the supervisor. We presume that supervisor support assist employees in dealing with job insecurity' negative impacts.

- **Personal Resources -** these resources like personal characteristics, status ormoney may be lessen or barricade employees' psychological problems. Pursuant to the Conservation of Resources theory (COR), individuals try to acquire, keep and save their personal resources, either social (i.e., social status or social relationship) instrumental (i.e., money or shelter), or psychological (i.e., self-efficacy or intrinsic motivation). The COR's theory proposes that individuals should keep their resources till to save and keep them against resource loss, and as well as regain resources. Accordingly, people with more resources are less helpless and vulnerable to resources loss and are more able of arranging resources gain, comparing with people with scant and limited resources (Hobfoll&Shirom, 2000).

Related literature shows those employees who experienced higher levels of autonomy ("the freedom of initiative and exercise discretion in decision-makings") (Iplik, Topsakal, &Iplik, 2014), low task complication (Kubicek&Korunka, 2015), and the internal control ("a trend to attribute events to one's own control") (PartlakGünüşen, Ustün, &Erdem, 2014), desire to experiment lower degrees of emotional exhaustion. Another studies showed that those employees who have higher degree of self-efficacy (the faith of ability to succeed), are less likely to experience emotional exhaustion (Rubioa et al., 2015). Intrinsic motivation (performing an action or behavior which are energized and inspired by the activity itself)is also found to be largely related to emotional exhaustion, burnout, and professional accomplishment (Leiter, Bakker, & Maslach, 2014).

2.7.1 Supervisor Support

Supervisor is the job title of a low level management position that is primarily based on authority over a worker or charge of a workplace. The term itself can be used to refer to any personnel who have this task as part of their job description. An employee is a supervisor if he has the power and authority to do the following actions:

- Give instructions and/or orders to subordinates.

- Be held responsible for the work and actions of other employees.

A supervisor is a foremost overseer whose basic responsibility is to make certain that employees get out the allocated amount of product, when they are assumed to do it and within passable levels of quality, costs and safety. Supervisors are responsible for the productivity, efficiency and actions of a small group of employees. The supervisors have several manager-like roles, duties responsibilities, authority and powers. As a member of management, supervisors main job are more related with organizing and managing works rather than performing them directly. Supervision is a unique position which through direct daily contact with employee, respond to their needs, difficulties, and satisfaction. A Supervisor is the direct link between managers and the labor force and can has a significant and effective role in developing job training, safety attitudes, safe working methods and identifying unsafe acts (Miedema, 2015). supervisor is person who rendering a supporting relationship of varying quality or strength that provide resources such as sharing of information, emotional empathy or tangible or intangible cooperation and assistance (House, 2003). House (2003) considered four main psychosocial dimension of supervisor support namely: task support (equipment, latest technology, money, time and environmental modification), relation support (esteem, trust, affection, interest,

listening), evaluation support (verification, affirmation, feedback, fair comparison), and informational support (advice, suggestions, guidance). Trough theses four kind of support, supervisors enable to increase employee's ability to cope with difficulties at work and reduce the amount of work stress.

2.7.2 Supervisor Support and Work Stress

Unexpectedly, related studies of the work stress reveals that the negative impacts of job stress on performance outcomes are not consistent if supervisor's support is present in organization (Hashemi et al., 2015; Hsieh, 2015; Yang, et al., 2015). Many scholars view that social support especially supervisor support and work stressors like role ambiguity, work overload, role conflict and job insecurity, are highly interrelated constructs. For example, the different levels of work stress will not obstruct and create employees' family conflicts when supervisors can enough provide social support (Almeida et al., 2016; Armstrong et al., 2015 Goldsen&Scharlach, 2001; Weigl et al., 2016; Yu-Fei et al., 2012). In addition Researchers founded the significant positive relationship between social support at work and employees' health and wellbeing (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). Consistent with organizational behavior theory, Boyar et al., (2007) found that quick support from supervisor has a prominent impact on the employees' well-being.

Even though the nature of this relationship is interesting, the moderating role of supervisor's support is given less emphasized in the workplace stress research literature (Schreurs et al., 2012; Yu-Fei et al., 2012). Many researchers believe that the role of supervisor support as a moderator is given less attention in past studies because in these studies mostly describe about job stressors and their features, supervisor support characteristics separately, rather than explain the impact of

supervisor support in increasing or decreasing the effect of job stress on employees in work place.

2.7.3 Supervisor Support and Job Insecurity

Due to the adverse consequences of job insecurity as a work stressor, scholars have spent too muchtime and attempt to recognize factors and leverages which may buffer itsnegativeimpacts.Supervisor support, which explained as the degree of perceiving of values, contributions and cares about well-being by employees, has a critical role to create a supporting workplace (Eisenberger et al., 2002). When organizations are in uncertainty conditions, in which employees may feel job insecurity, actively they lookfor supportfrom supervisors in coping with the crisis conditions (Lee et al., 2007). In this situation, supervisor support may give help and motivation to orient employees' attention to job, and give emotional support to reduce the psychological stress. Particularly, a supervisor may help employees to manage better perceived job insecurity condition, re-evaluate the work condition and reinforce them to pursue positive adaptive response (Jordan et al., 2002).Creating work condition which seem to be safe and less threatening by supervisor may enable employees to buffer against a sense of job insecurity.

Tian et al., (2014) in their study examined whether perceived supervisor support moderates the job insecurity and counterproductive behavior relationship via affective commitment. The result demonstrated the buffering role of supervisor support in the mentioned relation. Schreurs et al., (2012) in a weekly diary study found that perceived supervisor support reduce the negative impacts of job insecurity on in role performance and extra role customer services among Belgian employees. employees' performance who perceived higher supervisor support was lesser

negatively affected by job insecurity. Selenko et al., (2013) examined the relationship between job insecurity and self- reported work performance. The results showed that this relationship moderated by optimism and supervisory support.

In the light of such evidence, it is possible that in the context of job insecurity, organizational-related support like supervisor support helps employees to buffer against any negative consequences.

2.7.4 Intrinsic Motivation

Motivation is the process that account for and individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal (Robbins & Judge, 2011). The three elements in this definition are intensity, direction, and persistence. Intensity describes how hard a person tries. This is the element most of us focus on when we talk about motivation. However, high intensity is unlikely to lead to favorable job-performance out comes unless the effort is channeled in a direction that benefits the organization. Therefore, we consider the quality of effort as well as its intensity. Finally, motivation has a persistence dimension. This measures how long a person can maintain effort. Motivated individuals stay with a task long enough to achieve maintain effort. Motivated individuals stay with a task long enough to achieve their goal (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

The term of intrinsic motivation (IM) is emerged in opposing to the some behavioral theories which raised at the same time (Harlow, 1953; White, 1959). Intrinsically motivated behaviors are defined as performing an action or behavior that are energized and inspired by the activity itself (Deci, 1972, 1975). Intrinsic motivation is the concept to which an individual is excited regarding a work activity and is motivated to engage in it because of the work activity itself (Oldham & Cummings,

1996). Vallerand and his colleagues (Vallerand et al., 1989; Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993) suggested a model of IMwhich includes three categories: Intrinsic motivation to know, to accomplish, and to experience stimulation. Intrinsic motivation to know mentions to the inner propensity to perform a task for the pleasure, enjoyment and satisfaction one can obtain from exploring, searching, finding, understanding, and learning novel things. Intrinsic motivation to accomplish mentions to tend to perform an activity for the pleasure, satisfaction derived from accomplishing or generating new things. Eventually, intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation mentions to the inner motivation to engage in an activity in order to feel sensory gratification also utilizing of aesthetic experiences (Ryan &Deci, 2000).

Within self-determination theory, IM is viewed as the motivational source of the energetic, dynamic, and growth-oriented part of humans. Actually, intrinsically motivated behaviors are the inherent base and foundation for acquiring, knowing and growth. White (1959) proposed that a necessity for competency under lays intrinsic motivation, that individuals involve in variety kinds of activities and works in order to experiment a feeling of proficiency, merit and competency. After that, De Charms (1968) suggested that individuals have primal motivational tendencies to involve in workswhich let them to experience a feeling of personal causation which is the foundation of IM. Nuttin (1973) also asserted that people feel 'causality pleasure' when they recognize and become aware of themselves as the innovator of their conducts. These investigators have consensus about the needs for competency and personal causation (which are closely associated with the notion of autonomy) which are the energized base of the intrinsically motivated behaviors. The literature on IM has considered the intrinsic motivation principle to explain the influence of

contextual factors on creative performance (Coelho, Augusto, & Lages, 2011). Kouloubandi, et al., (2012) measured the effect of intrinsic motivation on employees' creativity and found that intrinsic motivation had greater effect on radical creativity. In another similar study, intrinsic motivation had a positive influence on creative performance (Zhang & Bartol, 2010).Dysvik et al., (2011) developed two cross-sectional surveys proposing that intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship between perceived job autonomy and work performance. The results from two different work settings, including both self-reported and line-manager-rated work performance, showed that the relationship between perceived job autonomy and work quality is moderated by intrinsic motivation.

2.7.5 Intrinsic Motivation and Work Stress

The degree to which employees cope with stressful work conditions effectively is an original determining factor of their subjective well-being.No wonder that researchers have allocated a great deal of attempt toward understanding and finding which coping strategies are most effective under different conditions and identifying individual differences and personal resources in the ways in which employees cope with negative and unpleasant incidents(Allen & Leary, 2010).Based on conservation of resource theory, personality and individual differences play a significant role in almost all aspect of stress and coping process(Hobfoll, 1989). Individual differences help employees to cope with stressful situations effectively.Extensive related researches have shown that individual differences and resources(i.e., self-efficacy, self-esteem, and intrinsic motivation)play an important role in addressing and reducing job stress (Bi et al., 2016; Dolenc, 2015; Rubioa et al., 2015; Schönfeld et al., 2016)..Intrinsic motivation as a personal resource is also highly regarded by scholars.According to the Self – Determination theory (Ryan &Deci2000), those

employees who are intrinsically motivated are in the maximum level of self-determination and engaging the behaviors of innate satisfaction. They believe that people who are intrinsically motivated are more successful coping with stress and adapt themselves to the unpleasant environmental conditions (Barney & Elias, 2010; Hudson, 2013; Lai, 2011; Ryan &Deci, 2000). Hussain et al., (2015) demonstrate that intrinsic motivation moderates the effect of work stress, job overload and performance pressure on job satisfaction.In another study by Weinstein and Ryan (2011), the results showed that high level of intrinsic motivation and self-determination reducethe harmful impacts of stressors (job stress, work overload, different work pressure etc.).

Despite extensive researches on intrinsic motivation, but so far,there has been little work regarding to the important role of intrinsic motivation as a moderator in reducing job stress.Therefore, we have chosen this important personal variable to test as a buffer against negative impacts of one severe kind of work stressors (job insecurity) on job performance.

2.7.6 Intrinsic Motivation and Job Insecurity

As far as we know, just there is only one research related to the job insecurity and intrinsic motivation. The result of the research titled "Effects of Job Insecurity and Creative Self-efficacy on Employees' Creativity" showed that based on intrinsic motivation theory, impacts of job insecurity and creative self-efficacy mediated by intrinsic motivation (Zhou & Long, 2011).

2.8 Theoretical Framework

The research model has suggested a structural analysis between job insecurity, job performance, psychological strains and psychological leverages among frontline employees in the hospitality industry, as pictured in Figure 2.4.

