

**Job Embeddedness of Immigrant Employees in the
Hotel Industry: Effects of Job Crafting,
Psychological Capital and Work Engagement**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores the influence of job crafting (JC) on migrant employees' and its sensitivities on job embeddedness (JE) with the application of a serial mediation mechanism which takes into consideration the psychological capital and their work engagement as mediators. The data for this study was collected from immigrant employees in the hotel sector in North Cyprus. Both convenience and judgmental sampling techniques made up of 572 dyads were used. The findings of this study reveal that immigrant employees' psychological capital and their work engagement has a mediating effect on the relationships between organisational crafting and the perceptions of employees' job embeddedness. This thesis will serve as a substantial research evidence and tool for managers/owners in the hospitality industry for the purpose of retaining, engaging and embedding immigrant employees. The novelty of this study is the fact that it analyses the work environment and conditions where organisational job crafting affects job embeddedness to determine the perceptions of immigrant employees using a serial mediation model.

Keywords: Job crafting; immigrant employees; psychological safety; work engagement; job embeddedness

ÖZ

Bu tez, psikolojik sermayeyi ve arabulucu olarak işe bağlılıklarını dikkate alan bir seri arabuluculuk mekanizmasının uygulanmasıyla işçiliğin (JC) göçmen çalışanların ve bunun işe gömülmüşlük (JE) üzerindeki hassasiyetlerinin etkisini araştırmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın verileri, Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta otelcilik sektöründeki göçmen çalışanlardan toplanmıştır. 572 ikiliden oluşan hem uygunluk hem de yargısal örnekleme teknikleri kullanıldı. Bu araştırmanın bulguları, göçmen çalışanların psikolojik sermayelerinin ve iş bağlılıklarının, örgütsel zanaatkarlık ile çalışanların işe gömülmüşlük algıları arasındaki ilişkiler üzerinde aracılık etkisi olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bu tez, konaklama endüstrisindeki yöneticiler / sahipler için göçmen çalışanları alıkoyma, işe alma ve yerleştirme amacıyla önemli bir araştırma kanıtı ve aracı olarak hizmet edecektir. Bu çalışmanın yeniliği, bir seri arabuluculuk modeli kullanarak göçmen çalışanların algılarını belirlemek için örgütsel işçiliğin işe gömülmeyi etkilediği çalışma ortamını ve koşullarını analiz etmesidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İşçilik; göçmen çalışanlar; psikolojik güvenlik; iş randevusu; işe gömülmüşlük

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Overview

Recently, economic and political crises, information technology development, changing customers' needs, expectations and intensive competition have forced hospitality organisations' leaders to reexamine their strategic resources and their roles and functions in order to achieve organisational goals and objectives. As a labor intensive industry, hospitality's heavy reliance on human resources means that it must continually strive to remain competitive in a rapidly, changing environment (Sharpley & Foster, 2003; Zopiatis & Cosnstanti, 2007). Due to the seasonality and other industry characteristics of hospitality, such as, low salaries and wages, antisocial job schedules, high stress, lengthy working hours drive employees to other occupations (Arasli & Arici, 2019); therefore, local citizens unwillingness to serve or undervalue the service jobs promote intervention of immigrant employees who would serve in majority to the survival or growth of the hospitality industry (Joppe, 2012). Hotel employees figure significantly within the total migrant worker community of European countries. For example, the rate is 8.6% in the UK, 8.4% in Germany, 14.7% in Spain, 8.1% in Italy, and 4.8% in Turkey (Baum, 2012). In addition, the European Union's 27 members, have 9.5 million people of which immigrant employees account for 6.2 percent of the EU's total population (Koehler, Lacks, Aghazarm, & Schad, 2010). The cost of turnover is high when subject to retention, selection, orientation, training, and replacement of new employees, which

costs about half or a little over half percent of a full-time staff member's annual salary in the industry (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). Worse, these experienced employees may attract customers to potential competitors' businesses. Therefore, one of the most important problems of a hospitality setting is managing diverse workforces where migrant workers have been growing fast because of the aforementioned reasons in parallel to the fast developing hospitality industry. Immigrant employees move to another country due to lack of employment and freedom, war, terrorism, and religious pressure in their native country. There are also positive attitudes behind their influx such as, finding a new job, a different culture, getting a better education, language skills, career opportunities and so forth. Like their local full-time counterparts, some immigrant employees were appointed by their employers not only because they are willing to work for low wages (Dench, Hurstfield, Hill, & Ackroyd, 2009; Wills et al., 2009), but also because they are perceived as having different attitudes, and other talents (Anderson, 2007). The vital factor was due to their boundary spanning roles, face-to-face and voice-to-voice relationships with guest who play a pivotal role in services delivery and products, as well as, service complaints and recovery to guests (Hartline & Ferrel, 1996; Gil, Berenguer, & Cervera, 2008; Arasli, Bahman Teimouri, Kiliç, & Aghaei, 2017).

Numerous employees working in the hotel organisation can be migrant employees (de Castro, Fujishiro, Sweitzer, & Olivaet, 2006), and thus the organisational success and development of the hotels are counting on keeping immigrant employees (Rozkwitalska & Basinska, 2015). Despite this, hospitality studies have paid insufficient attention to the immigrant employees' unique theoretical and managerial challenges (Chou, 2018). One of the biggest challenges that these employees face is the effective link and fit with the organisation and the job, which have been

acknowledged as two important dimensions of job embeddedness (Lang, Kern, & Zapf, 2016). Although the potential significance of immigrant employees remains clear, several scholars suggested that hotel organisations cannot keep these employees due to the turnover rate (Arasli & Arici, 2019; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). The hospitality industry continuing quest to find ways to retain these employees remains a major managerial challenge (Karatepe, 2013). One factor for immigrant worker retention involves ensuring that workers feel linked to their work. One measure of this link is job embeddedness, which is a relatively growing concept in the current hospitality literature (Arasli et al., 2017; Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012). Job embeddedness consists of three important components, fit, link and sacrifice. (Mitchell et al., 2001). Therefore job embeddedness emerges as one of the main elements for promoting the retention of immigrant employees.

In fact, empirical literature investigating job embeddedness in the hospitality industry has been decidedly equivocal (Arasli et al., 2017; Karatepe, 2013), although job embeddedness is an important anti-withdrawal factor in HRM, and scholars have much to conduct exploration of job embeddedness (Wheeler, Harris, & Harvey, 2010). Furthermore, according to Mitchell et al. (2001), JE theory explained how organisational fit, links and sacrifice and community fit, links and sacrifice (off-the-job embeddedness) factors influence the retention of employees. For this study, attention is directed to JE. The reasons to examine JE are manifold. First, studies (Purba, Oostrom, Born, & van der Molen, 2016) have demonstrated that JE can reduce turnover. Second, trust in supervisors (TIS) (Goris, Vaught, & Pettit, 2003) and high performance work practices (HPWPs) (Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006) are on-the-job aspects, and they are more likely related with JE within the

organisation. In addition, several scholars suggested that job embeddedness may be increased by such variables as:

- perceived supervisor support (Arasli & Arici, 2019),
- high-performance work practices,
- and work social support (Karatepe, 2013).

However, job crafting as an organisational resource in the hospitality industry has yet to be investigated thoroughly. Employees have suggested that job crafting can improve the fit between their personal needs, abilities and passions about the job through job crafting (Tims & Bakker, 2010).

Given this inadequate concern in the hospitality literature on JE of immigrant employees, this present study has begun to ask the job crafting-JE model so as to consider how (through what mediator variables) job crafting may lead to higher or lower JE. This shift in research focus has resulted in several significant insights. For example, scholars now know that relational and cognitive crafting results in a higher level of employees' fit when compared with the organisation, while task crafting does not (Kim & Beehr, 2018) and job crafting increases flight attendants' work engagement and service recovery performance, decreases their intention to leave (Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017).

Nevertheless, academic knowledge of the processes by which three dimensions of job crafting (i.e., relational, cognitive and task crafting) promote or hinder immigrant employees' JE in the hospitality industry is far from complete, and several basic pieces of information are missing. For instance, higher level of immigrant employees JE is vital to retain these employees in the industry. While high turnover is one of the

most important problems, these employees' embeddedness cannot be ensured without mediator effect as suggested by Whetten (1989). Whetten states that it is necessary for researchers to explain causal relationships as a phenomenon by determining mediators between antecedent and consequence variables. In order to better comprehend how job crafting can result in JE, black box is opened and the mediator effects of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and work engagement (WE) were investigated. In this study, it is suggested that through providing PsyCap and WE of immigrant employees, job crafting may ensure these employees' job embeddedness.

Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of job crafting (JC) on immigrant employees' perceptions of on the job embeddedness using a serial mediation mechanism which involved the employees' psychological capital and their work engagement as mediators. Furthermore, although several scholars suggest the importance of the mediators between these two variables (Whetten, 1989), an under-explored area among immigrant employees remain the precursors that poses a challenge which needs to be addressed. Thus, in this study, three (3) fundamental indicators of job crafting, PsyCap, and work engagement on JE were investigated. This also served as a key research question to be empirically answered.

Finally, prior research on the effects of job crafting on the job embeddedness has been widely conducted in Western countries (Elanain, 2009). To comprehend why employees choose to quit or remain in an organisation, most of these researches have recommended several models to be tested in non-Western contexts. Additionally, this research extends the knowledge of the factors triggering the relationship between job crafting's three dimensions and immigrant employees' job embeddedness by

conducting this study in the small island hotel setting for examining the relationships mentioned above.

Chapter 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 JD-R Theory

Job-Demand Resource (JD-R) theory and Conservation of Resources (COR) theory have underpinned the hypothesised relationships which link job and personal resources to employee job embeddedness through a serial mediation effect. According to JD-R theory, job-related features could be classified as job demands and resources in an organisation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands are defined as “those physical, social, or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs...”. Job resources are defined as “those physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that may do any of the following:

- (a) be functional in achieving work goals;
- (b) reduce job demands at the associated physiological and psychological costs;
- (c) stimulate personal growth and development” (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001, p. 501).

Drawing on the JD-R theory, previous research revealed that job crafting results in enhanced job resources (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013). Environmental stressors such as workload, emotional demands, and time pressure can be deemed as job demands, whereas organisational resources, such as job control, possibilities development, and social support could be listed as job resources (Demerouti et al.,

2001). Job demands and resources are negatively associated, because job demands like workload, and emotionally demanding interactions with guests can hinder the mobilisation of job resources (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer, & Schaufeli, 2013; Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Demerouti et al., 2001). Similarly, high job resources such as co-worker support can mitigate job demands. Several scholars found that job demands result in negative employee outcomes, such as burnout and emotional exhaustion, whereas job resources are considered as the predictor of positive employee outcomes, such as work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Cheng & Yi, 2018). For example, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that job demands positively affect burnout which leads to employee turnover intention. Hakanen, Schaufelt, and Ahola (2008) also found that job resources result in employee engagement which in turn leads to organisational commitment.

Recent approaches have described job crafting by drawing on JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), where followers could craft their jobs by using job resources and by defying job demands. Job demands and resources together could engender followers' advancement and development and encourage them to obtain further achievements (Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017). Through utilising job resources and challenging job demands, employees can display proactive behaviours and so they are able to start making changes to the borders of their jobs (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). To illustrate, a follower could enhance social resources by asking a co-worker for a recommendation, enhance structural resources through endeavouring to get new job-related knowledge, increase challenging demands by undertaking extra jobs and responsibilities, and mitigate hindering demands by avoiding any interactions with undesirable guests (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). Based on the discussion, past research contended that individual employees who craft their jobs are more

motivated to show better job performance (Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017). Such employees are not only more engaged in their tasks, but the favourable experience of enhancing job resources and managing challenging demands might also increase their personal resources (Vogt, Hakanen, Brauchli, Jenny, & Bauer, 2016). Drawing on the JD-R theory, job crafting in the form of enhancing job resources and challenging job demands may result in positive employee work outcomes (Tims et al., 2013). Current findings have provided empirical support for the supposition (Cheng & Yi, 2018; Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017; Kim, Im, Qu, & NamKoong, 2018).

The stress model that is called job demands-resources has been created and benefitted by numerous cultures and applied in many occupations. It works as to foresee personal and organisational results. There are two main components which this model bears and they are personal resources and job resources. Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001) claimed that job resources are the facets of a job that initiates personal growth, makes employees to believe in themselves in order to achieve their missions and to maintain the physical and psychological challenges of the job.

Personal resources touch on the psychological parts or skills of individuals that shape their ability to control and devote to their environment (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis and Jackson, 2003). Schaufeli and Taris (2014) said that similar to job resources, personal resources also clear the way for achieving goals and encourage growth and development. So, personal resource ingredients which are resilience, optimism, self-esteem and self-efficacy have been found as influencers of work engagement (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli, 2007). Additionally, when the

work engagement of individuals increase, their work satisfaction and wellbeing also increase. A recent study by Collie and Martin (2017) indicated that adaptability as a personal resource also plays a role in individuals' ability to manage the changing demands of their work.

The Job-Demand Resources model serves as a proper framework to find out employees' workplace struggles and outcomes because it considers the influence of various other job-based and personal factors (Collie, Granziera and Martin, 2018). Moreover, JD-R offers many processes linked to job and personal resources that enlighten the experiences of employees. According to Schaufeli and Taris (2004), JD-R model offers that when employees possess high levels of job resources, this would endorse personal resources. Employees motivational and energetic feeling in the workplace shows that job resources and personal resources come together and result in enhanced engagement (Bakker et al., 2007) and consecutively this creates positive workplace results such as increased motivation, successful task accomplishment and work related fulfilment (Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli and Salanova, 2006). Ultimately, the JD-R model expresses that when an employee has access to personal resources, this supportive environment of their workplace plays a key role in decreasing burnout (Bakker et al., 2007).

Job Demands-Resources model has a special way in literature as it is one of the best models to comprehend the experience of service industry workers. The reason is that this model is flexible and can be applied to different occupations (Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli, 2001). The model enables aspects of a job to be modelled in two categories, which are job demands and job resources.

Many studies related to JD-R model has proven its appropriateness to many distinct service occupations and indicate that job stress is an outcome of high job demands with little job resources (Trépanier, Fernet, Austin, Forest and Vallerand, 2014). Aforementioned job demands are physical facets of the job or personal self-evaluations that help individuals to dream and achieve their work goals, trigger personal development or to become more resilient. Moreover, according to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), resources are not only work for reducing job-related demands. They also increase motivation, make individuals more engaged with their task and boost their satisfaction while decreasing strain. So, what can be understood from here is that job resources do not only involve physical resources but also contain resources that help individuals to complete their tasks (Affrunti, Mehta, Rusch, Frazier, 2018).

Since job demands and job resources are separate compounds, each one has its own method of predicting job stress in different vocation (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). In today's world, with the continuous improvement of globalisation, technology is becoming more usable in the service industry. When job resources are examined, it is easy to say that technology is one of the most important elements among other resources. Carlson et al. (2017) viewed job resources and demands from a technological angle. They expressed that technology as a job resource assists employees to obtain their targets or work individually. Technology related resources can increase the autonomy of individuals and therefore help them complete their task (Mauno, Kinnunen and Ruokolainen, 2007). As an example, a laptop computer easily allow employees to reach their job-related targets in anywhere at any time. Yi, Jackson, Park and Probst (2006) said that employees who are given the freedom to use such resources have been observed to enjoy their job.