In related literature, work stressors have been suggested and worked, but empirical studies which focused on JI as a work stressor and its consequences on FEs behavior in the hospitality industry are rare. Also, the two representative of psychological strain considered as mediators are anxiety and emotional exhaustion, as previously suggested Schreurs et al., (2012). The last test is regarding to the psychological leverages (SS&IM) as moderators on the relation between job insecurity with JP. The relations between constructs to be tested are obtained from three theoretical frameworks: Job-Demand Resource (J-DR) theory, Conservation of Resource (COR) theory and Self-Determination (S-D) theory.
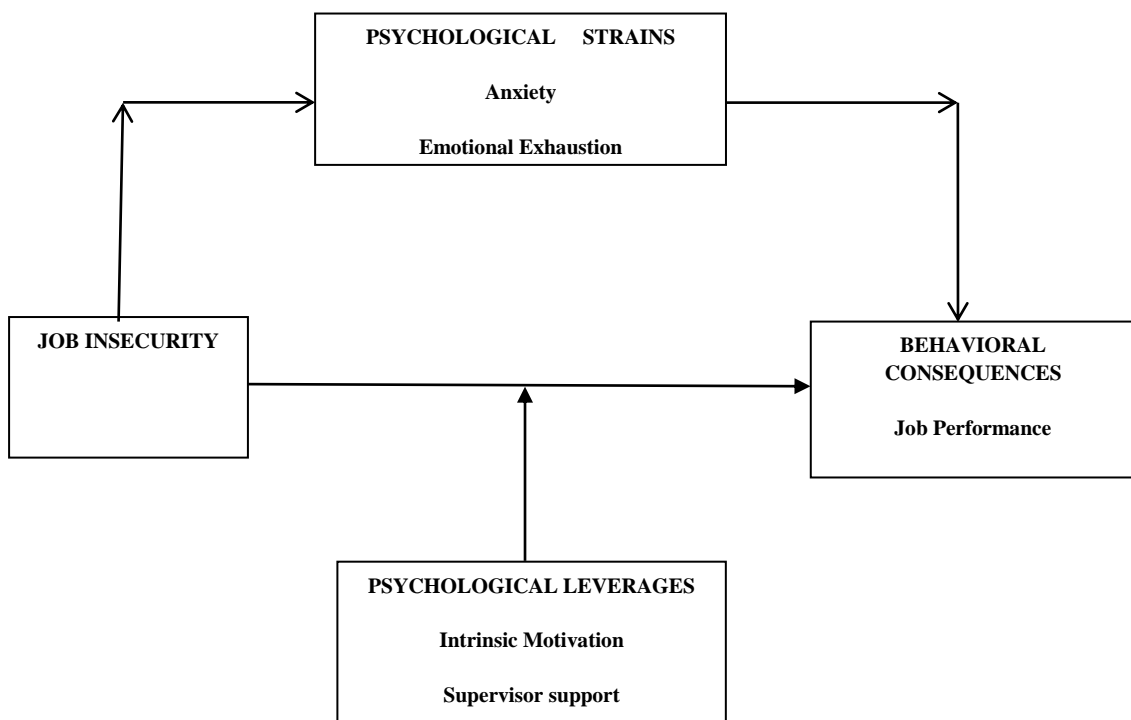
Figure 2.4: Mediating & Moderating model

2.8.1 Job Demand – Resource Theory

J-DR theory (Demerouti, et al., 2001) is a work stress model which proposes that strain (i.e. anxiety or emotional exhaustion) is a response to imbalance between job demand (i.e. job insecurity) and job resource (supervisory support). This model puts working conditions into two main categories – job demands and job resources:

- **Job Demand** is concerned with the physical, social or organizational features of the work which need stable physical and psychological attempt that are connected to physiological or psychological costs. These features include time pressure, work or role overload, stressful working environment, role ambiguity, role conflict, emotional labor, and as well as poor communication.

- **Job Resource** focuses on the physical, social or organizational features of the work, which help employees to decrease job demands effect and its consequences (physiological, psychological and behavioral strain). These futures can be autonomy, strong work relationship, opportunities for advancement, coaching and mentoring, and learning and development and etc...

Actually the job demand-resource model (Demerouti, et al., 2001) is a theoretical framework that tries to integrate two fairly independent researches tradition: the stress research and the motivation research tradition. High job demands exhaust employees' mental and physical resources and then therefore lead to the depletion of

energy and to health problems. This is the stress process. In contrast, job resources foster employees' engagement and recovery performance (see figure 2.5).
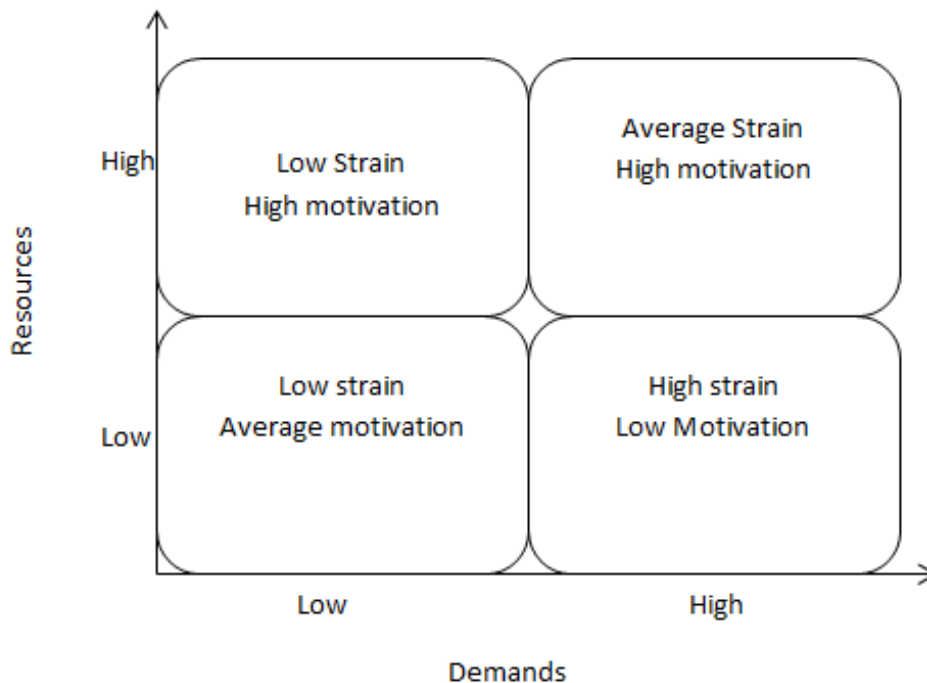
Figure 2.5: JD-R model, Demerouti, et al., (2001)

2.8.2 Conservation of Resource Theory

COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) emerged based on psychological theories of stress and motivation. Social scientists who study stress have found that personal resources (i.e. perceived control, self-efficacy, self-esteem, intrinsic motivation) and social resource (i.e. emotional support, supervisor support, coworker support, friends and family support) reduce the potential negative effect of stressful work or life conditions. The resources (e.g. self-esteem, intrinsic motivation or self-efficacy) and social resources (e.g. support from family, coworkers or supervisors). According to this theory, people experience stress when their resources are finished. For example, the model proses that work family conflict leads to stress because resources (i.e. time & energy)

are lost in the process of juggling both work and family roles, which in turn leads to job dissatisfaction, anxiety, and thoughts about quitting ones' job. COR theory claims that individual differences and social support can be considered as resources in minimizing the effects of stressors on performance outcomes. As earlier pointed out, supervisor and coworker support can be considered as a social resource to mitigate the negative impacts of job insecurity as a work stressor on performance outcomes (Schereurs et al., 2012).

2.8.3 Self- Determination Theory

Self- Determination theory is a theory of motivation that is concerned with the beneficial effects of intrinsic (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Self- Determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002) proposes that people naturally need to grow and obtain fulfillment. While individuals are frequently motivated to do something by extrinsic motivation such as money, prizes, and also acclaim, but S-D theory emphasizes on intrinsic motivation like a need to get knowledge, consciousness or independence. Based on this theory, people need to feel the following in order to achieve such psychological growth:

- **Competence:** people need to gain knowledge and ability of tasks and learn difficult different skills.

- **Connection or relatedness:** people need to experience a sense of belonging and attachment to other people.

- **Autonomous:** people need to feel in control of their own behaviors and goals.

According to the theory, individuals who successfully meet these three main intrinsic needs will become self-determinant and can as well be intrinsically motivated to deal with stressful conditions for an enhanced job performance.

SELF DETERMINATION THEORY

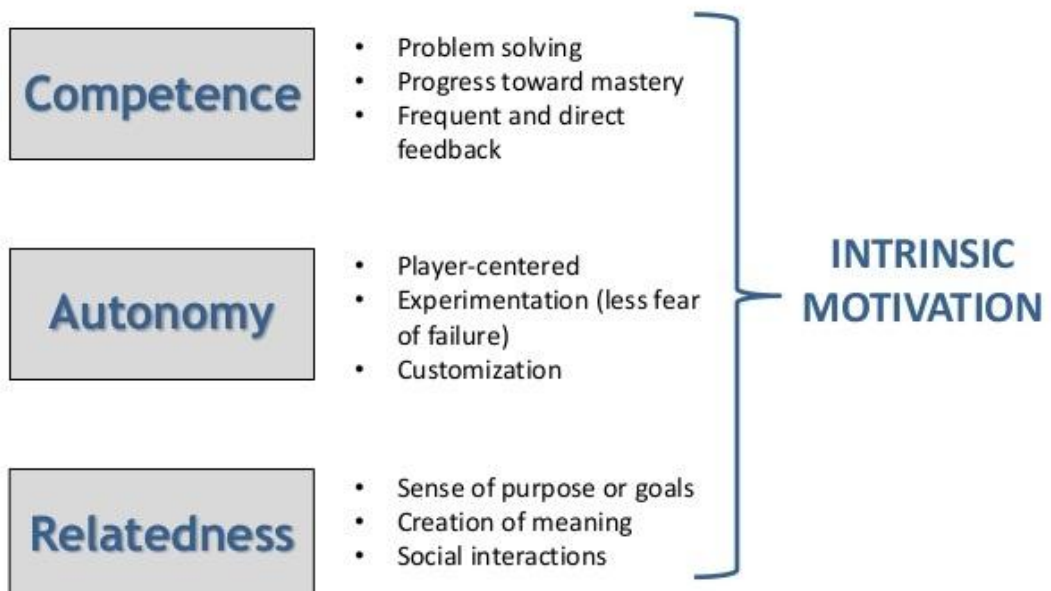| Competence	• Problem solving • Progress toward mastery • Frequent and direct feedback	
Autonomy	• Player-centered • Experimentation (less fear of failure) • Customization	INTRINSIC MOTIVATION
Relatedness	• Sense of purpose or goals • Creation of meaning • Social interactions	

Figure 2.6: Self - Determination theory, (Deci & Ryan, 2002)

Chapter 3

HYPOTHESES

3.1Job Insecurity and Job Performance

According to J-DR theory, job demands are the basic forecaster of negative work strain (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). Based on this theory Job insecurity as a kind of job demand and work stressor factor (Leka, Griffiths, & Cox, 2003 ; Rigotti et al., 2015)is defined as the workers' thought about their occupation which is at risk or likely to lose their jobin the eventual occurrence (Grunberg, Moore, & Greenberg, 2006)**.**However it doesn't necessarily mean that they will really lose their job (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2014). Scholars have proposed that the essential feature of job insecurity is the level of uncertainty which employees associate with job continuity (Hui & Lee, 2000). Job insecurityas a sever job stressor to employee (Rigotti, Mohr, & Isaksson, 2015), has been found to be negatively related to different job outcomes (Zhang et al., 2014 ; Wang et al., 2014). As well as in two meta-analysis (Cheng& Chan, 2008; Gilboa et al., 2008), job insecurity is found to be significantly negatively associated with job performance. Unsal-Akbiyik, et al. (2012) argued that seasonable employees perceive higher levels of JI comparing to permanent workers. Bert et al., (2012) found that JI has a negative effect on in-role performance. Similarity Cheng et al., (2008) expressed that employees who suffer from high level of JI generally perform worse. George& Jones (2005) believed that stress likely lead to negative behavioral consequences like low performance or turnover intention. All these views are consistent with some empirical studies that JI is a hindrance stressor resulting in

51

negative behavioral consequences in the workplace (Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010). According, these results we hypothesized that:

H1: Job insecurity will decrease frontline employee's job performance.

3.2 Job Insecurity and Psychological Strains

Elitharp (2005) argued that stress has both negative and positive consequences, which strain is one of the nugatory results of stress. Strain has been described as a serious of physiological and psychological reactions to the stressors, which includes chronic problems with physical well-being(Cartwright & Cooper, 2009). Psychological strain (PS) is considered prominently as a negative consequence of psycho-social workplace condition (high job demands and low job resource)(Panatik, 2012).Consistent with J-D resource theory, some changes and conditions in the organization and workplace reduce the workers' physical and mental resources due to stressors(e.g. work ambiguity or emotional demands), and subsequently increase the possibility of psychological strain(Demerouti&Bekker, 2011).Previous literature and studies have evidenced a positive relationship between JI and PS (Witte, 2010&Burgarda, et al. 2009). The psychological reaction of employees to short time stress resulting to JI could be depression, anxiety, tension (Gazzaniga & Heatherton, 2003), while those for long-time lead to serious mental and physical problems like emotional exhaustion(Li, Lin, & Fang, 2010). Past studies have revealed that JI causes emotional exhaustion (EE) among employees (Elst et al., 2014 &Li et al., 2010). On the relation between JI and burnout,Bosman, et al. (2005) found that JI is a predictor for EE, cynicism and as well as reduction professional efficacy. Recent research on aged employees also found that perceived JI is linked with poor health outcomes as anxiety and depression (Burgard, Kalousova, & Seefeldt, 2012). Based on these results we can hypothesize that:

H2 (a): JI is positively related to anxiety among frontline employees.

H2 (b): JI is positively related to emotional exhaustion among frontline employees.

3.3 Psychological Strains as a Mediator

Results in the related literature consistently show that there is partial or full mediation role of psychological strain in the relation between job stressors and work outcomes (Falco et al., 2013; Ding et al., 2014). Psychological strain (PS) as an intermediator between stressful work and turnover (Croon, et al., 2004), significant mediator in the relation between job demands andJP (Lang et al., 2007), and its full mediator role between job discrepancy and job burnout (Khalid & Naeem, 2013) are some examples in this case.

This study contends that ANX and EE as sample of PS(George & Jones, 2005) mediate the impact of JI as a job stressor(Elst, Broeck, Cuyper, & Witte, 2014)on JP. Karatepe, et al. 2015 showed that EE mediates the impact of organization mission fulfillment on performance and turnover intention. In another study,Karatepe et al., (2014) demonstrated that the total mediation role of EE in the relation between emotional dissonance with turnover intention and absenteeism which are two components of behavioral consequences of stress. The findings of a study on 691 automotive workers have demonstrated that ANX and depression mediate the impact of job demand on perceived quality of life (Rusli, Edimansyah, & Naing, 2008). Roy (2014), has shown that ANX partially mediates the pathway from ADHD (Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder) to depression, and also ANX levels have mediated the impact of stressed condition on working memory system (Hood, et al., 2015).Accordingly, it has been suggested that JI influences JP indirectly through anxiety and emotional exhaustion. Thus:

H3 (a): JI exerts an indirect negative effect on FEs' job performance through anxiety.

H3 (b): JI exerts an indirect negative effect on FEs' job performance through emotional exhaustion.

3.4 Psychological Leverages as a Buffer

Considering the negative consequences of JI, several researchers made efforts to determine factors which have likelihood of reducing these effects. Based on COR theory, employees will possibly be able to deal with work stressors, if they have adequate social and personal resources (Hagger, et al., 2015;Siu, et al., 2014). Previous researches have shown that personal and social assets have a significant role in reducing the negative effects of JI. The results of related literature have revealed that emotional and instrumental support (Li, Hu, & Zhou, 2014), Supervisor support (Huang et al., 2013), perceived employability (Silla et al. 2009), and also self-efficacy (Adebayo, 2006), successfully lessen the negative impacts of JI. Chirumbolo (2014) showed the moderating role of honesty-humility as a personal asset in the relationship between JI and counterproductive work behaviors. Schreurset al., (2012) measured the moderating role of social support (supervisor & coworker support) in the relation between JI and performance outcome. The result showed that supervisor support buffer against the negative affect of JI on in-role performance. Also researchers in this discoursesuggestthat intrinsic motivation asan individual resource (Babakus, et al., 2008) and important feature of best frontline employees(Brewer, 1994) may buffer the negative affect of stress, which results from JI among frontline employee. Intrinsic motivation (IM) is also found to be largely related to emotional exhaustion, burnout, and professional accomplishment (Leiter, Bakker, & Maslach, 2014). Given to the intrinsically motivated employee's (IME) characteristic of the S-D theory, this study proposes that IM may moderate frontline

employees' stress resulting from JI. In other words, employees' level of IM may create a positive copping affect and moderate the harmful effect of stress derived from JI on performance outcome among FEs. Deci and Ryan (1985) argued that IM provides continues performance of a work. Based on the above discussion and empirical results, the following hypothesizes are proposed:

H4 (a): Intrinsic motivation moderates the negative effects of JI on job performance among FEs.

 H4 (b): Supervisor support moderates the negative effects of JI on job performance among FEs.

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Sample and Data Collection

The research was conducted in hospitality industry in north Cyprus. According to the ministry of tourism at the time of conducting the survey, there are 15 Five-star hotels and 4 Four-star hotels in north Cyprus .the research team contacted with all of these four and five star hotels' administrations prior to the execution of the research. Among these hotels, 8 five-star hotels and 1 four-star hotel were accepted to participate into the study. To facilitate data collection, the researchers approached the management of the selected hotels with letters of authorization to conduct survey; however. Approval did not permit researches to collect data directly from FEs. The related responsible staff themselves distributed questionnaires among target groups and filled questionnaires were returned to the researchers. Ultimately, the sample was selected via judgmental samplingfrom employees who work as door attendants, bell attendants, concierges, bartenders, receptionist, as well as food/beverage servers which are believed to frequently have face-to-face contact with customers.

A total of 350 questionnares were distributed among FEs but only 292 questionnares were returened, which among them 288 were valid and included in the analysis proces,whit 82.14% respons rate.Demographic information shown in table 1 indicates that 85%(n = 244) were between the ages of 29-38, while only 3% (n = 1) were between 49-58. Around 52%(n = 150) of respondents were female and around

48% (n = 138) were male.In terms of tenure around 11% (n=31) were less than one year, 71% (n = 204) of respondents had tenures between 1-5 years, while 14.6 % (n = 42) had between 6-10 years and the remaining with tenures of more than 10 years .Around half of them (n = 149) had a diploma education and 38% (n = 111) with bachelor degree. The maritail status for 70% (n = 202) of them was married and around 29% (n = 82) were single.

Table 4.1: Demographic Information (N=288)

Control Variable	Frequencies	Percentage
Age		
18-28	22	7.6
29-38	244	84.7
39-48	21	7.3
49-58	1	.3
59 and above	-	-
Total	288	100.0
Gender		
Male	138	47.9
Female	150	52.1
Total	288	100.0
Tenure		
Less than1	31	10.8
1-5	204	70.8
6-10	42	14.6
11-15	7	2.4
16-20	4	1.4
21 and above	-	-
Total	288	100.0
Education		
Less than diploma	19	6.6
Diploma	149	51.7
Bachelor	111	38.5
Master	9	3.1
PhD and above	-	-
Total	288	100.0
Marital statues		
Single	82	28.5
Married	202	70.1
Divorced	4	1.4
Total	288	100.0

4.2 Measurement

Job insecurity wastestedvia4 items (e.g., "I worry regarding to the continuance of my job" or "I fear that maybe losing my job")obtained from De Witte (2000).Emotional exhaustion (4 items) was operationalizedthrough items (e.g., "I feel used up at the end of the workday" and "I feel frustrated with my current job") derived from Maslach and Jackson (1981). Anxiety (6 items) (e.g., "I have a sense of fidgety or nervous as a result of my job" and "I have over much works and too little time to do it") obtained from(Parker & DeCotiis, 1983). Supervisor support was tested using of 4 items(e.g., "my supervisor gives me guidance on how to handle things" and "my supervisor helps me with given duties") from Peeters et al., (1995), while intrinsic motivation was measured by 4 items (e.g., "when I do my job well, I have a sense of accomplishment" and "I have a great sense of satisfaction while I do my work well") from Low et al., (2001). Finally job performance (5 items) (e.g., " considered employee knows better about service delivery to clients than other frontline employees" and " considered employee knows what their clients expect better than other frontline employees") were adopted from Babin and Boles, (1998). In testing the hypothesis, we controlled tenure, which was found is related to the job insecurity (Zhang et al., 2014).

All instruments were designed in English first and thereafterwere translated into Turkish through back translation procedure. When this was done, all items were translated back into English to check that the translated version is comparable to the original version (McGorry, 2000). All six constructs (JI, ANX, EE, IM, SS, JP)were solicited using of five –point Likert scale of5: strongly agree to 1: strongly disagree. A pilot study was conducted to validate the study measurement scales through 10

FEs and also 2 supervisors. According to results, no changes were considered necessary. Job insecurity, anxiety, emotional exhaustion, intrinsic motivation, supervisor support and demographic information were self-related by frontline employees, whereas job performance was supervisor-rated.

4.3 Data Analysis

All the items were subjected to exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (EFA &CFA) to assess both convergent and discriminant validity (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996) using SPSS 22 and LISREL 8.54, and then a structural model was analyzed.All items internal consistency reliabilities wereexaminedvia the generallyaccepted threshold of .70. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis done to examine the mediating and moderating analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986)using SPSS 22. In the analysis predicting EE and ANX, tenure was entered in step 1 and job insecurity in step 2. For predicting JP,tenure was used in step 1, JI in step 2 and EE and ANX in stage 3 (Mediating analysis). For moderating process, JP entered as a dependent variable and then control variable was entered in step 1, job insecurity and IM in step 2, and the JI*IM interaction terms in step 3.The same procedure was done for supervisor support as a moderator.

Chapter 5

RESULT

5.1 Measurement Results and Descriptive Statistics

The researchers conducted a series of CFAs using LISREL to examine the model fit. The results in Table 5.1 showed that the six-factor model (M0) based on CFA ($\chi2=$ 457.80, df = 309; $\chi2$/df =1.48; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.98; incremental fit index (IFI) = .98; Goodness Fit Index (GFI) = 0.89; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .041) had an acceptable fit to the data (the common practice proposes that for accepting the model, CFI, IFI and GFI shall exceed 0.90 (Bentler, 1990 ; Bentler&bonett, 1980), and provided RMSEA shall below 0.05 (Browne &Cudeck, 1993). All standard loadings ranged from .54 to 0.98.

In the next step, the construct validity of the measurement model was tested. Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were used to test the convergent validity (CR>0.70; AVE>0.50; CR>AVE) while the Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV) and Average Squared Variance (ASV) were used to test the discriminant validity (MSV< AVE; ASV < AVE) of the measurement model (Hair et al., 2010). The results showed that AVE and CR for each latent variable were greater than 0.50 and 0.70, respectively. MSV and ASV results were lower compared to the AVE values, which provides evidence of convergent and discriminant validity among the study measurements. Table 5.2 depicts Standardized loadings, AVE, CR, MSV, and ASV for all constructs.

A set of fit indices was used to test the structural model. The results showed that the hypothesized six-factor structural model, including JI, ANX, EE, SS, IM and JP fit the data well, ($\chi 2$= 12.45, df = 7; $\chi 2$/df = 1.78 ; CFI = 0.97; GFI = 0.99; IFI = 0.97, and RMSEA = 0.05). The structural model tested the mediating role of psychological strain, as well as the moderating effect of psychological advantage on the relation between job insecurity and job performance.

Composite scores for all measures were calculated by averaging scores of items related to each latent variable. Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Cronbach's alpha, and the correlations among research variables are presented in Table 5.3. Means for each variable respectively are ageJob insecurity correlated significantly with tenure (r= -.18), job performance (r= -.16), anxiety (r= .16), emotional exhaustion (r= .27), intrinsic motivation (r= .40), and supervisor support (r= .36).

Table 5.1: Results of model comparisons using a CFA approach

Models	Descriptions	$\chi2$	df	$\Delta\chi2$	Δdf	MC	CFI	GFI	IFI	RMSEA
Six-factor Model (M0)	F1: JI; F2: ANX; F3: EE F4: SS; F5: IM; F6: JP	457.81	309				0.98	0.89	0.98	0.041
Five-factor Model (M1)	F1: JI; F2: ANX & EE F3: SS; F4: IM; F6: JP	537.68	314	79.87	5	M0&M1	0.89	0.90	0.89	0.037
Four-factor Model (M2)	F1: JI; F2: ANX & EE F3: SS&IM; F4: JP	542.45	318	84.64	9	M0&M2	0.96	0.88	0.97	0.050
There-factor Model (M3)	F1: JI, EE &ANX; F2: SS& IM; F3: JP	934.77	321	476.96	12	M0&M3	0.87	0.81	0.87	0.082
Two-factor Model (M4)	F1: JI; F2: EE, ANX, SS, IM & JP	1639.88	323	1182.07	14	M0&M4	0.72	0.70	0.73	0.120
One-factor Model (M5)	F1: JI, EE, ANX, SS, IM & JP	1999.87	324	1542.06	15	M0&M5	0.66	0.66	0.66	0.134

NOTE: all models compared to the baseline six-factor model (M0).

Table 5.2: Items, Sources and Factor loadings Results

Items	Standardized Loadings	AVE	CR	MSV	ASV
Job insecurity (De Witte, 2000)		.88	.97	.18	.10
It makes me anxious which maybe become unemployed.	.94				
I'm concerned regarding to the continuance of my work.	.94				
I fear that maybe losing my work..	.93				
I'm feeling insecure regarding to the future of my work.	.94				
Anxiety (De Cotiis, 1983)		.75	.94	.07	.02
There are many times while my job drives me right up a wall.	.86				
My work gets to me higher than it should.	.94				
Sometimes when I think to my job I have a tight feeling in my chest.	.98				
I have a sense of fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.	.91				
I have overmuch works and too little time to do it.	.98				
Many people at my level in the company get burned out through job demand.	.54				
Emotional exhaustion (Maslach& Jackson, 1981)		.83	.95	.08	.03
I feel emotionally drained from my current job.	.92				
I feel used up at the end of the workday.	.89				
I feel frustrated with my current job.	.94				
Every day working with this people is really a strain for me.	.91				
Intrinsic motivation (Low et al., 2001)		.72	.91	.41	.14
When I do my job well, I have a sense of accomplishment.	.85				
I have a great sense of satisfaction while I do my work well.	.83				
While I do my work well, it has contribution to my personal growth and development.	.86				
My job raises my feeling of self-esteem.	.85				
Supervisor Support (Peeters et al., 1995)		.75	.92	.41	.13
My supervisor shows that they like me.	.90				
My supervisor shows that he/she appreciated the way of doing the job.	.83				
My supervisor gives me guidance on how to manage job.	.88				
My supervisor helps me to do my duties.	.85				
Job Performance (Babin&Boles, 1998)		.54	.85	.08	.05
Considered employee is one of the top performers.	.69				
Considered employee is in the top 10% of FEs here.	.72				
Considered employee gets along better with clients than other FEs.	.73				
Considered employee knows better about service delivery to clients rather than other FEs.	.75				
Considered employee knows better what clients expect rather than other FEs.	.78				

NOTES: all items are measured by a 5-point scale.