Additionally, Carlson et al. (2017) argued that technology-based resources may create positive and engaged personnel. They claim that access to technology enables the work to be more flexible and supportive. Such characteristics of jobs make more constructive and fulfilled employees as they engage with their job (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma and Bakker, 2002).

Nevertheless, it must be taken into consideration that employers may experience role overload. Managers may expect employees to increase the quantity and quality of their work because they have unlimited access to technology but this will eventually decrease their productivity (Karr-Wisniewski and Lu, 2010).

Alarcon's (2011) research proved that low levels of job resources or facing with high job demands can cause employees to be emotionally exhausted. In line with this, individuals' self-efficacy has been studied to see the main factors which influence an individual's well-being, considering different theories such as JD-R theory. Self-efficacy in a number of studies is placed as moderator of the link among job demands and strains in the Job-Demand Resources model (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

Xanthopoulou also claimed that job resources within the JD-R model have an important impact on individuals' energy levels. These energy levels seem to deplete over time when employees face with high job demands. However, this energy depletion is not seen when there are a variety of resources available for employees. Therefore, Van Ruyseveldt et al. (2011) claimed that job resources prevent energy depletion in employees and reduces stress levels, enhances their comfort and increase their work engagement.

Self-efficacy, which is bedrock for job resources, assists employees to cope with the stressful situations they experience with work overload. Carballo-Penela, Varela and Bande's (2018) study about salespeople showed that, when they are provided with enough psychological resources, their energy depletion disappeared and they easily dealt with their jobs' demands. From this, it is clear to see that by providing necessary resources to every employee from various sectors, their focus on their work can be increased. In line with that, Deery, Iverson and Walsh (2002) stated that longer-serving employees are likely to develop abilities to tackle high job demands and therefore reduce their energy depletion. They could come up with their own tactics to manage customers, and this will be helpful for them to increase their self-esteem. Taking into account that hospitality employees spend most of their working hours handling customers' demands, they may buffer their work overload and psychological exhaustion shortly after they gain some experience in the industry.

As Bakker and Demerouti (2007) stated on the JD-R model, certain characteristics of one's work could harm their mental health through different courses. Therefore, when employees experience too much job demands in their workplace, this may create chronic exhaustion and other psychology related strains (Bakker, Demerouti and Sanz-Vergel, 2014). In order to reverse these effects, Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011) proposed that the presence of job resources at the workplace promotes positive cognitive state to individuals.

According to the growing body of JD-R literature, several different perspectives about this theory emerge. The model has been examined to see the contrast between challenge and hindrance demands (van den Broeck, de Cuyper, de Witt and Vansteenkiste, 2010). It is known that job demands and job resources are linked to

positive and negative mental health conditions, precisely these are work engagement and job burnout (Bakker et al., 2014). Job burnout consists of emotional exhaustion, which can be seen as reduction in one's emotions because of work. Work engagement on the other hand contains positive conditions like dynamism, dedication and concentration (Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova, 2006).

As mentioned, different JD-R studies examine job demands by separating them into two aspects. These are namely challenge demands and hindrance demands, and obviously demonstrate peculiar effects on worker outcomes (Crawford et al., 2010). Both of these demands require effort which causes exhaustion. Nevertheless, challenge demands usually have positive consequences and this can motivate individuals (Webster, Beehr and Love, 2011).

Hindrance demands puts obstacles along the way for achieving task fulfilment, reduces performance and impedes achievement of job goals. So, exposing too much to hindrance enables personal growth, elicit negative emotions and drives employees to cope with the issues in a passive manner. Therefore, these are ultimately related with job burnout (Crawford et al., 2010). Such hindrance demands can be listed as conflicts in the workplace, organisational constraints and uncertainties about the task (Webster et al., 2011).

Challenge demands, which include workload, responsibility and complexity of the work to be done, may promote growth and learning (LePine et al., 2005). In line with this, Schneider et al. (2017) mentioned in their study that challenge demands consist of cognitive and learning demands. All the learning demands require individuals to spend effort and this usually cause strain. However, these demands provide elevated

experiences and improves employees' work-related prowess (Prem, Ohly, Kubicek and Korunka, 2017). Additionally, Bakker and Demerouti (2017) said that the first thing hindrance demands affect is burnout. They explained that by undermining the achievement of job related targets and reducing employees' energy, hindrance demands lead to burnout.

Halbesleben (2010) stated that in the JD-R model, all the provided job resources initiate a process which employees begin their personal growth and development and this increases their work engagement. On the contrary, insufficient job resources cause psychological withdrawal. So, individuals who constantly try to deal with little job resources may face with difficulties in reaching their job related goals and withdraw from what they are doing to avoid disappointments (Schneider et al., 2017).

Alongside JD-R model's primary effects, the model also contains interaction links between job strain and work engagement (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). Job resources lessen the harmful effect of job demands on fatigue by reducing energy-depleting process with the help of strong coping mechanism (Bakker, Demerouti and Euwema, 2005). Therefore, Hu, Schaufeli and Taris (2011) indicated that job demands highlight the positive influences of job resources on job engagement by facilitating learning and motivation. Undoubtedly, job resources were proven to shrink negative impacts of hindrance demands on work related fatigue (Dawson, O'Brien and Beehr, 2016).

Along with emotional exhaustion comes depersonalisation. This situation makes employees to emotionally distance themselves from clients, peers and the institution.

Therefore, this condition leads to reduced personal accomplishment and it means that employees negatively evaluate their capabilities and effectiveness. All of these problems are considered as the main drivers of burnout (Lee and Ashforth, 1993).

When all the energy draining aspects of work life is considered, it is possible to buffer these impacts with the assist from JD-R model's motivational aspects. It is known by now that job resources are considered as the major necessities for internal and external motivation. As Schaufeli et al., (2009) stated, job resources are seen as the main proof for positive motivational conditions like work engagement and organisational commitment.

Demerouti and Peeters, (2018) stated that it is necessary for organisations to always monitor and revise job characteristics such as introducing realistic goals and challenges, modifying job demands and arranging enough amount of job resources. These are a continuous series of actions. Individuals job related tension occurs from daily requirements from their managers (Bakker, 2014), therefore management is needed to regularly reflect the organisation's vision, mission and provide help and assistance (Kelemen et al., 2020).

Bakker and de Vries (2020) expressed that employees do not only react to managers and their environment but also greatly affect their job's traits via adaptive or nonadaptive handle strategies. So, according to the JD-R theory's proposition, employees who experience work engagement are likely to reform their job demands and resources with the help of job crafting (Tims et al., 2012). It is no surprise that individuals who face with job strain will eventually have decreased focus at work (Bakker and Wang, 2019).

Apart from the heavy workload that job demands bring to employees lives, there is also another strain that comes along with it and it is called emotional demands (Deery, Walsh and Zatzick, 2014). These are significant job demands that elevates psychological strain that threaten and decrease consume individuals energy, and when if they are experiencing this for a long period of time, it is likely that they begin to feel emotionally exhausted, doubt themselves and have no will for personal accomplishment (Alarcon, 2011).

According to the literature, emotional demands require considerable amount of job resources and this heightens stress (Hu, Schaufeli and Taris, 2011). According to Grover et al. (2016), emotional demands are stressors that are usually seen in service occupations. As Dawson, O'Brien and Beehr (2016) stated, emotional demands are actually hindrance demands that when individuals experience this, work related duties become difficult for them to cope with. These demands mentally harm individuals and lead to diminishing of psychological resources and ultimately this situation brings stress.

As it can be seen through the extensive research, JD-R model typically contains environmental qualities of a job. However, the individual differences have been classified within the JD-R as personal resources. These resources in the model are unique traits of employees that influence how individuals wield job resources to deal with job demands (Demerouti et al., 2001). Apart from the main psychological capital elements, mindfulness is also another element that can be found in the literature. Grover et al., (2016) stated that mindfulness is less about self-concept and more about how employees wield their attentional talents. More mindful employees focus on the present and this allows them to centre their attention to the issues in

front of them. On the contrary, employees with less mindful attributes have less focus on the present and more focused to future or past.

Therefore, mindfulness is actually an important personal resource to study around the JD-R theory as it proposes a separate outlook on personal resources. Because there is limited resources, mindfulness is considered as a personal resource that effects the way individuals see job demands and establish job resources which in turn influence the way they cope with stress. Employees with high mindful attributes are able to focus on the urgent demands of their job rather than focusing the whole set of task they are assigned to do. Glomb et al., (2011) said that employees who can practice mindfulness are able to see the demands as normal daily tasks. As they do not exaggerate their duty, this makes them to focus on their task and not get stressed as well. Because of this separation of events of work from emotions being experienced, they start to seem less threatening for employees (Feldman, Greeson and Senville, 2010).

Along with the demands of the work comes job related stress as well. Dealing with that type of stress is often hard for individuals as they are whirling in a dynamic work environment. In such atmosphere, stress is obviously an inevitable fact. So, what employees want is to always try to cope with and tackle these job stresses that surround them. Literature has presented coping flexibility, and this means the ability to practice numerous coping strategies to a certain extent that allows employees to adapt themselves to demands (Cheng et al., 2014). As an example, avoidance or emotion related coping could be suitable in the short term. The reason is that it constructs opportunities to heal mentally and therefore an effective method against stress (Sonnentag, 2012). But, avoidance coping method could be nonadaptive for

the long run, and the reason for this is that the stress causing situation is not managed (Cheng et al., 2014). Additionally, when these avoidance or emotion related coping method is used, it may get nonadaptive over time. Likewise, approach or problem-centred dealing method could be seen as an effective way to cope with stress, but may not be enough if the stressor is unmanageable (Britt et al., 2016). When these are considered, it may be better for individuals to use emotion-focused coping, which is to change and adapt their feelings and thoughts.

In addition to stress management, Bakker and de Vries (2020) also argued that when there is an increase of the job strain happens, individuals are inclined to choose nonadaptive methods of coping. They indicated that the more job strain employees face with, the less they are able to choose a coping method that is suitable for the situation. Moreover, they stated that when employees have too much work related demands required from them, they quit doing activities that would usually preserve their mental state and direct their attention on the demand. This would eventually make them feel unhappy, leave them feeling tired and lead to burnout. Hotel employees may feel tired, may be homesick or miss their love ones. Because of the flexible working hours of the hospitality sector, it is not easy for them to finish their shift and go home. Therefore in the long term, this situation might cause psychological damage on employees. However, by changing the structure of their work, adjusting how they deal with their tasks and changing their relationship with their peers in the positive way is what employees actually need. This changing method therefore can be done with some knowledge about job crafting.

2.2 COR Theory

On the other hand, COR theory suggests that people try to acquire, maintain and foster valuable resources such as health, happiness, peace, and self-protection. Such

resources are needed when dealing with physical and mental pressures and seeking to generate resource processions (Hobfoll, 1989; Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017). The COR theory also suggests that people have to invest in resources so as to preserve against losing resources, being recused from losing resources and getting resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Kohn and Schooler (1982) claimed that job characteristics in a work-setting could influence personal resources since people generally use their experiences from the work in off-work circumstances. One personal resource of broad interest is PsyCap (Vogt et al., 2016). According to this theory, such resources are crucial since they create other valuable resources and underpin the development of resource processions which might result unfavourable job-related outcomes (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2007). This is plausible, since work engagement originated from the aggregation of personal resources (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017). Based on this theoretical framework, it is concluded that PsyCap as a personal resource may lead to more engaged employees in the workplace which leads to higher levels of employee job embeddedness.

Conservation of Resources (COR) theory proposes that keeping the existing and gathering new resources is a significant motivator for employees in their decision-making and responses. Any decrease or insufficient amount of such resources can cause stress, emotional exhaustion and these in the end will harm the overall wellbeing.

COR theory sets up two principles that are found in individual's behaviours. The first one is primacy of resource loss, and this means that losing one's resources are perceived as harmful and therefore they spend effort to avoid resource losses rather

than achieving new ones. The second one is resource investment, and this means that individuals intend to invest resources to avoid resource loss, recover from any type of resource losses and obviously to achieve new ones (Hobfoll, 2001). Additionally, there are two consequences of COR theory. One is resource gain spirals where individuals with more resources tend to experience more resource achievements. The other one is resource loss cycles where individuals with scarce resources or have been encountering resource losses tend to face with more resource losses because they would eventually become hesitant in seeking new resources (Zhang, Ramsey and Lorenz, 2020).

As mentioned in Merino, Privado and Arnaiz's (2019) study, people fight to maintain, conserve and establish their resources. This may create a psychological strain because individuals might sense a threat of resource loss, actually losing resources, for example losing a job, and thirdly the absence of return of resources, for example studying in a university for years, investing in time money and effort but eventually not being recruited after graduation.

Hobfoll (2002) described that individuals with a plenty of resources are more likely to show a successful stance against environmental stressors such as unemployment. These types of individuals also demonstrate abilities of dealing with such negative incidents and fortunately getting out of that circumstance. So within the COR framework, emotional resources are seen as very precious challenge as various positive conditions like enthusiasm, pride and joy grant emotional resources which businesspeople benefit from while coping with contends in their business (Cardon et al., 2009). Moreover, COR theory specifies money, knowledge and time as resources of energy (Hobfoll, 1989).

Guan and Frenkel (2018) expressed that crossover of social resources is a method that brings various job resources to individuals in the workplace. People who has their own social network power are considered trustworthy by their manager and therefore they are given more decision making allowance (Cheung and Wu, 2011). So, this makes employees to have a good quality relationship with their leader and they are provided with more freedom to make decisions on how they will cope with work assignments (Law et al., 2000). According to Shih and Lin (2014), managers categorise their employees who has strong personal bonds with their peers and grant them extra task and emotional aid in the workplace. What can be understood from this statement is that individuals with a strong relationship with their leaders are more open to development than the ones who are not. These types of individuals are more valuable to the manager and in the end the manager will act as a coach so he will devote himself to the employees' success.

Within the workplace, employees must be able to get along with every colleague and manager well and also speak out if there is a problem bothering them. This way they will be able to reach for more resources and even retain the ones they already possess. Zare and Flincbaugh (2019) found out that extraversion is a fine measure of voice. In their research, Li and Xu (2020) used the COR theory to find out if employee voice could be used as a coping method to help them solve the reduction in personal resources. The COR theory has been accepted as an essential philosophy to tell how individuals are focused to cope with stress under such difficult work conditions and requirements like employee voice (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Therefore, individuals will demonstrate voice behaviours to prevent their resource losses (Ng and Fieldman, 2012). In previous studies, it can be seen that individuals used voice as a tool for resource protection and also to achieve them (Carnevale et al., 2018;

Zhou et al., 2019). Personal traits of a person are generally viewed as personal resources that they could use in their daily work lives for helping them to resist stress (Hobfoll, 1989). Between varieties of personal traits, all those characteristics display aspects of individuals and verify how they react to uncertain situations and types of dealing methods through which they carry out (2014).

With the implementation of employee voice within the frame of COR theory, it is easy to say that such employees need to assume extrovert type of personalities. Costa and McCrae (1992) defined extraversion as individuals who demonstrate active, energetic, outgoing and assertive traits by being talkative. Extrovert people therefore show long term emotions as they stimulate these traits for a long period of time (Judge and Zapata, 2015).

Therefore, this means that extrovert individuals are less likely to experience emotional exhaustion. This kind of exhaustion is the main element of job burnout and it translates to having depleted emotional resources (Maslach et al., 2001).

Considering extraversion as a trigger of positiveness, extraversion can be linked with emotional resource deficiency, which means emotional exhaustion within the frame of COR theory. Thus, this theory explains that when people encounter with inadequate emotional resources, they will face with emotional exhaustion (Wright and Cropanzano, 1998). As extrovert individuals are outgoing people who engage in groups, they are likely to preserve their positive emotions in the workplace even if they face with job stressors. So, this also means that such individuals rarely demonstrate emotional exhaustion. When hotel workers are considered, they usually seem to have extrovert characteristic types, which can benefit them in coping with

stress and other unusual events. Immigrant employees come from different backgrounds, and along with them they bring joy and a positive type of energy to the workplace. This makes them usually be friendly and energetic at work. However, not every person is the same. There are obviously individuals who have introvert characteristics and they usually are silent and do not engage with people in teams. They do not display too many positive emotions, and ultimately this hints that they are prone to emotional exhaustion.

However, psychological stress is always present in the hospitality industry, and every worker can experience it regardless of their characteristics. Psychological stress happens when an individual is threatened, feels lost or shows no will in terms of achieving resources within a workplace. One reason for not having enough strength to chase specific resources might be the aggressive behaviour of the manager. These aggressive demonstrations of a supervisor usually consist of shouting and threatening subordinates for job loss. There is no doubt that these types of behaviours make employees lost control over their resources and personal autonomy (Akram, Li and Akram, 2019). Eventually, they end up with displaying unproductive behaviour. Abusive supervision of managers is a harmful workplace stressor that decreases employees' self-confidence and dignity (Lee et al., 2017). Employees who experience such negativities in the workplace become defensive to preserve their sources and this makes them hesitant to seek additional resources as they are using all their energy and will in protecting the current ones (Zhao and Duo, 2019).

As task-focused employees are highly involved in their job, they have a variety of work-related experience to share. Additionally, because job-engaged individuals care about their work too much, they are likely to share their insight in order to exchange

knowledge (Wu and Lee, 2020). This also provides one of the principles of COR theory that individuals invest resources to gain more, and engaged individuals find this knowledge investment beneficial whereas disengaged ones do not (Hobfoll, 1998). Also, employees display helping behaviours that refers to voluntary actions for helping coworkers in dealing with work related problems, and this actually has an indirect contribution to the company (George and Jones, 1997). This helping behaviour is done by peers sharing resources among each other and assisting one another to complete job tasks. Kim et al. (2010) expressed that helping behaviour has a significant importance because it increases the quality of service. Immigrant hotel employees spend plenty of time together, and in the end they become close friends so helping behaviour can be observed among them.

As for seeking and gathering knowledge, engaged employees are obviously better at this. Because these kinds of employees have more energetic personality and dedicated to their job, they are successful at obtaining more knowledge in the midst of experience sharing. Achieving and learning knowledge may be a demanding task for individuals because they might not be familiar with the newly obtained knowledge. Gorgievski and Hobfoll (2008) said that as engaged individuals have more energetic characteristics, they contain a wide range of resources in their arsenal to deal with the struggles they face during knowledge obtaining. In the end, this means that engaged employees are doing better at knowledge sharing and acquiring.

When it comes to employees' managers, it is also important to consider their leadership characteristics and their approach towards workers. A narcissistic leader will have a strong ego and this condition might make them feel threatened when employees speak to share their opinions (Fast, Burris and Bartel, 2014). COR theory

is based on sharing and maintaining resources, but narcissistic leaders are keen to keep their social and emotional resources to themselves and this eventually blocks employees' voice (Huang, Krasikova and Harms, 2019). According to Bushman and Baumeister (1998), these types of leaders expect obedience from subordinates and they show their superiority over employees by stressing their position and power. When this is looked through the COR window, these characteristics show that narcissistic managers conserve their own resources and avoid potential resource loss because collaborating with employees might do so. There is also a possible scenario that these kinds of managers might intentionally create challenging situations for employees (Burris, 2012).

Supporting the COR theory, Lee and Ok (2013) stated that when service employees receive negative treatment from customers, this causes a loss in their emotional resources such as pride and dignity and this leads them to seek other resources in order to sabotage those consumers who did not treat them well. By this way they feel that they would replace their lost emotional resources. Additionally, Shao and Skarlicki (2012) expressed that sabotaging customers who abused them is a path to restore pride and confidence that workers lost as a result of the mistreatment they received. Fox and Spector (1999) indicated that facing frustrating incidents turns into emotional backlash such as resentment, and that leads to behavioural reactions. So, when these types of negative events occur in service employees' work-life, they see perceive it as an invisible wall that blocks their path to achieve their goals. Their negative emotions rise to surface and urge them to display conflicting behaviours. Agnew (1992) stated that negative emotions that occurred by strain motivates employees to display deviance as a coping method, therefore service workers who experience strain tend to show such deviant actions.

2.3 Job Crafting

Since Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) defined job crafting as the physical and cognitive changes that individuals make within the workplace, employees are considered to change their job duties to make it seem more meaningful to them. These changes of job crafting consist of three kinds of crafting and they are task, relational and cognitive crafting methods. Task crafting is changing and applying a new way for a task to complete it. This is done by changing the type and scope of job duties. Relational crafting is to deal with the amount or quality of communication with colleagues at work, and cognitive crafting is about how an employee views and defines his/her job.

Tims et al. (2012) expressed job crafting within the scope of JD-R theory as the alterations that employees make to harmonise their job resources and job demands with their own needs and abilities. Also, Tims et al. (2012) stated four job crafting aspects and those are enhancing opportunities for improvement, socialising to enhance job resources, taking on extra duties to improve quicker, and reducing hindrances to be sure the job does not get emotionally destructive. Both these viewpoints show that individuals can broaden or narrow their work and duties.

However, Zhang and Parker (2018) argued that it is unclear whether which actions are job crafting and which are not. As an example, Tims et al. (2012) expressed that job crafting can also be in other types of forms more than cognitive, relational and task changes, such as skill development. But, Demerouti (2014) stated that task crafting is about altering the demands of the job and relational crafting can be viewed as altering social resources and integrating those three types of crafting cannot be done directly.

On the other hand, it is believed that cognitive crafting is not truly proven to be a type of job crafting (Zhang and Parker, 2018). As Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) claimed, cognitive crafting helps employees to clearly view their work and their work identity. However when it is looked through the JD-R perspective, many researchers stated that cognitive crafting is a type of passive adjustment to work, which brings no real change in job content. Therefore, in their study, Zhang and Parker have come up with new job crafting approaches by blending all the known information and unclarity into their proposals. They have divided job crafting orientation into two, namely approach and avoidance crafting and they explained each distinction fairly.

Researchers agree on approach and avoidance crafting techniques for their influences on employees (Laurence, 2010; Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli and Hetland, 2012; Tims and Bakker, 2010). These methods have been discussed in previous researches, as promotion-focused, prevention-focused and regulatory focus (Higgins, 1997) techniques. Zhang and Parker stated that approach-avoidance method is more relevant compared to promotion and prevention focused theories, however both of them suggest that individuals have inclinations towards positive conditions and avoid negative situations.

Although some scholars disagree (Niessen et al., 2016), cognitive crafting is obviously one of the most important types of job crafting methods. This method helps individuals to view their job and task, i.e. how they perceive their job and it is self-initiated and intentional. It is an intangible crafting method compared to other types, but it is essential for individuals to influence the meaning of their task, their identity within the organisation and their feelings (Berg et al., 2013). Cognitive

crafting is linked with employees' experiences, interactions and how they shape these perceptions (Daniels, 2006). Cognitive crafting is seen when individuals broaden their role direction or their perceived job scale (Parker, Wall and Jackson, 1997). This crafting is built on intentional and active behaviours that employees make to put a meaning on their tasks and roles.

Nevertheless, Zhang and Parker's eight types of crafting proposal consist of two main sections, namely approach crafting and avoidance crafting. The approach crafting is divided into two in itself and it can be either behavioural or cognitive and both of them can be resource-focused or demand-focused. This approach crafting proposes four kinds of approach crafting methods. The first one is *approach resources crafting*, and it demonstrates crafting one's job by looking for positive aspects of job or job resources. It is a behavioural one. Second one is *approach demands crafting*, it contains behaviours to seek more challenging demands or focus on hindering demands. This one is behavioural too. Third one is *approach resources crafting* and it involves reshaping one's task or duty in a way to always remember the positive angles of the job. This is cognitive, and the other cognitive, fourth one is *approach demands crafting* and it is about viewing demands as chances for learning and developing further.

In comparison to approach crafting, avoidance crafting has such actions to escape and stay away from the negativities of work. Avoidance crafting as well can be in the frame of behavioural or cognitive, and just like approach crafting dividends, they can be resource or demand focused. The other four kinds of crafting lies in this method, and the fifth method of crafting is *avoidance resources crafting* and it is about staying away from work which has less positive resources. Sixth one is *avoidance*

demands crafting and it focuses on staying away from frustrating job demands. Both fifth and sixth types of crafting are behavioural. The seventh type of crafting is *avoidance resources crafting* which is cognitive, and it is to cognitively avoiding task that contains less positive resources. The final one and the eighth type of crafting, also being a cognitive one, is *avoidance demands crafting* contains psychologically weakening demands.

Within the job crafting literature, it can be seen that there are some classifications that are made to divide job crafting methods in different methods. Bruning and Campion (2018) created two job crafting scopes as role crafting and these concerns with difficulties and boundaries of work. On the other hand, Tims et al., (2012) created resource crafting which concerns with increased job resources and coping with the demands of the job.

In a role-based perspective where task and relational crafting are placed, could end up as a more adequate job for individuals, but resource-based perspective does not really concern with increased efficiency as proven by the link among this crafting method and work experience, like work engagement (Tims, Derks and Bakker, 2016). Later on, Burning and Campion (2018) came up with approach and avoidance actions as two backgrounds of job crafting behaviours. Approach crafting points its focus on solving issues, enhances the circumstances of work and seeing job stressors in a positive way, and avoidance crafting focuses on looking for ways to decrease or tackle negative parts of the job. Bipp and Demerouti (2015) wielded JD-R approach within the frame of job crafting, and concluded that individuals who were likely to use approach method seemed to enhance their job resources and challenging task demands. This actually shows that these kinds of individuals at work were

intentionally added resources and challenges to their job to help them improve. But, individuals who demonstrated avoidance method were likely to take part in reducing hindering job demands and these employees tried to minimise particular details of their work (Lazzara, Tims and de Gennaro, 2019).

In various research outcomes, job crafting as a method of seeking resources is proven to be positively linked and reducing demands proved to have a negative link to individuals' work engagement (Tims, Bakker and Derks, 2015). Job crafting is proven to bring a quality person-job fit as demands and resources are suitable with individuals' preferences (Oldham and Hackman, 2010). That is, when employees seek resources that are suitable for their own needs and wants, they establish intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as those resources help their growth and improvement (Halbesleben, 2010). Most of the time, job crafting develops workers' skills because new objectives bring new experiences into people's lives. But, decreasing such job demands is proven to initiate withdrawal actions which are not beneficial for motivation (Rudolph et al., 2017).

Tims et al. (2012) argued that self-reports of job crafting has shown to display positive and fulfilling situations in terms of work engagement, employment and job performance. Later, Tims et al. (2013) stated that job crafting displayed a positive link with changes in well-being such as reduced burnout and job satisfaction through an improved workplace surrounding. Increasing challenging demands have shown to positively influence work engagement and displayed a negative link to job burnout. However, reduced job demands were not linked to individuals' wellbeing (Vogt, Brauchli, Jenny and Bauer, 2016).

Petrou et al. (2012) argued that daily changes in job crafting are linked to disturbed work engagement. It was precisely stated that the more individuals looked for job resources on a specific day, the more engaged they seemed in their job during that day. On the contrary, Tims et al. (2013) found that the more individuals reduced the hindrances of their work on a specific day, the less engaged they seemed on that specific day. This could be because of the reduced challenges. It is solid evidence that daily job crafting creates a positive impact on work enjoyment, but indirectly related to performance (Tims et al., 2014).

Even though majority of the studies conclude that job crafting has a positive link to work engagement, some research proposed that job crafting has a negative relation to work engagement (Demerouti et al., 2015, Petrou et al., 2012). These outcomes can be explained as while employees try to decrease their job demands, they demonstrate withdrawal behaviour therefore they express low enthusiasm. Job crafting is done through self-regulation, and actively changing circumstances requires energy, therefore crafting actions may cause a decrease in employees' energy levels. On the other hand, Berg, Grant and Johnson (2010) argued that job crafting is linked with high levels of stress, disappointment and occasional feelings of uneasiness. Additionally, having less job demands triggers arguments with peers and this causes disengagement from one's work (Tims, Bakker and Derks, 2015).

The theoretical viewpoint of job crafting assists employees to shape the objective of the task and in the end individuals will see their job as more meaningful, satisfying and fulfilling. The outcomes of this situation will be on employees' work identity, meaningfulness of job and self-image as well (Mattarelli and Tagliaventi, 2015). On the other hand, by influencing from Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) job crafting

explanation, Tims and Bakker used the JD-R theory to work on job crafting actions. The reason is that, in this theory there are two underlying job traits and those are job demands and job resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014). Job demands concerns the angles of the job that is concerned with individuals' effort and job resources concerns the parts of the job that aid employees to focus on job demands and seek opportunities for self-improvement.

As Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) stated, finding meaning in work is a significant reason to initiate job crafting. Bakker and Oerlemans (2018) argued that individuals sense more relatedness to their work on occasions when they craft their social resources because this assists them in interacting with others. Furthermore, individuals may face with more competence and autonomy in their job related tasks, especially on occasions when they apply crafting techniques to their structural resources. As an example, when employees dynamically look for opportunities to develop themselves, they tend to deal more sufficiently with their job tasks (Rudolph et al., 2017). In addition to this, when individuals look for more flexibility and diversity, this automatically make them feel autonomous in performing their job duties (Tims et al., 2013). They also feel more autonomous in their job tasks on occasions when they establish their job resources and lower demands. When employees reduce their workload and hindering demands, they feel increased levels of autonomy and a variety of choices to perform their tasks.