Table 5.3: Means, SD, Cα and Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	Cα	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1- Age	2.00	.40	-	1.00										
2- Gender	.52	.50	-	-.04	1.00									
3- Tenure	2.13	.68	-	.01	.02	1.00								
4- Marital status	1.73	.48	-	.01	-.02	.08	1.00							
5- Education level	2.38	.66	-	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.15	1.00						
6- Job Insecurity	3.90	1.15	.97	.01	.02	-.18**	-.02	-.04	1.00					
7- Anxiety	2.70	.63	.94	.15	-.08	-.00	.07	-.11	.16**	1.00				
8- Emotional Exhaustion	3.27	1.07	.95	-.04	-.00	-.09	-.03	.12	.27**	.05	1.00			
9- Intrinsic Motivation	4.37	.79	.91	-.05	.05	-.02	.04	.09	.40**	.02	.19**	1.00		
10- Supervisor Support	4.18	.80	.92	-.03	.01	-.02	.07	.10	.36**	- .05	.10	.59**	1.00	
11- Job Performance	3.98	.54	.85	-.03	.08	-.01	-.06	.02	-.16**	- .25**	-.08	.24**	.25**	1.00

Note: Composite scores for each variable were computed by averaging respective item scores.
**Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed test).

5.2 Hypothesis Test Results

Study hypotheses were tested using a three-step hierarchical linear regression (Zheng et al., 2014) in SPSS 22. As shown in Table 4, a significant negative relation emerged between JI ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .01$) and JP, supporting H1. Moreover, the findings demonstrated a significant and positive relation between JI and ANX ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$) and between JI and EE ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$). Therefore, H2 (a) and H2 (b) were also accepted.

The findings regarding the indirect effect of JI on JP via ANX and EE are summarized in Table 5.4. As mentioned before, H3 (a) and H3 (b) proposed a partial mediating role of JI. The mediating impact of ANX and EE can be measured through comparing the significant levels before and after entering in the analysis. If after entering ANX or EE, the relation between JI and JP become non-significant, the full mediating is cleared, but if after entering mediators, the relation (JI & JP) is still significant, but the estimate lessen strongly, the mediating role is partial(Baron & Kenny, 1986). The results showed that when ANX ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .001$) was entered in the analysis, the magnitudes of the effect of JI ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .05$) on JP decreased but, remained significant. The result of Sobel test also showed that ANX significantly mediated the relation between JI and JP ($t = 2.25$, $p < .05$). The findings further showed that ANX partially mediated the effect of JI on JP, supporting H3 (a). However, H3 (b) was not supported. First, based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) model, no significant correlation emerged between EE and JP ($r = -.08$, $p =$ n.s.). The results of regression analysis also did not support the mediating effect of EE ($-.04$, n.s.).

H4 (a) and H4 (b) proposed that IM and SS would moderate the relation between JI and JP. The results shown in Table 5.5 show the positive relations of JI (β = -.31, p< .001), IM (β = .37, p< .001), and as well as SS (β = .35, P< .001) with job performance. The analysis showed that the joint effects of JI*IM (β = .73, p< .05) and JI*SS (β = .72, p < .05) on JP are significant, suggesting that IM and SS decrease the negative affect of JI on JP. In addition, the researches plotted the JI $\times$ IM and JI $\times$ SS interactions at two levels of IM and SS (e.g., +1 SD, -1 SD; Bauer et al., 2005) and conducted a simple slope test to examine the nature of the interaction. The interactions are graphically displayed in Figure 5.1 and 5.2. The results show that intrinsic motivation and supervisor support inhibit the negative effect of job insecurity on job performance. Therefore both H4 (a) and H4 (b) were accepted.

TABLE 5.4: Regression Results: direct and indirect effects

Variables	Anxiety				Emotional Exhaustion				Job Performance					
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Step1														
Tenure	-.00	-.01	.03	.48	-.09	-1.58	- .05	- .80	-.01	-.21	-.04	-.71	-.04	-.64
Step2														
Job insecurity			.16**	2.73			.26*	4.49			-.17**	-2.8	-.12***	-1.98
Step 3														
Anxiety													-.23*	-3.90
Emotional exhaustion													-.04	- .60
F		.00		3.73***		2.50		11.40*		.04		3.93***		5.97*
R^2 at each step		.00		.03		.01		.07		.00		.03		.08
Δ^2		-		.03				.06				.03		.05

Sobel Test:

Job Insecurity $\rightarrow$ Anxiety $\rightarrow$ job performance: 2.24***

Note: * P<.001, **P<.01, ***P<.05 (2-tailed test). The results regarding variance inflation factor did not show any problems of multicollinearity.

TABLE 5.5: Regression Results: Moderating Effects

Variables			Job Performance				Variables			Job Performance			
	β	t	β	t	β	t		β	t	β	t	β	t
Step1							*Step1*						
Tenure	-.01	-.21	-.06	-1.10	-.05	-.92	Tenure	-.01	-.20	-.06	-1.03	-.05	-.86
Step2							*Step2*						
Job insecurity			-.32*	-5.22	-.83**	-3.48	Job insecurity			-.30*	-4.91	-.83*	-3.70
Intrinsic Motivation			.37*	6.17	.04	.27	Supervisor Support			.35*	5.91	.04	.30
Step 3							*Step3*						
JI*IM					.73***	2.22	JI*SS					.72***	2.46
F		.04		15.65*		13.14*	*F*		.04		14.58*		12.65*
R^2 at each step		.00		.14		.16	R^2 at each step		.00		.13		.15
$\triangle R^2$				.14		.02	$\triangle R^2$				.13		.02

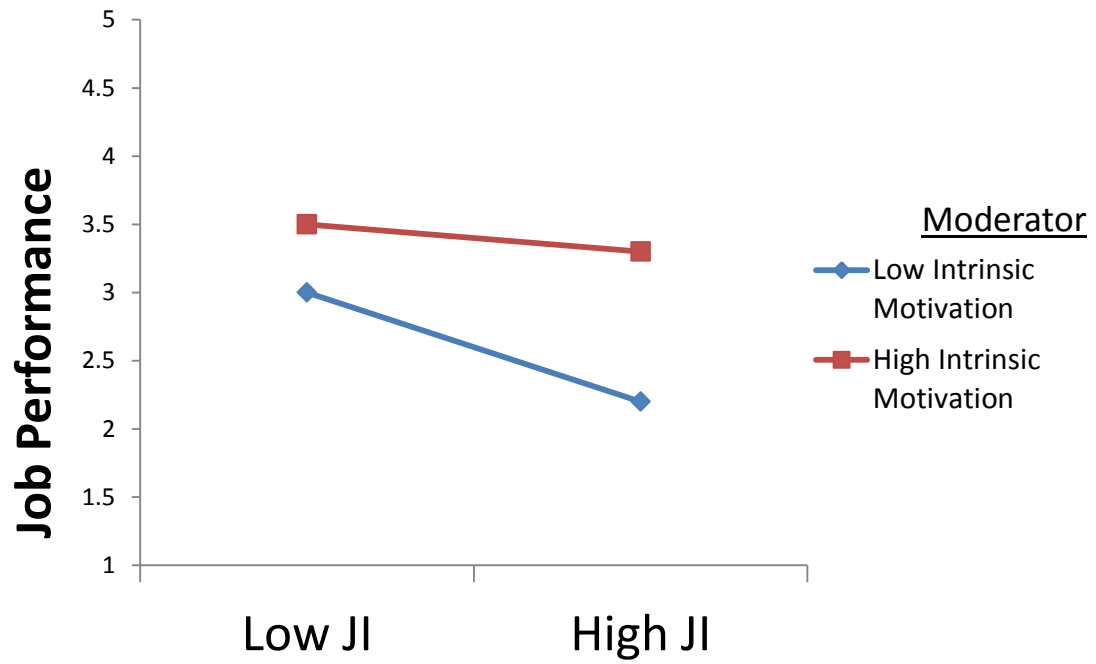*Note:* * P<.001, **P<.01, ***P<.05 (2-tailed test).

Fig 5.1:Interactive Effect of Job Insecurity and Intrinsic Motivation
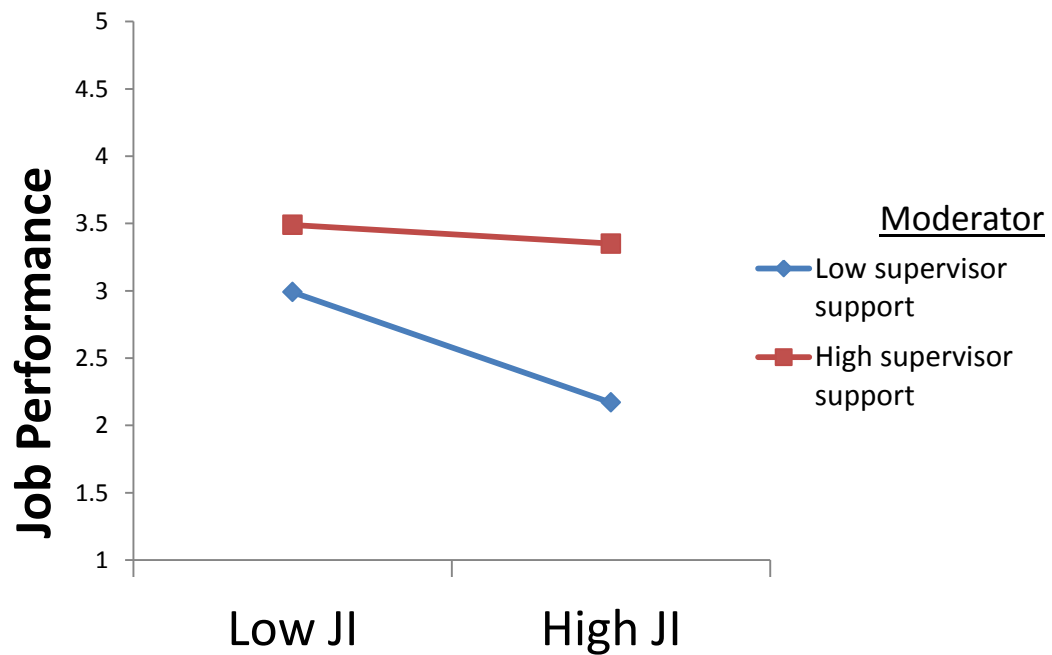

Fig 5.2:Interactive effect of job insecurity and supervisor support

Chapter 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Discussion

The present study, is designed based on J-DR theory (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), COR theory (Hobfoll S. , 1989) and S-D theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002). First, examine the relation between job insecurity (JI) and job performance (JP) as a representative of stress behavioral consequences. The second, test the mediation role of psychological strains (PS) on the JI and JP relationship, and finally the thirdassessing the role of psychological leverage (PL) as a buffer versus the negative effect of JI. To our knowledge, this research is among the first to examine the effects of JI on JP among frontline employees in hospitality industry. This paper enhances our understanding regarding to the process of the negative impact of job insecurity on job performance through PS, as well as our findings point to the importance of PL (supervisor support and intrinsic motivation) as buffers against JI.

Due to high work intensity, lack of unionization, private or contingent contracts, as well as a poorly developed internal labor market in the hospitality industry(Vujičić, et al., 2014), it has been assumed that this group of workers suffer from job insecurity. The results have confirmed that around 74 % of target sample suffer from job insecurity. Also the results confirmed that FEs who suffer from job insecurity, have lower job performance. This result can be affirmed by the viewpoint of George

and Jones (2005), who expressed that low performance, is one of the negative behavioral consequences resulting to work stress. This research found that JI is an undesirable job-demand that hinders worker's job-goal attainment (Podsakoff, 2007). These findings are in line with the majority of researches, which worked on the relation between JI and JP (e.g., Wang et al., 2014; Schreurs et al., 2012; Anwar et al., 2011, and Staufenbiel et al., 2010.

On the role of psychological strain, findings indicate that FEs who suffer from job insecurity are also suffering from anxiety(ANX)and emotional exhaustion (EE).This result is buttressed by the JD-R model as considered above.Demerouti, et al., (2001) argue that any disruption in the physical, social or organizational features of the work, which help employees to decrease job demands; surely lead to negative consequences (physiological, psychological and behavioral strain). Consistent with the JD-R theory, it could be the case that job insecurity as a job stressor creates anxiety and emotional exhaustion as psychological strains among frontline employees. However, the results confirmed only the mediating role of ANX between the JI and JP. It means that the partial decreasing in job performance resulting of job insecurity refers to the mediating role of anxiety, but the result didn't support the mediating role of EE. It can be argued that EE occurs from high levels of stress in the long term (Li, Lin, & Fang, 2010), and since most of these employees have tenure between 1-5 years, theymay suffer from EE,but the intensity of EE may not be enough to reduce the impact of JI on JP and works as a mediator. The mediating role of PS is in agreement with the work of Khalid &Naeem (2013).

Finally, the moderating impact of PL on the JI-JP relation was also tested. The results demonstrated that both supervisor support (SS) as a social resource and

intrinsic motivation (IM) as a personal resource decrease the negative impact of JI on JP. This tallies with COR theory, which refers to the power of different sources in individuals as capable of helping them cope with stress. The findings highlight the important role of SS for FEs in service delivery in the hospitality industry. The result related to SS is corroborated bySchreurs et al., (2012). Also the moderating role of IM as a buffer against negative JI impact is significant. This finding precisely isconsistent with Self-Determination theory, which argued that intrinsically motivated employees follow their interests in the work and they are more successful to deal with work stressors. The result related to the moderating role of personal resource is consistent with Zheng et al., (2014) work.

6.2Theoretical Contribution

Current research makes important and meaningful theoretical contributions to the existing literature in the hospitality and service management. This study contributes to the job insecurity literature through extending the negative consequences of job insecurity. To date, very few empirical studies have been conducted on different JI consequences (physical, psychological and behavioral). Addressing this gap, this study tested the behavioral and psychological consequences of JI as a job stressor among frontline employees in hospitality industry.