Employees who have the attitude of seeking and approaching, collect more job resources and find challenging job demands (Bipp and Demerouti, 2015). Besides, individuals who have the attitude to avoid negative circumstances are likely to decrease hindering work demands. Individuals who are promotion-focused are

inclined to apply job crafting methods in their daily routine to seek resources and challenges, and prevention-focused individuals demonstrate willingness to decrease harmful job demands (Brenninkmeijer and Hekkert-Koning, 2015). All these research outcomes say that individuals' characteristics influence their actions on work situations so this means that people with a positive mindset are inclined to apply job crafting.

Self-determination theory suggests that individuals seek three instinctive psychological needs; they are relatedness, autonomy and competence (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Autonomy indicates individuals' urge to use their own will (deCharms, 1968). Competence states individuals' desire to be effective while operating within the environment (White, 1959). Relatedness shows the tendency to communicate, connect and care for others (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). Extensive studies has proved that when these three needs are satisfied, individuals' wellbeing and work performance increases, but lack of these needs causes performance devaluation and job strain (Gagne and Vansteenkiste, 2013). With these, job crafting and seeking resources and be present in employees work lives. When employees craft their jobs, they adjust their resources and demands accordingly, and this elevates the possibility that the workplace satisfies employees' competence, relatedness and autonomy. Van Wingerden et al. (2017) expressed that people who learned to craft their jobs satisfied their needs and seemed more engaged in tasks.

Brockner and Higgins (2001) stated that there are two independent self-management cases and those are promotion focused and prevention focused self-managements. Promotion-focused self-management indicates employees' development and growth needs and such individuals are dedicated to reach positive endings, which is to

satisfy their own needs (Higgins, 1997). So, employees that have this kind of mindset concentrate on work-related achievements. These employees always think about making things happen.

On the other hand, prevention-focused self-management indicates individuals' safety needs, and these kinds of individuals are dedicated to run from negative endings where their needs are not gratified. Employees who have this type of mindset always try to avoid work related losses. Therefore, it can be said that prevention focused self-management is actually preventing issues from happening. As an example, within the workplace, individuals may try to reduce stressful job demands in order to avoid getting demotivated (Tims, Bakker and Derks, 2013).

There are some obvious boundaries that every single person faces during their work life. These boundaries mainly consist of work role, and when individuals are able to change those boundaries, aforementioned promotion focused job crafting can be a successful method. It eventually results in providing favourable changes to employees' lives, such as raising their challenging job demands and making them gain more job resources. It is known that more job demands assists individuals' personal growth (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Additionally, more job resources are known to satisfy individuals' key psychological needs for self-determination. With more resources, employees are likely to spend less effort on task accomplishment therefore this situation helps reduce job burnout (Bang and Reio, 2017).

Also, promotion-focused job crafting brings some changes to intangible work roles of individuals. Successful appliances of this type of method grants employees a mindset that they always approach positive-ends of events (Brockner and Higgins,

2001). Both job resources and challenging job demands can be changeable, therefore promotion-focused job crafting brings beneficial outcomes to intangible work roles. In time, reactions like this assemble and positively affect job attitudes and employees mental and physical health (Buric and Macuka, 2018). In addition to these, Xanthopoulou, Bakker and Fischbach (2013) stated that positive feelings aid individuals in establishing cognitive related personal resources such as optimism, and this makes them stay focused at work. So, with this type of job crafting, individuals craft their job into a more important and meaningful state, and create themselves stimulating tasks and build strong relations.

Nevertheless, there are tangible work role obstacles which employees cannot easily modify the characteristic of them (Wood and Michaelides, 2016). Actually this situation shows that prevention method of job crafting could be unsuccessful when applied. The reason is that employees strive to invest so much of their effort and time to prevent negative issues from happening, and this battle makes the task seem more draining. Additionally, by focusing on preventing things, employees run from certain duties and relationships. When this is done, workload is piled up and employees will face much more responsibility at the end of the day (Salmela-Aro, Tolvanen and Nurmi, 2009). Therefore, Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2018) stated that prevention method delivers disadvantageous changes in intangible task perceptions. Employees who successfully apply prevention-focused self-management are linked to positive feelings such as relief, and the ones who are unsuccessful at applying this are linked to negative feelings such as anxiety.

Although jobs are established by the managers of enterprises, workers are the ones who play around with the characteristics of their jobs according to their own skills

and abilities. This action is done by the employees to fit the job to their personal traits. It is actually a challenging thing for managers to establish assignments that are fine for employees (Grant and Parker, 2009); however by the help of job crafting, employees are able to redesign the standards for themselves. With job crafting, employees can put their duties in a frame that aligns to their characteristics without altering the basis of their work (Bruning and Campion, 2018).

Having a proactive personality refers to the ability of initiating future-focused activities to improve current situation of oneself (Li, Lang and Crant, 2010). These types of employees always create purposeful changes within their work environment and develop their contentment (Plomp et al., 2016). Displaying a proactive personality like this increases creativity and enhances organisational citizenship behaviours (Pan, Liu and Qu, 2018).

Proactive personality theory suggests that these types of employees seek to build a good work environment and develop opportunities for themselves (Crant, 2000). As an example, employees who possess high proactivity traits are ambitious to show proactive actions in their workplace (Seibert, Crant and Kraimer, 1999). It is also easier for these types of employees to cope with work related stress and therefore likely to achieve work resources (Bakker et al., 2012). Having a proactive personality enables individuals to go after challenges and resources to upgrade their surrounding in the workplace (Tims et al., 2012). Moreover, proactive individuals do not get hesitant to talk to their managers and pursue career development (Li et al., 2010).

According to the JD-R model, it is known that personal resources provide emotional strength to cope with negative work issues, buffers colleagues' rude behaviour and

therefore emotional exhaustion becomes decreased (Rhee, Hur and Kim, 2017). This means that employees with numerous resources can improve their work standards and easily get over conflicts. In addition to this, as COR theory suggests, employees tend to seek out resources to obtain, preserve and keep them in case they face with any resource loss. It is a known factor that job-resourceful employees are more confident in coping with job-related difficulties as they gained more resources to achieve task goals (Rod and Ashill, 2009). Ultimately, individuals with a wide range of resources are likely to show job crafting actions (Chen, 2019). Nevertheless, the link among job resourcefulness and proactive personality influence job crafting. As employees want to be more resourceful, they actively find ways and search opportunities to develop their situation; therefore they demonstrate job-crafting actions (Teng and Chen, 2019).

Afsar, Masood and Umrani (2019) stated that job crafting enables individuals to alter the way they work, cooperate with peers and how they perceive their job. When the big picture is considered, these behaviours actually assist an individual to operate better and be happy about their work. On the other hand the innovative work behaviour also contains actions that are taken to change the job situations and this is also beneficial for the individual and the organisation. It can be clearly seen that the more crafting behaviours are done, the more new ideas can be produced to execute tasks. Obviously, as Kim et al., (2018) stated, the more job resources an employee has, the clearer path they have to success. The amount of boredom and frustration can be decreased if individuals are given the freedom to craft their job according to their needs. This also could aid individuals to adapt to the ever changing job circumstances (Afsar, Masood and Umrani, 2019). Additionally, job crafting is a

strategic advantage for individuals with regard to proposing and carrying out new plans (Petrou et al., 2012).

Matsuo (2018) stated that seeking challenges is a very important dimension for job crafting. The reason is that this aspect contains the most important elements of job crafting, which is to redesign the job. This type of challenge is obviously reshaping job tasks to challenging tasks. Seeking resources are taking actions to enhance personal networks and they are not directly related to job design. Additionally, Matsuo (2018) said that reflecting on activities is an essential approach to review the experiences that are faced during the task completion process. Kolb (1984) expressed that reflection plays a key role in learning from experience. Employees extract concepts by reflecting on their own experiences, and those lessons navigate them to create other experiences. Transformative learning theory indicates that reflection has an important force in adult learning (Taylor, 2007). Moreover, West (2000) defined reflection as a process that people review their job objectives and their methods. According to Van-Seggelen Damen and Van Dam (2016), reflection is a noteworthy motivational tool in self-regulation. Therefore, employees who often review their experiences are likely to discover new ideas on how to alter the aspects of their work. To sum up all these studies, reflection may be a vital tool for employees who are decisive on crafting their jobs.

Work atmosphere has revolved around job design, showing that how individuals regulate numerous job characteristics to be able to perform their task in a better way (Morgeson and Campion, 2003). Individuals have been proactively changing the aspects of their tasks and proactive work action means self-initiated action that translates to employees taking charge, not being afraid to speak up concerns and

request feedback (Parker and Bindl, 2017). There are numerous evidence that demonstrating such behaviours brings heightened performance in employees work lives. According to Kooij et al., 2017, proactive actions in the workplace enable employees to wield their strengths and work may be seen more meaningful and valuable to them.

Tims and Bakker (2010) said that employees proactively try to reduce their job demands or look for resources. These are job crafting behaviours that individuals display within their workplace and these types of actions leads to increased overall job performance. The reason is that adjusted work environment makes employees relaxed, job starts to be more meaningful and therefore work engagement increases (Tims et al., 2016). In such situations where job crafting causes an increase in an individual's job resources, his or her personal resources also simultaneously multiply too. So in line with the JD-R theory, resources serve to develop performance.

Numerous research concluded that job crafting is effective in increasing job resources (Lichtenthaler and Fischbach, 2019; Lazazzara et al., 2020). But the main aspect these studies stress is that decreasing job demands is a worthless strategy. It is obvious that the original job crafting studies suggest decreasing job demands would result in employees wellbeing and heightens performance, but empirical studies often concluded that decreasing job demands has no impact on performance and work engagement (Rudolph et al., 2017; Lichtenthaler and Fischbach). According to Tims et al., (2015), this could be because if an employee decreases his workload, his co-workers' workload increases which will cause job strain and lead to frustrations and conflicts within the workplace.

Bakker et al., (2020) proposed that employees might involve in playful work design in the frame of job crafting. Playful work design is where employees change their work conditions to create playful and joyful goals without altering the design of the actual job (Scharp et al., 2019). Playful work design changes the form of tasks into a humorous and playful form that employees cope them with enjoyment (Fluegge-Woolf 2014). By defining goals and involving in a joyful competition, individuals in the workplace may prevent boredom as the job task starts to seem more interesting. Bakker et al., (2020) therefore suggesting that job crafting and playful work design are two proactive work fashions and two of them together may establish job performance.

Tims and Parker (2019) indicated that when employees craft their task according to their personal goals, these actions and the adjustments may negatively or positively influence other co-workers. However, co-workers tend to find out why someone among them wanted to craft his/her job. So, according to the attribution theory, a causal search starts when employees experience a positive or negative event and therefore this situation causes them to step outside of their daily routine (Morgeson et al., 2015). Douglas et al., (2008) said that employees want to find out the reason for such action especially when it affects their desired goals and values. It is possible that coworkers might want to weigh the chances of whether the job crafter was thinking about them when applying job crafting (Grant and Mayer, 2009). Job crafting shows that an individual has a desire to develop his/her work, but also they can choose to involve in crafting that are also beneficial for their peers. Of course, they may involve their coworkers in the job crafting process as an act to avoid disinteresting job aspects. What this means is that they may tell their coworkers “I rejected this specific task because it suits your abilities better”. So, coworkers might

think that a job crafter involves in such behaviours to satisfy their own achievements. This situation will make the coworkers to see their job crafter as a person who has a strong prosocial motive, or they would think their coworker lacks of it and he/she does not concerned with others (De Dreu, 2006).

Nevertheless, it is good that coworkers can see an employee's job crafting has a fine influence on them. When a job crafter does his/her change, the job of a coworker will automatically be changed as well. It may be easier to do the job as job crafter employee assumes more responsible roles than others and develops such work methods that everyone can benefit from. The situation where there will be a shared benefit for both job crafter and coworkers heightens the assumption that the job crafter cares about everyone else. So, this condition indicates an example for prosocial motive (De Dreu, 2006).

Tims and Parker (2019) stated that there are two types of traits that influence how job crafters actions are perceived. Those are coworker personal characteristics, and perceived characteristics of the employee who is the job crafter. According to Hollander and Offerman (1990), a person's characteristic affects how they comprehend and analyse events. Trust tendency is an element of personal characteristics, and Mayer et al., (1995) said that it influences the possibility that an individual will trust others. Therefore, employees that have higher trust tendency will make them lean more towards the crafter, and employees with lower trust tendencies will show lower prosocial motives.

Along with the philosophy of COR theory, job crafting is about individuals recreating the physical and emotional conditions of their work. There are two types

of job crafting actions that Leana, Appelbaum and Shevchuk (2009) identified. These are individual job crafting, which workers continuously strive to reshape or reshuffle their work environment, and the second one is collaborative crafting where individuals initiate cooperative actions to change their work conditions to accomplish goals. According to Nielsen and Abildgaard (2012), job crafting is an action that employees display to enhance their job resources, experience job demands, and decrease harmful job demands. In addition to this, Tims et al., (2012) introduced four job-crafting methods and those are 1- enhancing structural job resources, 2- enhancing social job resources, 3- increasing challenging job demands, 4- decreasing interruptive job demands. Enhancing one's job resources will help them to seek opportunities of training and development. Enhancing social job resources will lead to asking for help and cooperation. Increasing challenging job demands means being a part of new procedures and programs within the workplace, and decreasing interruptive job demands means avoiding tasks too stressful that hinder growth (Teng and Chen, 2019).

Petrou et al., (2012) said that job crafting's antecedents are divided into two classes and those are personal and job factors. Personal-factor-motivated job crafting is seen when an individual has a solid future time mindset and a positive self-image (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001). On the other hand, job-factor-motivated crafting method implies how individuals' work engagement and work responsibility are linked to individual and cooperative crafting (Chen, 2019). Employees who involve in mutual tasks display collaborative crafting (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001). Additionally, individuals who have job autonomy and are under pressure seem to be willing to execute job crafting in order to go after resources and decrease the hindering demands of their job (Petrou et al., 2012).

Another aspect for increasing job crafting intentions would be empowering employees by proving them that they are strong enough to tackle job hindrances. Chia and Chu (2017) stated that empowering employee to increase their overall performance has become a trend in the hospitality industry. To be able to meet customer needs, hospitality workers must exceed customer expectations to provide them a good, satisfying service (Barnes et al., 2016) and it is no surprise that customer service behaviours has a major role in this sector (Cheng and Chen, 2017). Customer service attitudes are made of workers' positive behaviours toward visitors. There are many published studies about customer service and the mutual standpoint of every article is that customer service actions lead to an increase in customers' experience of service quality and satisfaction (Tsaur et al., 2014).

Because hospitality workers must be in close contact with visitors, they need to be able to arrange their job roles and apply them. So, job crafting plays a significant role in the hospitality industry (Kim et al., 2018). With job crafting, individuals who work in this sector can comprehend the importance and goals of their job, and this situation would make them be passionate about their duty and enhance their efficiency at work. Therefore, these outcomes influence employees' behaviours towards customers (Cheng and Chen, 2017).

Teng (2019) said that crafting one's job is through his/her passion to work. Passion is a powerful psychological state of mind which individuals invest time and energy in activities that they consider as important (Vallerand et al., 2003). Passion occurs from individuals' manifestation about their self-identity. When they think their duty has an importance and meaning, they become motivated and happily engage to their

task (Vallerand et al., 2014). This means that workers' connection to their task depends on their will.

Job passion has been one of the important topics of management literature, and numerous research have proved that job resources and demands and organisational atmosphere influences worker's job passion (Permarupan et al., 2013). Moreover, job passion impacts job satisfaction, work engagement, job burnout, proactive work behaviour, job performance and emotional exhaustion (Teng, 2019). This shows that people's job passion has considerable influences on their opinions and actions.

Berg and Dutton (2008) argued that job crafting makes individuals to create a method for adapting job design to satisfy their passions and strengths. They claimed that people are able to create opportunities for job passion through limited job crafting techniques. Additionally, Berg et al. (2010) proposed three techniques that employees practice to obtain job passion through job crafting. Those are sparing time, attention and effort in working on personal interests, by taking over additional tasks and by reshaping their personal work related achievements. By redefining their job content and changing their relationships with people around them, employees can realise and follow their job passions.

2.4 Job Embeddedness

In today's world, as the prices of air travel became more affordable and connectivity of flights are globalising, the hospitality industry is experiencing a global growth as well. Over the past twenty years, international travel departures have doubled (Langford and Weissenberg, 2018). Number of accommodation have been rising ever since, for example in Malaysia, hotel numbers have seen a 22% increase between 2014 and 2016 (Tourism Malaysia, 2018). Again in Malaysia, within two

years, food and beverage and hotel industry together have contributed an additional USD 1 billion to the country (Ministry of Finance Malaysia, 2018). When TRNC's tourist potential and number of hotels are considered, it is safe to say that just like Malaysia, North Cyprus' economy highly depends on hospitality industry.

In touristic cities or countries, hospitality industry attracts various new entrants and this situation increases competition within the market. Product offerings of a wide range of hotels differ from each other, but the main factor that separates hotels from each other is the quality of service experienced by the guests. With this in mind, it is vital that frontline employees push themselves forward to exceed guests' expectations to provide an unforgettable service and satisfaction to guests. When employees engage in such activities, their behaviour is known in the literature as proactive customer service performance (Rank et al., 2007). This behaviour is done by employees' own will and they are actually long term oriented actions. This persistent act to satisfy customers' needs is done voluntarily (Kucukusta et al., 2013). An element which gets influenced by PCSP is the job embeddedness of individuals, which measures the weight of how much an employee is involved in his/her job (Harris et al., 2011).

Job embeddedness contains non-attitudinal work and non-work influences that can be grouped in three aspects, which are links, sacrifice and fit. These factors are the invisible ropes that tie individuals to the enterprise. Organisational embeddedness measures employees' devotion to the organisation. This is actually linked to conditions at the working environment. Such links contain various interactions with other people in the workplace, whom would be supervisors, peers and partners. The more and strong binds an employee builds at the enterprise, the better he or she is

enmeshed to the enterprise and the job. Job-fit refers to the compatibility and reassurance with the organisation. Fit happens when an individual's values, career path and ambitions are met with the enterprises, or when skills, knowledge and traits are in line with job demands. Sacrifice refers to the psychological benefits that may be abandoned by leaving the enterprise, for example projects, remuneration or personal office (Chan et al., 2019).

Surie and Ashley (2017) proved that job embeddedness is an illustrator of turnover intentions or employee retention. Nowadays, institutions are experiencing high turnover problems because of job embeddedness (Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2008). Jiang and Law (2013) stated that individuals' perception of justice will extend their attachment to the enterprise. Sustainable justice is vital to indicate fairness and correctness in all duties in the workplace (McFarlin and Sweeney, 2014).

Rolag and Cardon (2003) expressed that SME's provide new employees training through socialisation. By including them to social events, attaining them in projects and assisting them with coaching, the aim is to quickly make newcomers adapt to their surroundings. This quick inclusion of recently employed individuals strengthens their ties to the organisation and will fit better. Also, Coetzer et al. (2018) said that SME's are also famous with their informal "word of mouth" recruitment styles and newly employed individuals will have a good fit because of this. Similarity-attraction effect by Bryne et al., (1971) suggests that employees who recently employed in such SME's have similar traits with previously employed ones, and considering the fact that some of them are recommended by previous employees; existing workforce will continue its efficiency with those similar characteristics. In addition to this, SME employees often shift roles with peers and this situation brings opportunities to them

like being flexible and improving themselves with variety of tasks (Wilkinson, 1999). All the skills and knowledge could decrease if not utilised, therefore employees in such enterprises would prefer to stay as their skills are utilised because of the dynamics of their tasks (Gialuisi and Coetzer, 2013). In the end, when proper training and coaching is provided, it would be no surprise to see all the hotel employees embedded in their work.

When an employee is interested to search for opportunities, considers adapting to future requirements, keeps his or her abilities up to date and is confident, in the end, it is likely for them to encounter job embeddedness. As Savickas (2005) suggested, when employees' career adaptability is above the medium level, they would look for measurements to plan their career.

There are a wide range of proofs in the literature that job embeddedness has a great influence on individuals' work behaviour. But, the skills on how enterprises can establish embeddedness among individuals is not deeply researched (Woo, 2018). Career adaptability is a significant reserve that leads individuals to show a heightened level of job embeddedness. Zacher (2015) argued that individuals who have high levels of career adaptability also have the ability to manage claims that are work and career related. Career adaptability resources elevate employees' integration with their environment because their perceptions are self-regulated and they see the congruency of themselves and their surroundings. In addition to this, career control allows individuals to implement better decision-making and therefore they carve their existing work roles and responsibilities (Job Crafting). Career confidence also is another variable that whatever problems employees face with, they will have the

ability to deal with them with their commitment, energy and sustainability (Al-Ghazi, 2020).

Job embeddedness also increases innovative work behaviour because when employees are more engaged to their work role, the more they would want to create new ideas. Prior research directed their scope on the relationship between job embeddedness and innovative work behaviour and suggested that innovative influences lie within organisations rather than the community where individuals live. But, the community dimension of job embeddedness is enough for foreseeing job behaviours (Singh et al., 2018).

Becoming satisfied from life is an important factor for everybody. Especially for the people who work in a stressful sector that drains their energy. That said, life satisfaction is defined as a cognitive process about an individual's quality of life based on his/her criteria (Diener et al., 1985). Literature suggests that a person's life satisfaction has been understood as their well-being at work (Erdogan et al., 2012). Drawing on the conservation of resources theory, individuals who find happiness at their organisation relying on those cognitive conditions might see their well-being as a vital resource and therefore they work on protecting those by not resigning from the enterprise (Hobfoll, 1989). Therefore, Susomrith and Amankwaa (2019) found that embedded employees tend to show more innovative work behaviour and the link between job embeddedness and innovative work behaviour is stronger in individuals who are happy at organisation.

Creativity means coming up with new thoughts which could positively influence the way an enterprise performs, and usually includes alterations and actions that may be

different than existing ideas (Sternberg, 2006). Creative performance on the other hand defines the skills to establish new ideas for effectively dealing with problems that could arise in the workplace (Carmeli et al., 2013). The link among job embeddedness and creative performance can be analysed by considering job embeddedness theory. As job embeddedness theory suggests, individuals who show high levels of embeddedness usually get involved in their enterprise's business responsibilities and communicate with everyone regarding that issue. As a result of brainstorming and idea sharing sessions, individuals will have elevated creativity levels (Karatepe, 2016). Based on the COR theory as well, when individuals believe that by not leaving the organisation they can obtain more tangible and moral interests, they happen to become more embedded in their work and demonstrate extra-role actions such as that creative performance and various other positive behaviours (Hobfoll and Shirom, 2001). Lee et al. (2014) also said that individuals who are embedded with their job responsibilities seem to make a satisfying fit with the job and organisation. This condition eventually heightens their creative performance as well (Rahimnia, Eslami and Nostrati, 2018).

Swider et al. (2011) claimed that supervisor support has a strong link with job embeddedness. In line with this, Ng and Fieldman (2013) said that job burnout is a predictor of job embeddedness. On the other hand, Treuren (2019) expressed that job embeddedness is influenced by various personal factors which employees have.

Numerous researches have showed that individuals' workplace performance consists of knowledge, motivation and skills (Bergiel et al., 2009). Companies require their employees to demonstrate sustained job outcomes, productivity and involvement in company's goal achievements (Mitchell et al., 2001). These are possible with job

embeddedness, and one way of reaching to the embedded state is to become satisfied with the job (Bibi, 2017). As Zeffane and Bani Meltem (2017) expressed, job satisfaction happens with the tangible elements within the workplace, such as promotion opportunities, supervisors, colleagues and job related tasks. Contrary to job satisfaction, job embeddedness is not only about work-related factors, but also considers individuals' social conditions. Satisfaction is an immediate outcome and a positive psychological reaction that elevates embeddedness (Shah et al., 2020).

Embedded employees are likely to balance their work and family life, and as they do so they tend to be more satisfied with their work (Safavi and Bouzari, 2019). Job embeddedness provides individuals an invisible force which keeps them from quitting their job and that invisible force becomes even stronger as one excels in his/her career. This obviously will make it harder to resign from work. As these invisible forces get stronger, individuals get more embedded to their work and as mentioned, solid job embeddedness enables employees to develop strong social ties with colleagues, establish similar values with company, and enjoy fitting in the community with others. When employees express all these behaviours, they would begin to think that so much sacrifice is needed to quit their job (Al-Ghazali, 2020). Being embedded in the work and the organisation also creates a great satisfaction when employees experience career success. It is proven that low levels of job embeddedness lead employees to seek for other jobs and this means they demonstrate turnover intentions (Murphy et al., 2013). When individuals have weak bond with the organisation, they feel less satisfied with their job and their perception about career success indulges them into seeking another organisation. Therefore, embedded employees have extensive knowledge about their tasks and the enterprise they work for, and these would assist them in reaching personal goals fast and easy.

By now it can be clearly seen that when a person is satisfied with his/her life, he/she would see their career as a successful one, and it can be understood that satisfaction of life is affected by the level of embeddedness and quality of social environment one retains. Coherence between an individual's abilities, values and demands and enterprises' values and expectations could take some time to harmonise. It is almost certain that once a good social bonding and relational links are achieved, job embeddedness starts to show itself. However, reaching at this level is not easy and do not happen overnight (Afsar and Badir, 2016). Individuals weigh the pros and cons which are related with job embeddedness and eventually they make up their minds about staying in the organisation. They strive to keep their resources rather than losing them.

On the other hand, off the job embeddedness is the other situation which expresses the aspects of job embeddedness that involves non-work conditions. It is explained as the situation which an employee is tangled in the non-work areas where he or she has a strong psychological and emotional relationship, for example family, friends, engaging in hobbies, socialising and many other situations found in non-work areas (Zhang et al., 2012). An individual who possesses various links are more likely to resign his/her current employment because switching between on to off job areas would cause disruptions to the binds. Off-the-job, or non-work conditions are considered as the compatibility with the non-work areas. The environment, conditions and personal interests may be listed as some aspects, and changing job also negatively impacts individuals' routines between these (Chan et al., 2019).

Mitchell et al. (2001) stated that one aspect of embeddedness can influence the other aspects. Establishing non-work relations of employees add positivity to their lives

and this condition impacts on-the-job ties. As an example, when an individual is energised by his or her non-work life, they are likely to demonstrate positive emotions to connect with colleagues and will have enough energy to involve in workplace activities. Conversely, an individual who experiences difficult situations in their private life will exhibit emotional exhaustion and this may affect the communication with peers at work and workplace activities.

Employees who have a healthy off-the-job space demonstrate a good relationship with their family and loved ones, and spend time on their social activities (Mitchell et al., 2001). When individuals have a colourful private life, they would be grateful to the workplace and put on a better performance during the service delivery which in the end will be beneficial to the enterprise.

Social exchange theory by Blau (1964) can be helpful in explaining the link among on-job embeddedness and proactive customer service performance. Social exchange theory suggests that individuals are motivated to spend effort by working hard for the enterprise's wellbeing. This indicates that embedded individuals who get along well with peers are comfortable with their surroundings and enjoy their free time that is offered by the workplace. In the end, they contribute back by displaying higher PCSP (Kristof Brown et al., 2005).

McNamara et al. (2011) said that level of control over work hours indicates the amount of flexibility and control in the timing of a task, and Chan et al. (2019) stated that LCWH can be the antecedent of on-job embeddedness and off-job embeddedness. People who work in the hospitality sector are usually needed to work for long hours and even on national holidays. Also considering the sector's irregular

working hours, Valcour (2007) said that the lack of flexibility in work hours causes an extra difficulty to employees as they struggle to balance their work and non-work lives. In the end, this situation threatens individuals' relationship with their loved ones or reduces their ability to fit into their non-work spaces. Conversely, individuals who possess a high LCWH, in other words individuals who have a more flexible or regular working hours, would have more time to be a part of activities in their non-work space. As mentioned, involving in such activities would create more social connections therefore stronger ties to the non-work space will occur (Moen et al., 2008). Also, Richman et al. (2008) expressed that individuals who have the flexibility in their workplace demonstrate a strong fit to their non-work spaces.

Because of the job's nature, controlling the timing of work is very difficult in the hotel sector. Therefore, as Chiang et al. (2010) stated, hospitality workers face with high levels of emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion occurs when stressors of one's job are too much, and negatively influences the communication with co-workers and employees could get distant to the enterprise when their supervisors demand continuous hard work (Cole and Bedeian, 2007). Providing employees with high LCWH by sustaining on-the-job ties and fit therefore is proven to keep employees away from getting emotionally exhausted (Karatepe, 2013).

In numerous studies, job embeddedness can be found as a mediator between different variables. Lyu and Zhu's (2019) research suggested that job embeddedness acts as a mediator among workplace ostracism on commitment and turnover intentions. Also, Karatepe (2016) indicated that job embeddedness has a mediating role on family and coworker support on performance. Tian et al., (2016) said that human resource management practices and individuals' work efficiency is mediated by job

embeddedness. Job embeddedness theory suggests that when an employee displays a good fit with the enterprise, he or she spends more effort to remain in the enterprise by doing well at tasks and going after goals. Career adaptability influences career success with the role of job embeddedness.

Moreover, on-job embeddedness has an antecedent called felt obligation, which has a meaning that individuals has a belief that they must care about their organisation's success and must assist in reaching organisational targets (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Individuals who obtain positive approach from the organisation show significant levels of "felt obligation" and be likely to work for what is best for the organisation. Bolino et al. (2012) stated that obligated individuals regulate and initiate behaviours that are useful for the enterprise. These behaviours could be strengthening the communication with peers, or assuming extra roles which increase the embeddedness of workers.

Job embeddedness, in most of the published research, explained with its positive effects. However, some researchers have explored the negative sides of job embeddedness (Burton, 2015; Allen et al., 2016; Sekiguchi et al., 2008). According to this side of job embeddedness, these researchers expressed that employees who experience conflicting incidents at the workplace but are strongly embedded and hesitant to leave the enterprise, begin to feel distressed and trapped in their situation. As Allen et al. (2016) stated, individuals who are highly embedded to the organisation are likely to have stronger job-related ties and therefore more fixed to the institution than less embedded individuals. So, this condition makes it more difficult for them to leave the organisation. On the other hand individuals may experience adverse circumstances. While embeddedness brings various resources and

benefits, some problems in the workplace might force them to resign (Peltokorpi, 2020). No matter how inconvenient the situation is, individuals are likely to stay in the organisation even under those conditions because they are not willing to resign.