More importantly, it is crucial to examine the role of PS in the stressor − outcome relationship. Although previous studies have focused on different mediators in a positive dimension on the relation between job insecurity and job outcomes (De Spiegelaere et al., 2014; Vander Elst et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014), none of them explored the mechanisms through which JI negatively affects JP. Accordingly,

current study examined the mediating role of psychological strain (anxiety &emotional exhaustion) on the JI – JP relationship.

Additionally, another theoretical contribution of this research refers to the buffering role of psychological leverage. Based on the COR theory, SS as a social support and IM as a personal support were tested as moderators. Current research advances the existing literature on dealing with workplace stressors via examining the interaction effect of JI with SS and IM on performance outcome. The research model showed that adequate SS could reduce the negative effect of JI. This model also suggests that highly intrinsically motivated employees are more likely to be able to deal with the job stress.

6.3 Managerial Implications

The results obtained from current research, have provided several useful implications for administrators, practitioners and researchers in the hospitality industry.

It is imperative to note that Job insecurity among employees in hospitality industry is not a strange occurrence. Since the nature of hospitality industry is one which combines primary and secondary labor market features (Kusluvan, 2003), there tends to be intensive work condition and high turnover intention (Vujičić, et al., 2014).As it is evidencedin the related researches (Ünsal-Akbıyık, et al., 2012), as well as in current research, most of these employees are worried of about job loss,or in other wordssuffer from job insecurity. Managers should accept that job insecurity is a stressful issue with irreparable negative results such as depression, anxiety, emotional exhaustion and burnout (Elst et al., 2014; Boya, et al., 2008; Bosman, et al., 2005).With this knowledge, managers should deploy very serious and deliberate

decisions to minimize the harmful stress result from job insecurity which are found to havesevere psychological and behavioral consequences.They should make sure that appropriate human resource practices like contracts, payments, promotion, performance appraisal system and policies are all transparently built and explained to the employees.

The findings of the current study highlighted the prominent role of supervisor support to minimize the stress resulting from job insecurity. The buffering result of supervisor support proposes that providing verbal and practical training to supervisors and managers may helpthem to improve their behavioral knowledge, ability and skills. Also, Trainings which concentrate on supportive leadership must be put in place to enable supervisors and managers prepare an extensive program for employees to achieve the expected level of support. Through efforts such as verbal/nonverbal communication, organizing the sources, solving problems, providing information and latest technology as well as physical assistance, Managers/ supervisors can motivate and boost self-esteem of their employees while at the same time availing room to minimize stress. Overall organizational support should comprehensively include both emotional and instrumental support (Li et al., 2010).

As well as employee's selection is a very pivotal function in many organizations. Personality characteristics play an important role in satisfying frontline service job requirements (Lee, Kim, Shin, & Oh, 2012). It is recommended in critical and sensitive jobs, where the service providers and users contact each other directly either face to face or voice to voice. This requires employees with high personality traits, like self-confidence, intrinsicallymotivationandself-efficacy. Individual's high

personality traits differences have positive effect on the relationship between stress and performance. Results showed that intrinsically motivated employees have this ability to reduce the negative effect of stress (Babakus, et al., 2008). Therefore, it is worthy of mention that organizations should apply standard questionnaires and open-ended interviews in order to enable them choose the most suitable employees.

Moreover, stress management interventions must concentrate on encouraging employees to adopt more coping strategies, like involving in problem-solving process, use of alternative possibilities, awareness of personality traits, team working, as well as involving in change process (Cheng, 2013). Based on Herzberg's two-factor theory (1959), managers through job enrichment (giving more responsibilities) can provide a situation for employees that they become more motivated to their job. Enriched jobs result in more satisfied, committed and motivated employees who can better cope with stress.

In addition, a mentoring program is recommended as a coping strategy. By employing professional and resourceful mentors, organizations provide very comprehensive programs to help employees who suffer from work stressors like job insecurity (Demir, et al., 2014). Through mentoring program managers can increase the self- confidence, motivation, self- evaluation as well as self-esteem of employees to cope with work stressors (Gibbons, 2010).

At the end, the presence of written and verbal empowerment will bring about enablement for managers to minimize the stress. Although every employees cannot be empowered, however, existence of these practices will create an impression to all employees about the organization's value to their human capital.

75

6.4 Limitations

In percent study the researchers focused on one kind of behavioral consequences of Job insecurity. The recommendation for prospective researches is to focus on other kind of stress behavioral consequences like turnover intention or absenteeism. Future studies can examine the relation between job insecurity and physical or psychological consequences of stress. The researches have made use of supervisor support and intrinsic motivation as moderators, proposed in future researches also to use other social and individual resources.

Another recommendation is to examine the problem-focused coping (e.g. job shaping or redesign, reduce uncertainty) and emotional – focused coping (e.g. clinical counseling, meditation) to reduce stress in the hospitality industry. The process of data collection was done in one time, but it is desired that other researches should make use of time lag.Since the collection data was done in some hotels in north Cyprus, recommendation is for further researches to be considered in other sectors and/or subsectors of the society.

REFERENCES

Abejirinde, A. A. (2009). Motivation and Workers Performance within Public and Private Enterprises in Nigeria. . *Lapai International Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 2(2), 101-112.

Adebayo, D. O. (2006). The moderating effect of self-efficacy on job insecurity and organisational commitment among Nigerian public servants. *Journal of psychology in Africa*, 16(1), 35-43.

Akgunduz, Y. (2015). The influence of self-esteem and role stress on job performance in hotel businesses. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 27 Iss 6 pp. 1082 -1099.

Allen, A. B., & Leary, M. R. (2010). Self-Compassion, stress, and coping. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 4(2), 107-118.

Almeida, D., Davis, K., Lee, S., Lawson, K., Walter, K., & Moen, P. (2016). Supervisor Support Buffers Daily Psychological and Physiological Reactivity to Work-to-Family Conflict. *journal of marriage and the family*, 78(1):165-179.

Amabile, T. (1991). Motivational synergy Toward new conceptualizations of intrinsic und exlrinsic motivation in the workplace. *Human Resource Managemeni Review.*, 3(3), 185-201.

Anwar, M., Aslam, M., & Tariq, M. (2011). Temporary Job and its Impact on Employee performance. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, 23-28.

Arasli, H., Bavik, A., & Ekiz, E. H. (2006). The effects of nepotism on human resource management: The case of three, four and five star hotels in northern Cyprus. . *International Journal of Sociology and Social policy*, 26(7), 295-308.

Armstrong, G. S., Atkin-Plunk, C. A., & Wells, J. (2015). The Relationship Between Work–Family Conflict, Correctional Officer Supportive supervisors improve employees' daily lives: The role supervisors play in the impact of daily workload on life satisfaction. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65–73.

Babakus, E., Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., & Avci, T. (2003). The effect of management commitment to service quality on employees' affective and performance outcomes. *Journal of Marketing Science* , 31(3): 272–286.

Babakus, E.; Yavas, U.; Karatepe, O.M. (2008). The Effects of Job Demands, Job Resources and Intrinsic Motivation on Emotional Exhaustion and Turnover Intentions: A Study in the Turkish Hotel Industry. *Inlernutional Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration,*, Vol. 9(4), 348-404.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Verbeke, W. (2004). Using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance. *Human Resource Management*, 43, 83–104.

Barney, C. E., & Elias, S. M. (2010). Flex-time as a moderator of the job stress-work motivation relationship: A three nation investigation . *Personnel Review*, 39(4), 487-502.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychologicalresearch: conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* , 1173–1182.

Bentler, P. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol.107, Pp. 238-246.

Bentler, P., & Bonettt, D. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol.88, Pp. 588-606.

Bettencourt, L. A., & Brown, S. W. (1997). Contact employees: relationships among workplace fairness,job satisfaction and prosocial service behaviors,. *Journal of Retailing* , 73(1): 39–61.

Bi, Y., Ma, L., Yuan, F., & Zhang, B. (2016). Self-Esteem, Perceived Stress, and Gender During Adolescence: Interactive Links to Different Types of Interpersonal Relationships. *The Journal of psychology*, 150(1), 36-57.

Bonsu, C. A. (2014). Effects of Motivation on job Performance of Local Government workers in Ghana: A case study of Atwima Nwabiagya District Assembly in the Ashanti Region. *International Journal of Management Sciences* , Vol. 2, No. 8, 2014, 337-350 .

Borg, I., & Elizur, D. (1992). Job insecurity: Correlates, moderators and measurement. *International Journal of Manpower*, 13(2): 13–26.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1993). *Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), Personnel Selection in Organizations (pp. 71-98).* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bosman, J., Buitendach, J., & Laba, K. (2005). Job Insecurity, Burnout And Organisational Commitment Among Employees Of A Financial Institution In Gauteng. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 31 (4), 32-40.

Boya, F. Ö., Demiral, Y., Ergör, A., Akvardar, Y., &Witte, H. D. (2008). Effects of perceived job insecurity on perceived anxiety and depression in nurses. *Industrial health*, 46(6), 613-619.

Boyar, S., & Mosley, D. (2007). The relationship between core self-evaluations and work and family satisfaction: The mediating role of work–family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71, 265-281.

Brewer, G. (1994). Mind reading: What drives top salespeople to greatness? *Sales and Marketing Management.*, 82-88.

Browne, M., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit, in Bollen, K.A. and Long J.S.(Eds), Testing Structural Equation Models. *Sage, Beverley Hills, CA*, 136-162.

Burgard, S. A., Kalousova, L., & Seefeldt, K. S. (2012). Perceived job insecurity and health: the Michigan Recession and Recovery Study. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 54(9), 1101-1106.

Burgard, S., Kalousova, L., & Seefeldt, K. (2012). Perceived Job Insecurity and Health: The Michigan Recession and Recovery Study . *Journal of Occupational & Environmental Medicine:*, 1101-1106.

Burgarda, S., Brand, G., & House, J. (2009). Perceived job insecurity and worker health in the United States. *Social Science & Medicine*, 777-785.

Camillo, A. A. (2015). *Handbook of Research on Global Hospitality and Tourism Management.* Pennsylvania, United States: IGI Global.

Campbell, J. P. (1990). *Modeling the performance prediction problem in industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (pp. 687-732).* Palo Alto: CA:Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Campbell, J. P., Gasser, M. B., & Oswald, F. L. (1996). *the substantive nature of job performance variability. In K. R. Murphy (Ed.), Individual differences and behavior in organizations (pp. 258-299).* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Campbell, J. P., McCloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. (1993). *A theory of performance: In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), Personnel Selection in Organizations (pp. 35-70).* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C. (2009). *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Well-being.* Oxford: Oxford Handbooks Online.

Chen, G. G. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4, 62– 83.

Cheng, G. H., & Chan, D. K. (2008). Who suffers more from job insecurity? A meta-analytic review. . *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57, 272-303.

Cheng, G., & Chan, D. (2008). Who suffers more from job insecurity? A meta-analytic review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57, 272-303.

Cheng, T. (2013). *Revisiting the Buffers of Job Insecurity.*Jyväskylä : University Of Jyväskylä.

Chirumbolo, A. (2014). The Impact of Job Insecurity on Counterproductive Work Behaviors: The Moderating Role of Honesty–Humility Personality Trait. . *The Journal of Psychology,*, 1-16.

Choi, H. &. (2012). Work-family conflict, work-family facilitation, and job outcomes in the Korean hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 24 No. 7, pp. 1011-1028.

Coelho, F., Augusto, M., & Lages, L. F. (2011). Contextual factors and the creativity of frontline employees: The mediating effects of role stress and intrinsic motivation . *Journal of Retailing*, 87(1), 31-45.

Conway, N., & Briner, R. B. (2005). *Understanding psychological contracts at work: A critical evaluation of theory and research* . Oxford University Press.

Cottini, E., & Lucifora, C. (2010). Mental health and working conditions in European Countries, IZA Discussion Paper 4717.

Croon, D., Einar, M., Judith, K., Roland, W. B., Broersen, J. P., & Monique, H. W. (2004). Stressful Work, Psychological Job Strain, and Turnover: A 2-Year Prospective Cohort Study of Truck Drivers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol 89(3) 442-454.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31, 874–900.

Daskin, M. (2014). Antecedents of extra-role customer service behaviour: polychronicity as a moderator. *Anatolia,An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research* , 26:4, 521-534.

De Cuyper, N., & De Witte, H. (2006). The impact of job insecurity and contract type on attitudes, well-being and behavioural reports: A psychological contract perspective. . *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 79, 395-409.

De Cuyper, N., De Witte, H., Vander Elst, T., & Handaja, Y. (2010). Objective Threat of Unemployment and Situational Uncertainty During a Restructuring: Associations with Perceived Job Insecurity and Strain. *J Bus Psychol*, (2010) 25:75–85.

De Cuyper, N., M€akikangas, A., Kinnunen, U., Mauno, S., & De Witte, H. (2012). Cross-lagged associations between perceived external employability, job insecurity, and exhaustion: Testing gain and loss spirals according to the conservation of resources theory. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33, 770–788. doi:10.1002/job.1800.