COR theory is often used in job embeddedness studies because individuals' focus on obtaining and conserving resources helps to define why employees become embedded and how they act when they do so. The most important factor in COR theory is resource loss, and it means that resource loss is more important than gaining them (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Accordingly, employees put much of their effort on avoiding resource losses.

2.5 Psychological Capital

Psychological capital, as known as PsyCap, is established with aspects which are hope, efficacy, resilience and optimism. PsyCap is explained as a “resource storage” that provides employees with energy for job embeddedness and work engagement as well as reducing the negative influences of job stressors (Luthans et al., 2007). Recent years' published materials have shown the link between PsyCap and a variety of positive influences it brings to employees' lives. But it is also necessary to consider its influences on emotional interpretations in service delivery. Additionally, linking psychological capital with customer-related hindrances may enhance the current knowledge in hospitality emotional studies. Mikolajczak et al. (2007) said that when individuals' expressed emotions that are in line with required ones, they tend to keep positive emotional resources and this positively effects their attitudes while delivering service.

Luthans et al. (2007) states that psychological capital is a product of the combination of hope, optimism, resiliency and efficacy and it expresses individuals' mental

condition through four components. PsyCap is a positive evaluation of circumstances and an outcome of motivation and persistent work. Hope element in PsyCap concerns with an individual's actions towards his/her goals by believing that they will find what they are searching for. Efficacy refers to the motivational state that individual is confident in himself and always has that "can do" attitude. Resilience is about finding the resolution after negative circumstances experienced and self-motivation. Optimism is regarded to believing in oneself and making positive assumptions for future events (Luthans et al., 2007).

PsyCap is explained as an employees' characteristic situation with durability and stability. Luthans and Yousef (2007) defined that PsyCap refers to an individual's mental condition which he/she displays positive actions and ambitious work effort. Additionally, PsyCap should be linked with positive psychology where it displays an employee's capabilities and positive traits. PsyCap is a positive mental condition and is different from social and human capital. It is a measurable variable and overall PsyCap has the potential to influence an individuals' performance (Darvishmotevali and Ali, 2020). High levels of PsyCap establish a positive environment, heighten work performance within the workplace and provide competitive advantage for the enterprise (Ozturk and Karatepe, 2018).

What makes psychological capital a unique resource is that it is established with a state-like condition and it is improvable. As Youssef-Morgan (2014) pointed out, the state aspects of psychological capital are improvable and training on those aspects are very effective investments on employees. Those investments obviously need to be theory based and they must be carried out to improve individuals' strengths (Mitchie and Prestwich, 2010).

Youssef and Luthans (2013) said that psychological capital often works with four mechanisms and they are cognition, positive appraisals, positive emotions and social bonds. Cognition is depicted as the intentional and contemplated actions for achieving motivation (Huitt and Cain, 2005). PsyCap creates a condition for people that drive them for getting achievements; therefore it contains motivational mechanisms within itself. Eventually, those mechanisms make people go after challenging targets (Youssef-Morgan, 2014).

Positive appraisals are obviously positive depictions of events and it masks negative conditions as individuals strive for being successful (Baumeister et al., 2001). Levine et al. (2001) expressed that positive appraisals provoke positive memories and this makes employees to reframe negative issues in a positive frame. In turn, this promotes perseverance while employees work on difficult situations.

It can be clearly seen that psychological capital is linked with positive emotions. Fredrickson (2001) argued that positive emotions enhance thought and action process and this brings creativity and more options for concluding a task. Additionally, positive emotions repair social, psychological and physical resources, as well as PsyCap (Stratman and Youssef-Morgan, 2019).

Psychological capital is mainly linked with psychological and behavioural factors. At the organisational level, psychological capital's variables are linked with performance (Wright, 2003). Employees' psychological endurance levels are linked to their satisfaction from job, and their commitment to organisation (Luthans and Youssef, 2007).

PsyCap also has an impact on individuals' view of trust, and this is a significant psychological state. Shukla and Rai (2015) indicated that psychological capital feeds individuals' understanding of trust in the workplace. Individuals who feel trust for the enterprise accept the motives, actions and decisions that the enterprise applies (Xu, Loi and Ngo, 2016). Therefore, if immigrant employees feel that management cares about them, they trust in institution. That is, well-developed human resource activities that management delivers to improve the delivery of services and look after workers well-being result in an increase in employees' trust levels. Along with organisational outcomes like heightened job performance and low turnover rates (Aryee et al., 2002); trust in institution fosters workers' view on fairness.

If employees receive support from the organisation they work for, their confidence to carry out tasks increases and eventually their trust in the organisation also increases. What is meant by support is that for example when an organisation provides training to its employees, their PsyCap levels will increase (Avey, Wernsing and Luthans, 2008). During those training sessions, when employees are given the full responsibility to deal with customer problems and with challenging service encounters, PsyCap development will happen (Bouzari and Karatepe, 2017). So, individuals will have high levels of PsyCap as a result of the supportive approach of organisation. Also, by handing them the authority during the training sessions, employees trust in organisation will slowly increase.

Link between trust in institution and psychological capital is important because the management will be able to increase their workers' PsyCap through the trust variable (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang and Avey, 2009). By looking through the scope of COR

theory, it can be clearly seen that psychological capital has a positive relation to trust in institution.

As Hobfoll (1989) expressed, COR theory is established by the personal characteristics that people try to gather, retain and preserve. Self-efficacy, optimism, resilience and hope dimensions of the PsyCap are the resources that people take advantage of. These resources produce other resources and develop a chain of resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). Most of the hotel employees who possess such personal resources own the chain of resources because of the positive dimensions of the work environment (Kim et al., 2017). According to these, psychological capital has the power to broaden individual's comprehension of trust that is vital to the enterprise (Ozturk and Karatepe, 2018).

It is obvious that individuals need enough amounts of emotional resources to demonstrate proper emotion during service. Paterson et al. (2014) said that PsyCap is designated as a significant personal resource to have sustained positive mindset towards job. Therefore, positive emotions cause positive delivery of service (Chi and Grandey, 2016). Numerous researches such as Lu et al., (2016) and Avey et al., (2010) showed that individuals who have high levels of psychological capital tend to demonstrate acceptable organisational behaviours compared to ones with low levels of psychological capital. As Paek et al. (2015) stated, psychological capital is positively linked to organisational commitment and work engagement in hospitality industry.

On the other hand, Karatepe and Karadas (2015) stated that individuals who have low levels of psychological capital may feel less energised and powerless at

workplace. Because psychological capital is built by hope, efficacy, resilience and optimism, it would be helpful for service industry workers to maintain a positive mental condition and be motivated at work.

Regarding the emotional state within the workplace, Diefendorff et al. (2016) suggested emotional-demand abilities. It is the pairing of emotional demands of a task and employees' skills to match those. Greguras and Diefendorff (2010) stated that when the fit is strong, employees show improved work satisfaction and enhanced performance. Service industry usually requires demonstration of positive emotions (Grandey, 2003). Service industry employees therefore will not show positive delivery of service if their abilities and values are not in line with emotional display rules. Grandey also said that in such situations employees enter into the "character breaking" state where they reflect negative moods to visitors. As employees with strong PsyCap tend to be confident in reaching beneficial outcomes through their efforts, digging deeper in workers' psychological state will make a contribution to the literature in terms of understanding how emotion works (Hwang and Han, 2018).

According to social identity theory developed by Tajfel (1982), leaders' psychological capital has an impact on employees' PsyCap. This happens when such leaders provide guidance and assign duties to employees. In the end, leaders' characteristics will be helpful in establishing a beneficial team climate which in turn influences employees' organisational identity and increases their PsyCap. Leaders who display high levels of PsyCap have an active personality therefore they have the will to seek solutions for possible problems. Their positive mindset towards work allows them to demonstrate a good job performance and this reflects on employees who work with that leader (Yammarino et al., 2008).

When a leader provides his/her employees with a fair amount of salary, bonuses and some other benefits, employees will be likely to show a better work performance, or they may not mind working overtime. Also, if the leader provides employees with sources to develop themselves, promotion or asks them to be the part of decision-making process, employees will therefore express good organisational citizenship behaviours. Additionally, if the leader reflects positive emotions which forms the PsyCap, employees will tend to reflect those emotions in return (Peng et al., 2014). Therefore, besides improving employees PsyCap, leaders' own PsyCap influences employees (Chen et al., 2019).

Studies about psychological capital are often done about its constructs, but Bouzari and Karatepe (2017) argued that servant leadership actually positively influences the PsyCap of individuals and therefore improves their selling attitudes and service-related actions.

Psychological capital has often regarded as an individual resource, but some studies indicate that it can be considered as a group resource as well. For example, hope construct of the PsyCap is defined by Braithwaite (2004) as it can be genuinely shared by a group. Bar Tel (2001) also said that hope is also a collective emotion. On the other hand, resilience variable of the PsyCap is studied in the team level by West, Patera and Carsten (2009). They concluded that the teams have the tendency to comeback from failure by bouncing from the negative condition to a positive state. Efficacy is also investigated as a group level and Bandura (1997) stated that self-efficacy can also be a collective variable and it reflects a team's shared belief and mutual capabilities.

According to Heled et al. (2016), mutual PsyCap happens with shared mental models. Those same mental models establishes when there are mutual ideas and visions are present within the team. Therefore, Heled et al. (2016) argued that those mental models are established when the team considers itself as resilient, optimistic and hopeful.

Regarding the psychological capital levels of teams, Chan (1998) found out that some people may exhibit low levels of PsyCap when they work individually, but their PsyCap levels increase when they are a part of a team. Just like previously mentioned leader-employee relation, PsyCap level of teams can be influenced by that team's leader as well. This works through emotional contagion and this refers to the situation which emotions expressed by a person are mimicked by other people (Bono and Ilies, 2006). According to Sy, Cote and Saavedra (2005), this condition usually happens among leaders and members of teams because those members tend to embrace leaders' emotions and behaviours due to hierarchy. Contagion among leader's and team members' optimism and hope in the end will affect the other two constructs of PsyCap and this will cause an overall increase in team's PsyCap levels (Waters et al., 2020).

Scholars that published studies about leadership argued that leaders who have motivational and positive behaviours increase PsyCap levels of employees of the organisation (Weberg, 2010). As employees' behaviours are shaped by their leader, it is important for the leader to behave accordingly (Avolio and Walumbwa, 2006).

Having an interesting and fun work environment improves individuals' productivity and enthusiasm. Individuals who are provided with these resources have elevated

motivation (hope) and in the end they take such actions to complete tasks (efficacy). Also, if they experience problems, they are likely to deal with them optimistically (optimism) and will demonstrate the emotional toughness to heal quickly (resilience). As Saks and Gruman (2011) expressed, enterprises are able to improve newly employed people's PsyCap through organising training and providing them with social support.

Bakker et al. (2011) expressed that in order to increase organisational performance, companies do not need to employ talented individuals but also brighten individuals to enable them to show their best performance every time they work. Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) stated that individuals with high levels of optimism and efficacy may create their desired working environment and this way they will be more engaged to their tasks. Avey et al. (2008) also stated that individuals with high PsyCap tend to display positive emotions and likely to demonstrate better work engagement behaviours. Therefore, according to this information, it can be said that PsyCap positively influences on work engagement (Tsaour, Hsu and Lin, 2019).

Individuals' job performance is a key factor in making an organisation a successful one. This applies for every organisation in all sectors. But, individuals who work in industries which provide service actually form the core of the sector (Slatten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). As these employees provide service to people their motivation levels influence the success of such organisations. As Chi and Gursoy (2009) mentioned, building relationship with customers and turning them into loyal customers is vital for a company that operates in the tourism sector. Also, individuals who are employed within the tourism sector are needed to maintain their mental appearance and behaviour at top levels. The reason is that these factors have a direct

impact on customer satisfaction. Therefore, satisfying customers is the most important part in the service industry because satisfied customers may become loyal customers, and this creates competitive advantage within the market (Baumruk, 2004).

Strong relationship among customers and service workers in hospitality sector has a key role in successful work performance (Brown et al., 2002). Skaggs and Galli-Debicella (2012) said that providing service involves interaction and its quality influences service performance. This is why assuming positive attitudes influences the quality of service provided (Chow et al., 2006). So, assuming all the positive emotions, attitudes and demonstrating passion for the job can be achieved through a strong psychological capital.

2.6 Work Engagement

Work engagement studies usually regarded within the literature of positive behavioural studies. The first approach to establish work engagement is done through Kahn's (1990) definition of worker engagement. According to Kahn, individuals' engagement is done by harnessing themselves to their tasks and when fully engaged, those individuals show emotional, physical and cognitive attributes while performing their roles. Kahn (1990) further defined that there are three psychological statuses, namely availability, meaningfulness and safety. Accordingly, employees seem more engaged when they find more meaning in their job, when they feel safe and have better mental wellbeing (Soares and Mosquera, 2019).

Another approach to engagement is done by Shaufeli et al. (2002). They explain engagement as a positive, fulfilling, task-oriented state of mind. They claim that it is a multidimensional notion and consists of three areas, which are absorption, vigour

and dedication. Authors explained vigour as possessing high levels of resilience while dealing with work. Absorption is explained as being deeply concentrated to task and dedication is explained as having pride, enthusiasm, inspiration.

A wide range of studies show that work engagement brings beneficial outcomes. Many studies proved that work engagement is positively linked with performance, profitability and productivity (Gutterman et al., 2017; Rich et al., 2010; Salanova et al., 2005). Work engagement obviously affects organisational success in a positive way by increasing customer satisfaction and loyalty (Saks, 2006). Engagement is the trigger force of outcomes that are associated with organisational success. So engagement's trigger forces are job resources and personal resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). As stated previously, job resources consist of physical and social aspects of a work, and personal resources consist of individuals' ability to influence their surroundings.

Schaufeli (2002) expressed that work engagement is a motivational condition and it is established by positive, fulfilling and job related focus. It is all about being focused on work and enjoying everything that are related to it. This type of engagement is a significant personal factor and it helps to foresee the work performance of individuals (Christian et al., 2011). In the hospitality and tourism industry, having highly motivated employees benefits the company because their motivation will foster their service delivery. So, this situation will affect customer satisfaction and turn them into loyal customers (Borucki and Burke, 1999). Along with providing the right tools for employees to increase their work engagement, they may be encouraged to make themselves more engaged to work. As Plester and Hutchinson (2016) expressed, at an intuitive level, employees can feel more engaged

to work if they have workplace fun. Accordingly, Fluegge-Woolf (2008) indicated that workplace fun increases work engagement. As Becker and Tews (2016) stated, fun can be considered as a resource and it consists of social essence, which assists in strengthening social links, helps employees to overcome the stress of service-related tasks and enable them to become focused to their tasks (Fluegge-Woolf, 2014). As a recovery tactic, fun can enable individuals to take a break at workplace and refresh their minds. This can make them become more focused and engaged in their duties (Sonnentag, 2003).