De Dreu, C. K., & Weingart, L. R. (2003). Task versus relationship conflict, team performance, and team member satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 741-749.

De Jong, A., & De Ruyter, K. (2004). Adaptive versus proactive behavior in service recovery: the role of self-managing teams. *Decision Sciences* , 35(3): 457–491.

De Spiegelaere, S., Van Gyes, G., De Witte, H., Niesen, W., & Van Hootegem, G. (2014). On the relation of job insecurity, job autonomy, innovative work behaviour and the mediating effect of work engegement. *Creativity and innovation management*, 23(3), 318-330.

De Witte, H. (1999). Job insecurity and psychological well-being: Review of the literature and exploration of someunresolved issues. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*.

De Witte, H. (2000). Arbeidsethos en jobonzekerheid:Meting en gevolgen voor welzijn, tevredenheid en inzet op het werk [Work ethic and job insecurity:Measurement and consequences for well-being,satisfaction and performance]. *Liber Amicorum Prof. Dr. Leo Lagrou* , 325-350.

De Witte, H. (2005). Job insecurity: Review of the international literature on definitions, prevalence, antecedents and consequences. . *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology* , 31(4): 1–6.

De Witte, H., De Cuyper, N., Handaja, Y., Sverke, M., Näswall, K., & Hellgren, J. (2010). Associations between quantitative and qualitative job insecurity and well-being: A test in Belgian banks. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 40(1), 40–56.

deCharms, R. (1968). *Personal causation: the internal affective determinants of behavior.* New York: Academic.

Deci, E. (1972). Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic reinforcement, and inequity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 22, 113–120.

Deci, E. L. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation.* New York: Plenum.

Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research.* Rochester, NY: Unuversity of Rochester Press.

Deery, M., & Jago, L. (2015). Revisiting talent management, work-life balance and retention strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 27 Iss 3 pp. 453 -472.

Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. (2011). The Job Demands–Resources model: Challenges for future research. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde*, 37(2), Art. #974, 9 pages.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. (2001). The job demands-reource model of burnout. *journal of applied Psychology*, 86, 499-512.

Demir, S., Demir, S., & Bulut, H. (2014). Effect of Mentoring Program on Ways of Coping with Stress and Locus of Control for Nursing Students. *Asian Nursing Research 8* , 254 - 260.

Ding, Y., Qu, J., Yu, X., & Wang, S. (2014). The Mediating Effects of Burnout on the Relationship between Anxiety Symptoms and Occupational Stress among Community Healthcare Workers in China: A Cross-Sectional Study. *journal.pone.0107130*, PLoS ONE 9(9): e107130. doi:10.1371.

Dolenc, P. (2015). Anxiety, Self-Esteem and Coping With Stress in Secondary School Students in Relation to Involvement in Organized Sports/Anksioznost, Samospoštovanje In Spoprijemanje S Stresom Pri Srednješolcih V Povezavi Z Vključenostjo V Organizirano Športno Aktivnost. . *Slovenian Journal of Public Health* , 54(3), 222-229.

Đorđević, B. (2012). Nesigurnost zaposlenja – priroda, posledice i strategije upravljanja. *Teme* , 36(1): 335–350.

Dysvik, A., & Kuvaas, B. (2011). Intrinsic motivation as a moderator on the relationship between perceived job autonomy and work performance. . *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20(3), 367-387.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(3), 565-573.

Elitharp, T. (2005). *The Relationship of Occupational Stress, Psychological Strain, Satisfaction with Job,Commitment to the Profession, Age, and Resilience to the Turnover Intentions of Special Education Teachers.* Blacksburg, Virginia: Elitharp, Tony.

Ellliot, A., & Covington, M. (2001). Approach and Avoidance Motivation. *Educational Psychology Review* , 13 : 2.

Elst, T., Broeck, A., Cuyper, N., & Witte, H. (2014). On the reciprocal relationship between job insecurity and employee well-being: Mediation by perceived control? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* , 87, 671– 693.

Falco, A., Girardi, D., Kravina, L., & Trifiletti, E. (2013). The mediating role of psychophysic strain in the relation between workaholism, job performance, and sickness absence. *JOEM*, 1255-1261.

Finney, C., Stergiopoulos, E., Hensel, J., Bonato, S., & Dewa, C. S. (2013). Organizational stressors associated with job stress and burnout in correctional officers: a systematic review. *BMC Public Health*, 13(1), 1-13.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. (1981). Structural Equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol.48, Pp. 39-50.

Franco, L. M., Bennett, S., & Kanfer, R. (2004). Determinants and consequences of health worker motivation in hospitals in Jordan and Georgia. *Soc Sci Med* , 58:343–55.

Gaines, J., & Jermier, J. M. (1983). Emotional exhaustion in a high stress organization. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26(4), 567-586.

Gazzaniga, M. S., & Heatherton, T. F. (2003). *Psychological science: Mind, brain, and behavior.* New York: W.W. Norton Company.

Gazzaniga, M., Heatherton, T., & Halpern, D. (2015). *Psychological Science: The Mind, Brain, and Behavior.* New York: Norton, 2015.

George, J., & Jones, G. (2005). *understanding and managing organizational behavior.* New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Ghiselli, X. (2016). Why do you feel stressed in a smile factory? . *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 28 Iss 2 pp. 305 - 326.

Gibbons, C. (2010). Stress, coping and burnout in nursing students. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 47(10), 1299e1309. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2010.02.015.

Gilboa, S., Shirom, A., Fried, Y., & Cooper, C. (2008). A meta-analysis of work demand stressors and job performance: examining main and moderating effects . *Personnel Psychology*, 61(2), 227-271.

Gill, A. S., Flaschner, A. B., & Shachar, M. (2006). Mitigating stress and burnout by implementing transformational-leadership. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(6), 469-481.

Giunchi, M., Emanuel, F., José Chambel, M., & Ghislieri, C. (2015). Job insecurity,workload and job exhaustion in temporary agency workers (TAWs). *Career Development International*, Vol. 21 Iss 1 pp. 3 - 18.

Green, D. E., Walkey, F. H., & Taylor, A. J. (1991). The three-factor structure of the Maslach Burnout Inventory: A multicultural, multinational confirmatory study . *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 6(3), 453.

Greenhalgh, L., & Rosenblatt, Z. (1984). Job insecurity: Toward conceptual. *Academy of Management Review*, 9: 438–448.

Griffith, J., Kerr, W., Mayo, T., & Topal, J. (1950). Changes in subjective fatigue and readiness for work during the eight-hour shift . *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 34, 163–166.

Grunberg, L., Moore, S., & Greenberg, E. (2006). Managers' reactions to implementing layoffs: relationship to health problems and withdrawal behaviors. *Human Resource Management*, 54, 159-178.

Hagger, M. S. (2015). Conservation of Resources Theory and the 'Strength' Model of Self Control: Conceptual overlap and commonalities. *Stress and Health*, 31, 89–94.

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *multivariate data analysis (7th ed.).* Prentice Hall.

Halbesleben, J. R. (2006). Sources of social support and burnout: A meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources model. . *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 1134–1145.

Hamukwaya, S. I., & Yazdanifard, R. (2014). How a Proper Performance Related Reward System Can Contribute to Work Performance Excellence. *Open Journal of Business and Management*, 2, 189-19.

Harlow, H. F. (1953). *Motivation as a factor in the acquisition of new responses.* In Current theory and research on motivation (pp. 24–49). Lincoln:University of Nebraska Press.

Hartley, J., Jacobson, D., Klandermans, B., & Van Vuuren, T. (1991). *Job Insecurity: Coping with Jobs at Risk. London: Sage.* London: Sage.

Hashemi, S. M., Jusoh, J., Kiumarsi, S., & Mohammadi, S. (2015). Exploring the role of stress on organizational commitment among employees in hospitality industry: the mediating role of job satisfaction. *International Journal of Information Research and Review*, Vol. 2, Issue, 09, pp.1144-1150.

Hellgren .J, Sverke, M., & Isaksson, K. (1999). A two-dimensional approach to job insecurity: Consequences for employee attitudes and well-being. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* , 8(2): 179–195.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work (2nd ed.).* New York : John Wiley and Sons. ISBN 0-471-37389-3.

Higham, J., & Hinch, T. (2002). Tourism, sport and seasons: The challenges and potential of overcoming seasonality in the sport and tourism sectors. *Tourism Management,* , Vol:23, No:2, pp. 175-185.

Hobfoll, S. (1989). Conservation of Resources: Anew attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44, 513-524.

Hobfoll, S., & Shirom, A. (2000). *Conservation of resources theory application to stress and management in the workplace, in Golembiewski, R.T. (Ed.), Handbook of Organisational Behaviour,.* New York: Marcel Dekker NY, pp. 57-81.

Hobfoll, S., & Shirom, A. (2000). *Conservation of resources theory application to stress and management in the workplace, in Golembiewski, R.T. (Ed.), Handbook of Organisational Behaviour,. .* New York: Marcel Dekker NY, pp. 57-81.

Hockey, G. R. (1993). *Cognitive-energetical control mechanisms in the management of work demands and psychological health. In A. D. Baddeley & L. Weiskrantz (Eds.), Attention, selection, awareness and control: A tribute to Donald Broadbent (pp.328–345).* Oxford, UK: Clarendon Press.

Hodari, D., Waldthausen, V., & Sturman, M. (2014). Outsourcing and role stress: an empirical study of hotelspa managers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 37,pp. 190-199.

Hood, A., Pulvers, K., Spady, T., Kliebenstein, A., & Bachand, J. (2015). Anxiety mediates the effect of acute stress on working memory performance when cortisol levels are high: a moderated mediation analysis. *US National Library of Medicine*, 26:1-18.

Hosseinabadi, M. (2012). Job security in workplace. *Journal of job and society*, 82-88.

House, J. (2003). *Job stress and social support. Reading Mass: Addison-Wesley.*

Houtman, I., Jettinghoff, K., & Cedillo, L. (2007). *Raising awareness of stress at work in developing countries : a modern hazard in a traditional working environment : advice to employers and worker representatives.* Geneva: World Health Organization.

Hsieh, H. (2015). The Relationship of Manager's Leadership Style, Job Stress and Job Satisfaction – A Study of Interns in 5- Star Hotels in Tainan City. *Proceedings of the Third Asia-Pacific Conference on Global Business, Economics, Finance and Banking (AP15Singapore Conference) ISBN: 978-1-63415-751-3.17-19 July 2015 Paper ID: S540.*

Huang, G., Zhao, H. H., Niu, X., Ashford, S. J., & Lee, C. (2013). Reducing Job Insecurity and Increasing Performance Ratings: Does Impression Management Matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 0021-9010/13/$12.00 DOI: 10.1037/a0033151.

Hudson, T. M. ((2013)). Impact of stress-coping strategies on perceived stress, intrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy levels of students. *Education Theses, Dissertations and Projects*, paper 36.

Hui, C., & Lee, C. (2000). moderating effects of organization-based self-esteem on organizational uncertainty : employee response relationships. *Journal of Management*, 26(2), 215-232.

Hussain, S. T., Lei, S., Abideen, Z., & Hussain, S. H. (2015). Motivation in the Perspective of Self Determination Theory (SDT) between Work Environment and Job Satisfaction in Banking Sector. *International Business Research*, 8(11), 39 - 48. ISSN 1913-9004. E-ISSN 1913-9012.

Hussain, S. T., Lei, S., Abideen, Z., & Hussain, S. H. (2015). Motivation in the Perspective of Self Determination Theory (SDT) between Work Environment and Job Satisfaction in Banking Sector. *International Business Research*, 8(11), 39-48.

Illman, J., & Carter, R. (2007). *Beat Panic & Anxiety: The Complete Guide to Understanding and Tackling Anxiety Disorders.* . London: Cassell.

Iplik, F. N., Topsakal, Y., & Iplik, E. (2014). The Effects of Emotional Labor on Job Attitudes of Hotel Employees: Mediating and Moderating Roles of Social Support and Job Autonomy. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp.175-186.

Ito, J. K., & Brotheridge, C. M. (2003). Resources, coping strategies, and emotional exhaustion: A conservation of resources perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63(3), 490-509.

Jensen, J. M., Opland, R. A., & Ryan, A. M. (2010). Psychological contracts and counterproductive work behaviors: Employee responses to transactional and relational breach. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(4), 555-568.

Jex, S., & Beehr, T. (1991). *Emerging theoretical and methodological issues in the study of work-related stress. In Ferris GR (Ed.), Research in personnel and human resources management (vol. 9, pp. 311–365).* Greenwich: CT: JAI.

Jones, M. K., Latreille, P. L., & Sloane, P. J. (2015). Job Anxiety, Work-Related Psychological Illness and Workplace Performance. . *British Journal of Industrial Relations.*

Jordan, P. J., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Hartel, C. E. (2002). Emotional intelligence as a moderator of emotional and behavioral reactions to job insecurity. *Academy of Management Review*, 27(3), 361-372.

Joreskog, K., & Sorbom, D. (1996). *LISREL 8: User's Reference Guide.* Chicago: Scientific Software International, Inc.

Jung, H., & Yoon, H. (2015). Understanding regulatory focuses: The role of employees' regulatory focus in stress coping styles, and turnover intent to a five-star hotel. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* , Vol. 27 Iss 2 pp. 283.

Kahn, R., & Byosiere, P. (1990). *Stress in organizations. In Dunnette MD, Hough LM (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (2nd Ed.).* Palo Alto: CA: American Psychological Press.

Karatepe, & Karadas. (2012). The effect of management commitment to service quality on job embeddedness and performance outcomes. *Journal of Business Economics and mangement*, 13(4): 614–636.

Karatepe, O. (2013). The effects of work overload and work-family conflict on job embeddedness and job performance: the mediation of emotional exhaustion. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 25 No. 4, pp. 614-634.

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

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

Karatepe, O., Beirami, E., Bouzari, M., & Safavi, H. (2014). Does work engagement mediate the effects of challenge stressorson job outcomes? Evidence from the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 14-22.

Kausto, J., Elo, A.-L., Lipponen, J., & Elovainio, M. (2005). Moderating effects of job insecurity in the relationships between procedural justice and employee well-being: Gender differences. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 14, 431–452. doi:10.1080/13594320500349813.

Keaveney, S. (1992). An empirical investigation of dyslunctiunül organizational turnover among chain and non-chain retail store buyers. *Journal of Retailing*, 68(2) 145-173.

Keaveney, S. M. (1992). An empirical investigation of dyslunctiunül organizational turnover among chain and non-chain retail store buyers. *Journal of Retailing.*, 680,), 145-173.

Khalid, M., & Naeem, H. (2013). The Impact of Job Description on Burnout with Mediating Effect of Psychological Strain: An Empirical Evidence from the Cement Industry of Pakistan. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 13 (3): 288-295.

Kim, H. (2008). Hotel service providers' emotional labour: the antecedents and effects on burnout. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 27 No. 2, pp. 151-161.

Kim, H. J., Shin, K. H., & Umbreit, W. T. (2007). Hotel job burnout: The role of personality characteristics. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26(2), 421-434.

Kinnunen, U., Mauno, S., & Siltaloppi, M. (2010). Job insecurity, recovery and well-being at work: Recovery experiences as moderators. *Economic and Industrial Democracy* , 31: 179–194.

Kinnunen, U., Mauno, S., Natti, J., & Happonen, M. (1999). Perceived job insecurity: A longitudinal study among Finish employees . *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 243–260. doi:10.1080/135943299398348.

Kivimäki, M., Vahtera, J., Ferrie, J. E., Hemingway, H., & Pentti, J. (2001). Organisational downsizing and musculoskeletal problems in employees: a prospective study . *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 58(12), 811-817.

Koeske, G., & Koeske, R. (1993). A preliminary test of stress-strain-outcome model for reconceptualizing the burnout phenomenon. *Journal of Social Research*, 17, 107-135.

Kouloubandi, A., Jofreh, M., & Mahdavi, F. S. (2012). Analysis The Relationship Between Job Stress, Intrinsic Motivation & Employees Creativity In Islamic Republic Of Iran Railways Organization. *Interdisciplinary Journal Of Contemporary Research In Business.*, vol 4, No.8, 39-53.

Ktenas, N. (2014). *Employment & Labour Law.* Nicosia, Cyprus: Global Legal Group.

Kubicek, B., & Korunka, C. (2015). Does job complexity mitigate the negative effect of emotion-rule dissonance on employee burnout? *Work & Stress*, 29(4), 379-400.

Kurtyka, M. (2005). *Joint Project of the European Social Partner Organisations Study on restructuring in new Member States.* Nicosia: European Commission, Bernard Brunhes Polska.

Kuruüzüm, A., Anafarta, N., & Irmak, S. (2008). Predictors of burnout among middle managers in the Turkish hospitality industry . *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 20 No. 2, pp. 186-198.

Kusluvan, S. (2003). *Managing Employee Attitudes and Behaviors in the Tourism and Hospitality Industry (Chapter 1).* Hauppauge, New York: Nova Publishers.

Lai, E. R. (2011). *Motivation: A literature review. .* New York: Pearson's Research Reports .

Lang, J., Ochsmann, E., Kraus, T., & Lang, J. W. (2012). Psychosocial work stressors as antecedents of musculoskeletal problems: A systematic review and meta-analysis of stability-adjusted longitudinal studies. *Social science & medicine*, 75(7), 1163-1174.

Lang, J., Thomas, J. L., Bliese, P. D., & Adler, A. B. (2007). Job Demands and Job Performance: The mediating effect of psychological and physical strain and the moderating effect of role clarity. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, Vol 12(2)116-124.

Lang, J., Thomas, J. L., Bliese, P. D., & Adler, A. B. (2007). Job Demands and Job Performance: The mediating effect of psychological and physical strain and the moderating effect of role clarity. *Occupational Health Psychology*, 12(2)116-124.

László, K. D., Engström, K., Hallqvist, J., Ahlbom, A., & Janszky, I. (2013). Job insecurity and prognosis after myocardial infarction: the SHEEP Study. *International journal of cardiology*, 167(6), 2824-2830.

Latham, G. P., & Pinder, C. C. (2005). Work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Annual Review of Psychology,*, 04, 230-516.

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

Ledgerwood, C. E., Crotts, J. C., & Everett, A. M. (1998). Antecedents of employee burnout in the hotel industry. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 4(1), 31-44.

Lee, G., Kim, T., Shin, S., & Oh, I. (2012). The managed heart: The structural analysis of the strossor-strain relationship and customer orientation among emotional labor workers, in korean hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 1067-1082.

Lee, J., & Peccei, R. (2007). Perceived organizational support and affective commitment: the mediating role of organization-based self-esteem in the context of job insecurity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(6), 661-685.

Lee, J., Back, K., & Chan, E. (2015). Quality of work life and job satisfaction among frontline hotel employees: A self-determination and need satisfaction theory approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 27 Iss 5 pp. 768-789.

Lee, S., Colditz, G. A., Berkman, L. F., & Kawachi, I. (2004). Prospective study of job insecurity and coronary heart disease in US women. *Annals of epidemiology* , 14(1), 24-30.

Leiter, M., Bakker, A., & Maslach, C. (2014). *Burnout at work: a psycological perspective.* New York: psycology press.

Leka, S., Griffiths, A., & Cox, T. (2003). *Work organisation and stress : systematic problem approaches for employers, managers and trade union representatives.* Switzerland: protecting workers' health series NO.3.

Leka, S., Griffiths, A., & Cox, T. (2003). *Work organization&stress: systematic problem approaches for employers, managers and trade union representatives.* Geneva: protecting workers'health series no 3.

Li, L., Hu, H., & Zhou, H. e. (2014). Work stress, work motivation and their effects on job satisfaction in community health workers: a cross-sectional survey in China. *BMJ open*, 4:e004897. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2014-004897.

Li, Z., Lin, Z., & Fang, W. (2010). Study on the Effect of Job Insecurity on Emotional Exhaustion: An Example of Foxconn Jumping Incidents. *2010 International Conference on Management Science & Engineering (17th)* (pp. 943-949). Melbourne, Australia: School of Management, Harbin Institute of Technology, P.R.China, 150001 .

Lin, J., Wong, J., & Ho, C. (2015). The role of work-to-leisure conflict in promoting frontline employees' leisure satisfaction. *International Journal of Contemporary HospitalityManagement*, Vol. 27 Iss 7 pp. 1539 - 1555.

Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstein, A. C. (2003). *Educational Administration: Concepts and practices.* Detroit: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Luthans, F. (2003). *Organizational Behavior (7th Ed.).* New York: McGraw Hills.

Luthans, F. (2010). *Organizational Behavior (12th Ed.).* New York: McGraw Hills.

Maslach, C. (1982). *The Burnout: The Cost of Caring.* Engelwood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Maslach, C. (1993). *Burnout: A multi-dimensional perspective. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T.Marek (Eds.), Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research (pp. 1–16).* Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Maslach, C. A., & Leiter, M. P. (2008). Early predictors of job burnout and engagement . *Journal of Applied of Psychology*, 93, 498–512.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. (1986). *The Maslach Burnout Inventory* . Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of occupational behavior*, 2(2), 99-113.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 397-422.

Mauno, S., Leskinen, E., & Kinnunen, U. (2001). Multi-wave, multi-variable models of job insecurity: Applying different scales in studying the stability of job insecurity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, 919–937.

McGorry, S. (2000). Measurment in a cross-cultural environment:survey translation issues. *Qual.Market Res. Int.J.* , 3(2), 74-81.

Miedema, A. (2015, March 25). Who is a supervisor? Ontario Ministry of Labour releases guideline.

Miller, J. F. (2002). Motivating people. *Executive Excellence.* , December. 15.

Millward, L. J., & Brewerton, P. M. (2000). Psychological contracts: Employee relations for the twenty-first century? *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, 15, 1-62.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Schmit, M. J. (1999). Performance assessment in unique jobs. Pulakos (Eds.), The changing nature of performance,. 56-86.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. (1994). Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 79(4), 475.

Motowildo, S. J., Borman, W. C., & Schmit, M. J. (1997). A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. *Human performance*, 10(2), 71-83.

Nabavi, A., & Shahryari, M. (2012). Linkage Between Worksite Support with Work Role Expectation, Role Ambiguity and Its Effects on Work-Family Conflict . *Canadian Social Science*, 8(4), 112-119.

Ncube, F., Sibanda, P., & Maunganidze, L. (2013). The Competitive Advantages of Organisations in Zimbabwe's Hospitality Industry: A Case of Two Organisations. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences (JETEMS)*, 4(3):328-336 (ISSN: 2141-7016) .

Nella, D., Panagopoulou, E., Galanis, N., Montgomery, A., & Benos, A. (2015). Consequences of Job Insecurity on the Psychological and Physical Health of Greek Civil Servants. *BioMed research international*, 8.

Newbury-Birch, D., & Kamali, F. (2001). Psychological stress, anxiety, depression, job satisfaction, and personality characteristics in preregistration house officers. *Postgraduate Medical Journal*, 77(904), 109-111.

Newstrom, J. W. (2011). *Organizational Behavior: Human Behavior at Work.* New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin, 2011.

Njanja, W. L., Maina, R. N., Kibet, L. K., & Njagi, K. (2013). Effect of Reward on Employee Performance: A Case of Kenya Power and Lighting Company Ltd., Nakuru, Kenya. *International Journal of Business & Management*, 8(21).

Noblet, A., Rodwell, J., & McWilliams, J. (2001). The job strain model is enough for managers: No augmentation needed. . *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16(8), 635-649.

Nuttin, J. R. (1973). *Pleasure and reward in human motivation and learning.In D. E. Berlyne & K. B. Madsen (Eds.), Pleasure, reward, preference:Their nature, determinants, and role in behavior (pp. 243–273).* NewYork: Academic.

O'Neill, J. W., & Xiao, Q. (2010). Effects of organizational/occupational characteristics and personality traits on hotel manager emotional exhaustion. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 652-658.

O'Neill, J., & Davis, K. (2011). Work stress and well-being in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* , Vol. 30 No. 2, pp. 385-390.

Oldham, G. R., & Cummings, A. (1996). Employee Creativity: Personal and Contextual Factors at Work . *Academy of Management Journal*, 39 (3),607–634.

Otto, K., Hoffmann-Biencourt, A., & Mohr, G. (2011). Is there a buffering effect of flexibility for job attitudes and work-related strain under conditions of high job insecurity and regional unemployment rate? *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 32(4), 609-630.

Ozbay, F., Johnson, D., Dimoulas, E., Morgan, C., Charney, D., & Southwick, S. (2007). Social Support and Resilience to Stress: From Neurobiology to Clinical Practice. *Psychiatry (Edgmont).*, 4(5): 35–40.PMCID: PMC2921311.

Ozguner, Z., & Ozguner, M. (2014). A Managerial Point of View on the Relationship between of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory. *International Journal of Business and Social Science* , Vol. 5 (7), 207-215.

Panatik, S. (2012). Impact of Work Design on Employee Psychological Strain among Malaysian Technical Workers. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* , 404 – 409.

Panatik, S. A., Rajab, A., Shah, I. M., Rahman, H. A., Yusoff, R. M., & Badri, S. K. (2012). Work-family conflict, stress and psychological strain in Higher Education. *In International Conference on Education and Management Innovation*, Vol. 30, pp. 67-71.

Park, J. B., Nakata, A., Swanson, N. G., & Chun, H. (2013). Organizational factors associated with work-related sleep problems in a nationally representative sample of Korean workers . *International archives of occupational and environmental health*, 86(2),211-222.

Parker, D. F., & DeCotiis, T. A. (1983). Organizational determinants of job stress. . *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 32, 160–177.

Parker, S. K., Williams, H. M., & Turner, N. (2006). Modeling the antecedents of proactive behavior at work. *Journal of applied psychology*, 91(3), 636-652.

Partlak Günüşen, N., Ustün, B., & Erdem, S. (2014). Work stress and emotional exhaustion in nurses: the mediating role of internal locus of control. *research and theory for nursing practice*, 28(3):260-8.

Peeters, M. C., & Le Blanc, P. M. (2001). Towards a match between job demands and sources of social support: A study among oncology care providers. . *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10, 53–72.

Piccoli, B., & De Witte, H. (2015). Job insecurity and emotional exhaustion: Testing psychological contract breach versus distributive injustice as indicators of lack of reciprocity, Work & Stress. *An International Journal of Work, Health & Organisation*, DOI: 10.1080/02678373.2015.1075624.