If individuals possess high levels of work engagement, they begin to take action to make their organisation achieve its goals (Crawford et al., 2010). As they have so much enthusiasm, dedication and energy towards their job, they will eventually develop organisational citizenship behaviours (Sahin et al., 2014). Therefore, work engagement surely provides employees with high motivation to deal with demanding issues without losing concentration. Kim and Park (2017) expressed that work engagement positively influences the willingness of individuals to share their job experiences with their colleagues or recommend new suggestions for their workplace.

When employees are engaged in their work, they alter the conditions of their jobs and benefit from their own resources (Lu et al., 2014). Employees with a solid work engagement also address organisational situations (Hakanen et al., 2008) and they tend to ask for help from their colleagues and supervisors (Tims et al., 2012). Engaged individuals also organise their job resources and be enthusiastic (Sonnentag, 2003). As Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) expressed, the main quality of job crafting is individuals' ambition to change their work conditions. So, individuals who

demonstrate a solid work engagement are willing to demonstrate job crafting to sustain their engagement (Bakker et al., 2012).

Engagement or disengagement at the workplace happens as the outcome of work circumstances. Park and Ono (2017) said that highly engaged individuals are more likely to express positive definitions about their work and their energy levels are influenced in the positive direction. Shkoler and Kimura (2020) said that engaged individuals are usually hardworking and dedicate themselves to their work. Performing at good levels is directly related with an employee's engagement with his/her job, so work engagement plays a significant role in organisational performance as well as employees' well-being.

Throughout the years, scholars focused on personal and job resources to better understand work engagement, and found more variables that construct work engagement. Such variables are organisational and social support, internal communication, organisational justice, organisational learning and job autonomy. Leadership studies are also done to find out if leader-member exchange increases work engagement (Qing and Zhou, 2017).

Bakker et al. (2018) proposed proactive vitality management, and it involves goal-oriented actions by proactively controlling physical and mental energy by considering personal preferences and needs. When individuals proactively manage their energy, they will have plenty of cognitive and affective resources to perform their tasks (Porath and Bateman, 2006). These resources will be beneficial for individuals when they have the desire to learn and improve themselves. Individuals with this kind of mentality look for job-related challenges and are passionate about

the initiatives they assume. When they actively look for using and improving their skills, this will influence their work engagement (Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004).

Payne et al. (2007) expressed goal orientation as individuals' specific goal choices. Three types of goal orientation were defined as learning goal orientation performance-prove and performance-avoid goal orientations. Among these three, learning goal orientation is the one that can be associated with work engagement. This type of goal orientation is defined as individuals' desire to improve them by mastering new skills, adapting to new conditions and developing proficiencies (Vandewalle, 1997). Additionally, Hirst et al. (2009) proved that learning goal orientation has positive influence on motivation and this triggers skill development, performance, and self-government. Accordingly, Cerasoli and Ford (2014) stated that learning goal orientation may trigger work engagement by heightening individuals' motivation on working. This must be defined by considering hospitality employees passion to their job. Employees who spend their working hours delivering the orders to customers must show high levels of work engagement with plenty of energy and inspiration deriving from their job. Their ambitious performance and low turnover intentions is because of their strong engagement (Olugbade and Karatepe, 2019).

Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2018) proved the positive link among promotion-focused job crafting and work engagement. Regarding the general job crafting actions, Bakker and Demerouti (2017) expressed that according to the JD-R theory, there is a cycle between work engagement, job resources job crafting. Moreover, it is seen that this cycle ends and begins with promotion-focused job crafting (Tims, Bakker, Derks, 2013). In line with this, Gorman et al. (2012) argued that work

engagement also triggers individuals to take action just like promotion-centred job crafting.

Additionally, work engagement is a positive construct that is considered as the contrary element of job burnout. Hulsheger et al. (2012) suggested that mindfulness is negatively associated with emotional exhaustion. So the positive association of work engagement and mindfulness proves that work engagement can be a counter effect of job burnout and emotional fatigue (Roche et al., 2014).

Nevertheless, work ostracism decreases employees' work performance. Ostracism can cause burnout and decrease work engagement (Haldorai et al., 2020). Employees' mental and physical health reduces when ostracism is present and eventually this makes them less likely to engage in tasks (Park and Ono, 2017). When an organisation treats employees negatively like ostracism, the outcomes will be withdrawal from work and attitudes that are beneficial to the company. Rich et al. (2010) said that workplace ostracism causes a negative cognitive effect on employees and in return this brings poor work engagement. Obviously, work ostracism has adverse psychological effects on individuals and this makes them disengage from everything they do for the institution. On the contrary, Seijts and Crim (2006) expressed that when people perceive that they are being cared by organisation or colleagues, their engagement will be strong.

On the other hand, studies about employee burnout have provided another view about engagement. Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) said that engagement is actually antithesis of burnout. According to their view, engagement is established by energy, efficacy and involvement, and these three variables are contrary to the

variables of burnout, which are exhaustion, inefficacy and pessimism. However, some later studies proved that although engagement and burnout have some associations, they are two fully distinct compounds (Sonnentag, 2017).

As COR theory expresses, personal resources are used by employees in order to control their work environment by coping with demanding situations (Zivnuska et al., 2016). Mindful employees find it easier to deal with hindering job demands because they can control their own emotions and can empathise with others (Reb et al., 2014). Therefore they do not act reactive but rather reflective (Malinowski and Lim, 2015). So it can be clearly seen that the reflective behaviours may be considered as personal resources that may establish supportive work environment. Therefore, this situation can foster work engagement (Gunasekara and Zheng, 2018). Moreover, Glomb et al. (2011) expressed that people who practice mindfulness for a short period may develop a positive self-image for themselves and this is another resource that assists employees to see themselves worthy and find themselves engaged to their work.

Many research benefitted from COR theory in order to explore how personal resources help establish individual's work engagement. Karatepe and Karadas (2015) indicated that when employees possess enough resources, they can cope with job-related issues and therefore can better engage at work. As mentioned before, previous studies proved that self-efficacy and optimism as personal resources are positively linked to work engagement. According to Karatepe and Aga (2012), the reason for this is that personal resources are used as tools for achieving work goals and fosters career development.

Individuals who possess high levels of self-efficacy are able to engage themselves in their tasks. Because of their efficacy, they are confident and believe in their talents when dealing with difficult demands (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Also they always feel resilient and can re-engage themselves back in their tasks (Bakker et al., 2011). Additionally, because of their optimistic approach to life, they keep themselves engaged at all times and carry on walking on their path for achieving their task goals (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). Many published materials have expressed the positive influence of psychological capital on work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Gupta et al., 2017; Gupta and Shaheen, 2017). Findings of these research confirmed the psychological capital directly impacts work engagement through a positive link.

Personality traits moderate as work resources so therefore they can be considered as personal resources (Rod and Ashill, 2009). Influences of job resources on work engagement is clearly visible and can be clearly defined through the scope of COR theory. The reason is that individuals bearing a wide range of job related resources are likely to finish their tasks. As Semedo et al. (2016) mentioned, individuals can exhibit creative behaviours at work to tackle job-related problems. When these are considered, it is clear that job resourcefulness has a positive connection with work engagement. Moreover, hotel employees face with numerous service requests on a regular work day. Therefore, job resourcefulness is very important for hotel workers because they respond and serve various guests in a short period of time (Chen, 2018).

Work engagement is one of those special constructs that has been extensively studied in the business and hospitality literature. Previous publications have showed that when work engagement is considered as an independent variable, it enhanced job

performance, satisfaction and decreased job quit intentions (Yeh, 2013). When work engagement is considered as a dependent variable, it was influenced by other variables like psychological capital and psychological climate (Paek et al., 2015). Also, Lyu et al., (2016) expressed that work engagement can be in the mediator role as well, and it influences the link among abusive supervision and workers' customer oriented organisational behaviour.

Ng et al. (2012) stated that diverse workforce causes flexibility in ideas and therefore creating ideas becomes easier because of the divergent thinking with many inputs. The workforce of hotels is culturally diverse, especially in touristic countries like North Cyprus. Therefore, individuals need to develop cultural intelligence in order to decrease workplace problems that arise from cultural diversity (Afsar et al., 2020). Cultural intelligence is explained by Van Dyne et al. (2012) as a person's competence to perform and manage adequately in culturally diverse environments. It helps people to adapt to foreign surroundings and cooperate with people from different backgrounds. As personal resources are proven to be effective on increasing work engagement, possessing great levels of cultural intelligence also helps employees to better engage in their work. People who live in a foreign country with a different culture must lean their back on cultural intelligence. Without this personal trait, they may find it difficult to engage in their tasks and achieve their goals (Afsar et al., 2020).

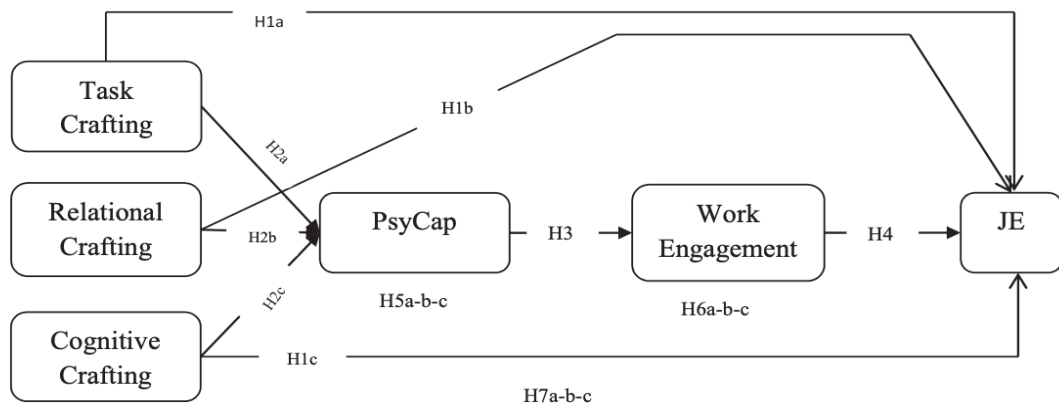
Hackman and Olham (1980) stated that task significance increases the meaning of work. Zhao et al (2016) explored those hotel employees who consider their work as important expressed decreased levels of stress and high levels of satisfaction. Similarly, Ferreira et al. (2017) stated that task significance helps to reduce turnover

rates of hotel employees. According to Saks (2006), main job characteristics like task significance are connected to work engagement. Apparently, task significance has a significant effect on enhancing hotel workers' work enthusiasm. Therefore, it is also clear that task significance has a positive link with hospitality workers' work engagement (Grobelna, 2018).

Of course, receiving support from the organisation, as well as from colleagues and supervisors were the most discussed antecedent of work engagement (Suan and Nasurdin, 2016). The positive building block of work engagement were said to be social relations like leader-member exchange (Lee and Ok, 2016). Some other elements can be listed as building blocks too, for example training; benefits, performance appraisal and all organisational level resources can be named (Jung and Yoon, 2015). In addition to this, Lee et al. (2014) said that organisational aspects such as its history and quality may have an impact on the work engagement of hotel workers. They further stated that service atmosphere and internal branding also have impact on work engagement. Park, Johnson and Chaudhuri (2019) also stated that some antecedents of work engagement are exclusive to hospitality industry. Job resources including organisational justice, organisational features and internal branding are important variables that have an effect on work engagement in hospitality.

As mentioned, Psychological capital and personality traits were studied and stated as significant personal resources that impacts work engagement in the hospitality industry (Na Ayutthaya et al., 2016). Moreover, age, education, gender and marital status also affect the level of work engagement (Rigg et al., 2014).

Drawing on the theoretical frameworks, it is believed that job crafting engenders hotel immigrant employees' PsyCap and job embeddedness. It is also argued that PsyCap results in highly engaged immigrant employees in the hotel industry, and highly engaged employees are more likely to embed in their jobs. As can be observed in the research model (Figure 1), PsyCap and work engagement are intervening variables that link job crafting to employee job embeddedness via a serial mediation effect, the hypothesised relationships are elaborated on in the following.



Note: PsyCap is psychological capital; JE is job embeddedness.

Figure 1: Research Model

Chapter 3

HYPOTHESISED RELATIONSHIPS

3.1 Job Crafting and Job Embeddedness

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) described job crafting as the duration in which employees engaged actively to alter the borders of their jobs. This can be due to a change by employees as a reaction to an alteration in job objectives (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). The three classifications of job crafting as described by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) are task crafting, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting. Furthermore, Bardi (2011) described task as a peculiar activity or work. For example, the task of a receptionist or front desk personnel in a hotel is specifically to deal with guests, receives payment from guests as well as guest check- in/check-out. Studies have shown that task crafting involves altering the successive, physical cases or behaviours in an organisation which includes giving up or keeping tasks, restructuring tasks and regulating the impacts of time spent on the tasks (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Drawing on the JD-R theory, this present research claims that JE may be one of the possible consequences of job crafting. Job crafting gives another meaning to work because the shaping of cognitive tasks and relationships in the organisation would allow employees to conduct their work differently resulting in reshaping the goal of their jobs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). When immigrant hotel employees have the opportunity to craft their jobs by using job resources and challenging job demands, they can improve the fit between their personal needs, abilities, and

passions about the job (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Hence, when crafting their job, such employees may demand more responsibilities from their supervisors, may sacrifice their priorities for completing jobs, may develop close links with colleagues by requesting their advice and aid, and may accept job demands when they sense these demands as a way for advancement and improvement (Tims et al., 2012; Vogt et al., 2016), and may enhance their perceptions of fit, links, and sacrifice. That is, JE can be a potential consequence of enhancing job resources and challenging demands through job crafting.

In empirical terms, several studies have to date investigated the effects of job crafting on several employee outcomes, such as work engagement (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012; Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017; Tims et al., 2013; Vogt et al., 2016), job satisfaction (Kim et al., 2018), and burnout (Cheng & Yi, 2018; Demerouti et al., 2001) and job performance (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015). Furthermore, drawing on the JD-R theory, several scholars have revealed the significant relationship between the amount of job resources and the level of work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Hakanen, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2005; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). At this point Karatepe and Eslamlou (2017) in their empirical study on job crafting, called for more investigation on the relationship between job crafting and JE which consists of links, fit, and sacrifice, through data collected from hotel employees. However, to date, no study has attempted to empirically examine the relationship between job crafting and JE in a hospitality setting. Considering this suggestion, the researchers aim to first test the relationship in order to expand on existing knowledge and understanding of job crafting and its consequences. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1a: Immigrant hotel employees' task crafting is positively related to their JE.

H1b: Immigrant hotel employees' relational crafting is positively related to their JE.

H1c: Immigrant hotel employees' cognitive crafting is positively related to their JE.