Pienaar, J., & Willemse, S. A. (2008). Burnout, engagement, coping and general health of service employees in the hospitality industry. *Tourism Management*, 29(6), 1053-1063.

Pierre, M. S., Hofinger, G., & Buerschaper, C. (2007). *Crisis Management in Acute Care Settings: Human Factors and Team Psychology in a High Stakes Environment.* Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Science & Business Media.

Podsakoff, N. P. (2007). Differential challenge stressor-hindrance stressor relationships with job attitudes, turnover intentions,and withdrawal behavior: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology,*, 92, 438–454.

Porter, L., & Lawler, E. (1968). *Managerial attitudes and performance.* Homewood: IL: Irwin-Dorsey.

Pritchard, R. D. (1992). Organizational productivity. *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, 3, 443-471.

Probst, T. M. (2002). *The impact of job insecurity on employee work attitudes, job adaptation and organizational withdrawal behaviors. In: Brett JM and Drasgow F (eds) The Psychology of Work: Theoretically Based Empirical Research.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Probst, T. M., Stewart, S. M., Gruys, M. L., & Tierney, B. W. (2007). Productivity, counterproductivity and creativity: The ups and downs of job insecurity. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(3), 479-497.

Probst, T., & Lawler, J. (2006). Cultural values as moderators of employee reactions to job insecurity: The role of individualism and collectivism. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 55, 234-254.

Ramarumo, D. K. (2015). Impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout in graded accommodation establishments in the Free State province, South Africa. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 27 Iss 6 pp. 1198 - 1213.

Rector, N., Bourdeau, D., Kitchen, K., & Joseph-Massiah, L. (2008). *Anxiety disorders an information guide.* Toronto: Center for addiction and mental health.

Reisel, D., Probst, M., Swee-lim, C., Maloles, M., & König, C. (2010). The effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, deviant behavior, and negative emotions of employees. *International Studies of Management and Organization* , 40(1): 74–91.

Reisel, W. D., Probst, T. M., Chia, S. L., Maloles, C. M., & König, C. J. (2010). The effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, deviant behavior, and negative emotions of employees. *International Studies of Management & Organization* , 40(1), 74-91.

Richter, A. (2011). *Job insecurity and its concequences: investigating moderators, mediators and gender.* Stockholm: Department of Psychology, Stockholm University.

Rigotti, T., Mohr, G., & Isaksson, K. (2015). Job insecurity among temporary workers: Looking through the gender lens . *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 36(3) 523-547.

Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2011). *Organizational Behavior.* Edingburg Gate, Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Robone, S., Jones, A. M., & Rice, N. (2008). Contractual conditions, working conditions, health and well-being in the British Household Panel Survey, HEGD Working Paper 08/19.

Roe, R. A. (1999). *'Work performance: A mUltiple regulation perspective', in C. L. Cooper and I. T. Robertson (eds), International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology.* . Chichester: Wiley: Vol. 14: pp. 231-335.

Roskies, E., & Louis-Guerin, C. (1990). Job insecurity in managers: Antecedents and consequences. . *Journal of Organizational Behavior* , 11(5): 345–359.

Rousseau, D. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements.* New York: Sage Publications.

Roy, A., Oldehinkel, A., Verhulst, F., Ormel, J., & Hartman, C. (2014). Anxiety and disruptive behavior mediate pathways from attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder to depression. *The Journal of clinical psychiatry* , 75.2 e108-13.

Rubioa, C., Oscaa, A., Recioa, P., Urienb, B., & Peiróc, J. M. (2015). Work-family conflict, self-efficacy, and emotional exhaustion: A test of longitudinal effects . *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*, 147–154.

Rusli, B., Edimansyah, B., & Naing, L. (2008). Working conditions, self-perceived stress, anxiety, depression and quality of life: A structural equation modelling approach. *BMC Public Health 8*, (1), 48.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. . *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 25(1), 54-67.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Greenglass, E. R. (2001). Introduction to special issue on burnout and health. *Psychology & Health*, 16(5), 501-510.

Schönfeld, P., Brailovskaia, J., Bieda, A., Zhang, X. C., & Margraf, J. (2016). The effects of daily stress on positive and negative mental health: Mediation through self-efficacy. *International Journal of Clinical and Health Psychology* , 16(1), 1-10.

Schreurs, B., Emmerik, I., Gunter, H., & Germeys, F. (2012). A weekly diary study on the buffering role of social support in the relationship between job insecurity and employee performance. *Human Resource Management*, Vol.51, No.2.Pp.259-280.

Selenko, E., Maekikangas, A., Mauno, S., & Kinnunen, U. (2013). How does job insecurity relate to self-reported job performance? Analyzing curvilinear associations in a longitudinal sample. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 86, 522–542.

Seniwoliba, A. J., & Nchorbono, A. D. (2013). Examining the role of motivation on employee performance in the public sector in Ghana. *Merit Research Journal of Education and Review*, (ISSN: 2350-2282) Vol. 1(10) pp. 227-249.

Silla, I., De Cuper, N., Gracia, F., Peiro, J., & De Witte, H. (2009). Job insecurity and well-being: Moderation by employability. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 10, 739-751.

Siu, O. L., Bakker, A. B., Brough, P., Lu, C., Wang, H., Kalliath, T., et al. (2014). A Three-wave Study of Antecedents of Work–Family Enrichment: The Roles of Social Resources and Affect. *Stress and Healthn*, /a-n/a. doi: 10.1002/smi.2556 .

Sonnentag, S., Volmer, J., & Spychala, A. (2008). Job performance. *The Sage handbook of organizational behavior*, 1, 427-447.

Sora, B., Caballer, A., & Peiro, J. (2011). Consequences of job insecurity: the moderator role of organizational support from a multilevel perspective. *Psicothema*, 23: 394-400.

Spector, P. E. (2002). Employee control and occupational stress . *Current directions in psychological science*, 11(4), 133-136.

Staufenbiel, T., & Konig, C. (2010). A model for the effect of job insecurity on performance, turnover intention, and absenteeism. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83, 101-117.

Sverke, M., Hellgren, J., & Näswall, K. (2002). No security: a meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 7(3), 242.

Sverke, M., Hellgren, J., & Näswall, K. (2006). Job insecurity: A literature review. Arbetslivsinstitutet.

Tian, Q., Zhang, L., & Zou, W. (2014). Job insecurity and counterproductive behavior of casino dealers–the mediating role of affective commitment and moderating role of supervisor support. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 40, 29-36.

Ünsal-Akbıyık, B., Çakmak-Otluoğlu, K., & Witte, H. (2012). Job Insecurity and Affective Commitment in Seasonal Versus Permanent Worker. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science* , Vol. 2 No. 24.

Vallerand, R. J., & Bissonnette, R. (1992). Intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivational styles as predictors of behaviour: A prospective study. *Journal of Personality* , 3, 599-620 .

Vallerand, R. J., Blais, M. R., Brie`re, N. M., & Pelletier, L. G. (1989). Construction et validation de l'E´chelle de Motivation en E´ducation (EME). . *Revue canadienne des sciences du comportement*, 21, 323–349.

Vallerand, R. J., Blais, M. R., Briere, N. M., Senecal, C., & Vallieres, E. F. (1993). On the assessment of intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation in education: Evidence of concurrent and construct validity of the Academic Motivation Scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 159–172.

van den Tooren, M., & de Jong, J. P. (2014). Job Demands-Resources and employee health and well-being:The moderating role of contract type. *Career Development International*, 19(1), 101-122. 10.1108/cdi-05-2013-.

Van Wyk, M., & Pienaar, J. (2008). Towards a research agenda for job insecurity in South Africa. *Southern African Business Review*, 12(2): 49–86.

Van, Y. N., & Hagedoom, M. (2003). Do high joh demands increase intrinsic motivation or fatigue or both? The role of job control and job social support. *Academy of Managemeni Journal.*, 46(3) 339-348.

Vander Elst, T. V. ((2014)). On the reciprocal relationship between job insecurity and employee well-being: Mediation by perceived control? *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 87(4), 671-693.

Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W., & Deci, E. L. (2006). Intrinsic versus extrinsic goal contents in self-determination theory: Another look at the quality of academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist,* , 41, 19-31.

Vermillion, D. (1996). *Impacts of irrigation management turnover: A review of the evidence to date. Draft. Colombo, Sri Lanka: International Irrigation Management Institute.*

Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and Motivation.* New York: Wiley.

Vujičić, D., Jovičić, A., Lalić, D., Gagić, S., & Cvejanov, A. (2014). The relation between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees in the tourism sector in Novi Sad. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 1-20.

Wang, H., Lu, C., & Siu, O. (2014). Job insecurity and Job performance: The moderating role of organizational justice and the mediating role of work engagement. *Journal of applied psychology*.

Warr, P. (2002). *Psychology at Work.* London: Penguin UK.

Weigl, M., Stab, N., Herms, I., Angerer, P., Hacker, W., & Glaser, J. (2016). The associations of supervisor support and work overload with burnout and depression: a cross-sectional study in two nursing settings. *Journal of Advanced Nursing 00(0), 000–000. doi: 10.1111/jan.12948.*

Weinstein, N., & Ryan, R. M. (2011). A self-determination theory approach to understanding stress incursion and responses. *Stress and Health*, 27(1), 4-17.

Westman, M., Hobfoll, S., Chen, S., Davidson, O., & Laski, S. (2004). Organizational Stress Through The Lens Of Conservation Of Resources (COR) Theory.*Exploring Interpersonal Dynamics*, 167-220.

White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review*, 66, 297–333.

Williams, K. D., & Karau, S. J. (1991). Social loafing and social compensation: the effects of expectations of co-worker performance. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 61(4), 570-581.

Witte, H. (2010). Job Insecurity and Psychological Well being: Review of the Literature and Exploration of Some Unresolved Issues. *European Journal of Work and OrganizationaL Psychology*, 8:2, 155-177.

Wood, S. (2008). Job characteristics, employee voice and well-being in Britain . *Industria Relations Journal*, 39(2), 153-168.

Yang, T., Shen, Y. M., Zhu, M., Liu, Y., Deng, J., Chen, Q., et al. (2015). Effects of Co-Worker and Supervisor Support on Job Stress and Presenteeism in an Aging Workforce: A Structural Equation Modelling Approach. . *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 13(1), 72.

Ye, X., & Liang, Z. (2010). *The Employees' Roles on Service Delivery: Case study on Haibin Hotel & Westin Hotel in Chin.* HIG – Högskolan i Gävle/ University of Gävle, Department of Business Administration: Final Thesis for Bachelor of Business Administration.

Yu-Fei, M., Ismail, A., Ahmad, R., & Kuek, T. (2012). Impacts of job stress characteristics on the workforce – organizational social support as the moderator. *South-Asia Journal of Marketing and Management Research*, 2(3), 1-20.

Zhang, X., & Bartol, K. M. (2010). Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation, and creative process engagement . *Academy of management journal*, 53(1), 107-128.

Zheng, X., Diaz, I., Tang, N., & Tang, K. (2014). Job insecurity and job satisfaction: The interactively moderating effects of optimism and person-supervisor deep-level similarity . *Career Development International*, 19(4), 426-446.

Zhou, H., & Long, L. R. (2011). Effects of Job Insecurity and Creative Self-efficacy on Employees' Creativity. *Acta Psychologica Sinica*, Vol. 43 Issue (08): 929-940.

APPENDIX

Appendix A. Questionnaire 1

Please don't write your name. Your answers will be anonymous and will never be linked to you personally. Your participation is entirely voluntary. If there are items you do not feel comfortable answering, please skip them. Thank you for your cooperation to fill in this questionnaire.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	No Agree No Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
There are lots of times when my job drives me right up a wall.					
My job gets to me more than it should.					
Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest.					
I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.					
I have too much work and too little time to do it.					
Too many people at my level in the company get burned out by job demands.					
When I do work well, it gives me a feeling of accomplishment.					
I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.					
When I perform my job well, it contributes to my personal growth and development.					
My job increases my feeling of self-esteem.					
It makes me anxious which maybe become unemployed.					
I'm concerned regarding to the continuance of my work.					
I fear that maybe losing my work.					
I'm feeling insecure regarding to the future of my work.					
I feel emotionally drained from my work.					
I feel used up at the end of the workday.					
I feel frustrated by my job.					
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.					
My supervisors show that they like me.					
My supervisor shows that he/she appreciated the way of doing the job.					
My supervisor gives me guidance on how to manage job.					
My supervisor helps me to do my duties.					

Sex
(   ) Male
(   ) Female

Age
( ) 18-27
( ) 28-37
( ) 38-47
( ) 48-57
( ) 58-67
( ) 68 and above

Education
( ) Less than diploma
( ) Diploma
( ) Bachelor
( ) Master
( ) PhD and above

E.tenure
( ) less than 1
( ) 1-5
( ) 6-10
( ) 11-15
( ) 16-20
( ) 21 and above

Marital status
( ) single
( ) married
( ) divorced

Questionnaire 2

Please evaluate related employee.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	No Agree No Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
This employee is a top performer.					
This employee is in the top 10% of frontline employees here.					
This employee gets along better with customers than do others.					
This employee knows more about services delivered to customers than others.					
This employee knows what his/her customers expect better than others.					