3.2 Job Crafting and Psychological Capital

Drawing on the JD-R theory, previous research evidence suggests that job to off-job situations and experiences are mostly generalised by individuals, thus affecting their personal resources (Kohn & Schooler, 1982). This implies that employees may not only influence their work engagement as described earlier when crafting their jobs, but may also boost their personal resource, increase positive experience, job resources, and challenging demands when crafting their own jobs (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). PsyCap has been associated with employee attitudes, such as satisfaction and organisational commitment (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008), and with several measures of performance (Luthans et al., 2007; Avey et al., 2011). For example, an employee will feel highly efficacious and less hesitant about future proactive behaviour if he has successfully broken out of his or her daily routine and has expanded aspects of his or her current job. This implies that employees exert control over their environment by crafting their job, an experience which is central to building personal resources such as self-efficacy (Bandura & Wessels, 1997) and optimism (Seligman, 2006). Also, the ability to set goals and working hard to achieve them are critical steps in the job crafting process, and the development of personal resource of hope (Snyder, 2000). This notion has been substantiated by research evidence, in different work scenarios and has been shown to improve coping with difficult work situations, developing increased responsibility and performance, as well as building future resilience (Masten, 2001). In line with this notion, this present study hypothesises that the activity of crafting job resources and challenging demands may boost the personal

resources of hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism. Hence, the following hypothesis is posited:

H2a: Immigrant hotel employees' task crafting is positively related to their PsyCap.

H2b: Immigrant hotel employees' relational crafting is positively related to their PsyCap.

H2c: Immigrant hotel employees' cognitive crafting is positively related to their PsyCap.

3.3 Psychological Capital and Work Engagement

The competence of employees' positivity is acknowledged by PsyCap. It accounts for one's psychological development positively in terms of resilience, self-efficacy, hope, and optimism (Vogt et al., 2016). It is asserted that individuals holding high-efficacy are prone to interrogate themselves as they have their own aims and investigate tough tasks. In addition, the ones being hopeful come up with realistic issues, however their goals are difficult, and their expectations include self-control, self-determination, energy, and individual perceptions. For the optimists, they are open to change and utilise the chances or focus on the opportunities for the future, and also employees having high resiliency attempts to keep positive attributions and go back while struggling with problems (Luthans et al., 2007).

PsyCap has got a great deal of attention from scholars working on hospitality due to the positive supporting role it has on behaviours. According to Jung & Yoon (2015), workers with a substantial rate of PsyCap reported more job satisfaction when compared to their co-workers. Similarly, studies have affirmed the role of PsyCap on Romanian frontline employees' jobs in terms of life satisfaction and career (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015), and also in Korea (Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015) by analysing how PsyCap affected job engagement and the morale of employees.

However, Pack et al., (2015) emphasised that the process of developing employees' engagement remains blurred, hence the need for more studies on the relationship between work engagement and PsyCap. Considering the gap in existing understanding, this present research proposes that immigrant hotel employees who have more PsyCap are more engaged in their job.

For the relationship of PsyCap and work engagement, the COR theory ensures a theoretical framework. Abundant personal resources in a work setting could result in improvement of work engagement (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). Several scholars suggested that the work-setting where there are abundant resources may engender followers' favourable emotions which are associated with personal resources. Development of favourable emotions and feelings in the organisation may lead to higher levels of employee motivation (Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio, & Hartnell, 2010). Individuals giving high points to PsyCap would be perceived to be more energetic and dedicated and more deeply involved in the job. Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H3. Immigrant hotel employees' psychological capital is positively related to their work engagement.

3.4 Work Engagement and Job Embeddedness

A study by Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) revealed that several changes including job resources and demand might change depending on certain factors surrounding job condition such as shocks and radical events, thus, making engagement unstable and flexible over time. Based on the JD-R theory, previous research suggested that engaged workers who possess favourable emotions, may generate or develop their job resources and challenging demands and transform engagement into their colleagues in the work-setting (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Accordingly, favourable

employee outcomes like high performance and low intention to quit are listed as the consequences of work engagement (Bakker et al., 2003). Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) reiterated that employees would likely be more engaged with their job and develop more embedded characteristics when they have ample resources in their organisation. Empirical researches examining the relationship between work engagement and job embeddedness point to the fact that work engagement could indeed enhance job embeddedness. For example, Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) investigated US employees' job outcomes and revealed work engagement to be significantly associated with job embeddedness. Congruent with this, Karatepe and Ngeche (2012) found that work engagement results in increased job embeddedness. On the basis of the theoretical and empirical knowledge given above, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H4. Immigrant hotel employees' work engagement has a significant positive effect on their job embeddedness.

3.5 Serial Mediation

The JD-R theory suggests that crafting job resources and challenging job demands result in employee work engagement which may induce positive employee job outcomes (Hakanen et al., 2008; Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017). Hotel employees may increase their work engagement and PsyCap through job crafting attitudes (Vogt et al., 2016) and exert higher levels of job embeddedness.

Though limited, several scholars found empirical evidence regarding the mediator role of work engagement. For instance, Hakanen et al. (2008) found the mediation effect of work engagement on the relationship between job resources and job demands as well as organisational commitment. Karatepe and Eslamlou (2017) studied flight attendants job crafting and found that job crafting has a significant

effect on flight attendants' service recovery performance and their intention to quit through the mediation effect of work engagement. Van Wingerden, Derks, and Bakker (2017) also showed the mediator role of work engagement on the effect of job crafting on job performance.

Further, congruent with the JD-R theory, there has been empirical evidence about the mediator effect of PsyCap between job resources and desirable employee outcomes. Specifically, Tims et al. (2015) verifies the positive impacts of job crafting on engagement through increasing psychological capital. These findings suggest indirect empirical justification for evaluating the association of job crafting with positive employee outcomes, such as job embeddedness. However, an empirical evidence for the serial mediation process of work engagement and PsyCap is still scarce.

To fill the abovementioned gap in recent knowledge, this research follows the guidelines produced by Whetten (1989). It is important for scholars to indicate causal associations in a phenomenon by focusing on mediators on the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable. When one performs this line of idea, it may be possible to plan a causal relation between three dimensions of job crafting and an employee's job embeddedness. Thus, a serial mediation model suggested by Hayes (2018) can be performed. To illustrate, one may claim that job crafting may enhance employee's PsyCap. The PsyCap can also significantly influence employee's engagement at work, and the employee engaged in the job may be more embedded in his/her job. In other words, in the hospitality work setting, where three dimensions of job crafting are commonly accepted (e.g., Kim et al., 2018), hotel employees feel more PsyCap and they are more engaged in their work which in turn results in a higher level of employee job embeddedness, particularly in hotels where

job crafting is important and popular (Chen, Yen, & Tsai, 2014). Thus, this serial mediation model proposes that job crafting has an indirect effect on job embeddedness via serial mediation effects of PsyCap and work engagement.

A serial mediation is of crucial significance in discovering the potential influence of the causation from three dimensions of job crafting to employee job embeddedness. This is particularly relevant since it may be denotative of the untested and underlying causal chain which is still unexplored. This will clarify if the mechanisms of mediation from the three dimensions of job crafting to employee job embeddedness are significant for immigrant hotel employees. Thus, this study posited the following hypotheses to provide further understanding of the serial mediation effect:

H5a: Immigrant hotel employee's psychological capital mediates the relationship between task crafting and job embeddedness.

H5b: Immigrant hotel employee's psychological capital mediates the relationship between relational crafting and job embeddedness.

H5c: Immigrant hotel employee's psychological capital mediates the relationship between cognitive crafting and job embeddedness.

H6a: Immigrant hotel employee's work engagement mediates the relationship between task crafting and job embeddedness.

H6b: Immigrant hotel employee's work engagement mediates the relationship between relational crafting and job embeddedness.

H6c: Immigrant hotel employee's work engagement mediates the relationship between cognitive crafting and job embeddedness.

H7a: Immigrant hotel employee's task crafting is positively related to their job embeddedness through the chain of the immigrant hotel employee's psychological capital and work engagement.

H7b: Immigrant hotel employee's relational crafting is positively related to their job embeddedness through the chain of the immigrant hotel employee's psychological capital and work engagement.

H7c: Immigrant hotel employee's cognitive crafting is positively related to their job embeddedness through the chain of the immigrant hotel employee's psychological capital and work engagement.

The research model, including all hypotheses, is demonstrated in Figure 1.

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research Context

The North Cyprus economy is dependent on tourism and education (Roudi, Arasli, & Akadiri, 2018). By 2019, in North Cyprus there are 5 four-star and 22 five-star hotels. The hotel's casinos alone provide \$600 annually to the national economy. This means 20-25% of the North Cyprus budget.

By 2018, 56,563 immigrant workers from 126 countries have been working in the private sector of which 11.5 percent are employed in the hotel industry in North Cyprus (Department of Labor, 2018). In addition, hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, such as the inclusion of side sectors, total number of employees are 20 thousand which makes 32 percent of workforce in the hotel industry (Department of Labor, 2018). A fluctuated economic situation in North Cyprus in the last few decades has resulted in labor migration. Such migration has generally been supported by the government of North Cyprus to ease the pressure on labor markets, to be able to serve better foreign customer needs and expectations, reduce employment costs and accelerate development especially in the tourism industry.

4.2 Sample and Procedure

Data were collected from a sample of full-time immigrant employees (e.g. receptionists, chefs, sale-people, waiters, housekeepers, security and others) in four and five star hotels in North Cyprus between August 2018 and March 2019. The

statistics show that four and five star hotels are mostly chain hotels attracting the majority of international tourist and investments in the accommodation sector in North Cyprus (Ministry of Tourism Statistics, 2018). These hotels also provide job opportunities to immigrant employees from Turkey, Russia, Ukraine, Iran, Nigeria, Cameroon, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan and so forth. The statistics show that approximately 5500 immigrant employees were employed in the hotel industry in North Cyprus at the time of the research (Ministry of Tourism Statistics, 2018). There are important reasons for choosing this category of employees for this research.

First of all, immigrant employees' mindset play a crucial role in delivering service, coping with the complaint processes or filling logistic needs and expectations of hotel guests like their other counterparts. Secondly, immigrant employees (IEs) represent the hotel to customers and other social shareholders and increase the reputation of the accommodation organisation (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003). Thirdly, IEs in accommodation, restaurants, casino and bars have close interactions with customers and need to have a civil relationship with guest behaviours as frequently as other employees (Daunt & Harris, 2011). However, research about these employees is sparse.

Based on the information received from the Ministry of Tourism (2018), just before the fieldwork, there were 22 five-star and 5 four-star hotels in North Cyprus. 5 hotels (100 percent) from four-star and 13 of them (60 percent) from five-star hotels have been chosen based on judgmental sampling. These employees were deemed representative since they were chosen from the most immigrant employee populated chain hotels according to the statistics gathered from the tourism ministry in North

Cyprus. The human resource (HR) department of each hotel was contacted using a formal letter which included information about the aim of the study and requested permission to collect data. The management of all four-star hotels and 13 five-star hotels agreed to help with this research. Since top management of the hotels did not allow the researcher to communicate directly with the immigrant employees, the questionnaires were distributed by one of the authors who were accompanied by an assigned employee from the HR department. An assurance of confidentiality was provided to the participants on the first page of the questionnaires. In addition, after filling out the self-administered questionnaires, the employees placed the questionnaires into envelopes and placed them into the cartoon box located in front office of the hotels.

The survey instruments were distributed to 615 immigrant hotel employees. After excluding 16 questionnaires that had reckless answers (mainly the same responses, like 1 for all items) and 27 instruments with incomplete responses, the sample consisted of surveys from 572 frontline employees with a response rate of 93.01 percent.

To form a valid and practical questionnaire to investigate the above-mentioned hypothesised relationships, the authors developed the questionnaire in English and then utilised two independent professional bilingual translators to translate it into Turkish. A back-translation was then completed by another academician, fluent in both languages as recommended by McGorry (2000) to make sure that all item contents were cross-linguistically comparable and created in the identical context. The surveys were pretested with a pilot sample of 20 frontline employees to ensure the clarity of each question. The pilot study indicated that the wording, measurement

scales, and sequence of questions were fine. Confidentiality and anonymity were ensured, and these were communicated to the participants before they agreed to participate in the study.

Table 1: Respondents' Profile

	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Female	225	39.3
Male	347	60.7
Total	572	100.0
Age		
18–23	112	19.6
24–29	189	33.0
30–35	133	23.3
36–40	86	15.0
41 or older	52	9.1
Total	572	100.0
Education		
Primary school	56	9.8
Secondary-High school	220	38.5
Vocational school	240	42.0
Bachelor's degree	56	9.8
Total	572	100.0
Department		
Front-office	95	16.6
Food & beverage	226	39.5
Sale	60	10.5
Housekeeping	37	6.5
Accounting	39	6.8
Maintenance	39	6.8
Security	27	4.7
Other	49	8.6
Total	572	100.0
Organizational tenure		
Less than 6 months	96	16.8
6 months–1year	93	16.3
1–3 years	171	29.9
3–5 years	118	20.6
5–10 years	65	11.4
More than 10 years	29	5.1
Total	572	100.0
Hotel star		
5 star hotel	428	74.8
4 star hotel	144	25.2
Total	572	100.0

Harman's one-factor analysis as a statistical remedy was also conducted to mitigate the common method bias, since all data concerning the proposed model were self-reported. Of the six factors identified, the principal factor explained 21.28 percent of the variance. Because one factor did not explain more than 50 percent of the

variance, common method bias has not been a problem in the dataset (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003).

The participant employees' profiles were as followed, 296 (75.9%) of the respondents were between 18-35 years, and this age group represented the majority of the employees. As far as gender was concerned, 225 (39.3%) of the employees were female and 347 (60.7%) were male. In regards to educational achievement, 56 (9.8%) had a primary school diploma; 220 (38.5%) had secondary and high school diploma; and 240 (42%) had an associate degree from a vocational school and this represented the majority of respondents; the rest had a bachelor degree (9.8%). In regard to organisational tenure, those respondents who worked in the organisations for less than six months were 96 (16.8%). Meanwhile, those who worked from six months to 1 year were 93 (16.3%), 1 to 3 years were 171 (29.9%), this represented the majority of the respondents, and those between 3 to 5 years were 118 (20.6%), 5 to 10 years were 65 (11.4%), and finally those who worked more than 10 years were 29 (5.1%). In terms of departments, 16.6% of the respondents worked in the front office; 39.5% worked in the food & beverage department that is the restaurant and kitchen; 6.5% worked in housekeeping; and the rest worked in other departments, such as sales, accounting, security, etc.

Chapter 5

MEASURES AND DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Measures

Nine items for job crafting were drawn from Sleep and Vella-Brodrick's (2013) study. Job crafting consisted of three (3) categories, namely; task crafting, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting. The researchers measured responses on the five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The illustrative items were "change the scope or types of tasks that I complete at work," and "make an effort to get to know people well at work." The coefficient alpha for the task crafting scale was 0.80, for the relational crafting scale it was 0.82, and for the cognitive crafting scale, it was 0.88.

PsyCap was measured using the five-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree) composed by Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio (2007) consisting of 24 items with four dimensions, efficacy (e.g., IO feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy), hope (e.g., If I found myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it), resilience (e.g., I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work), and optimism (e.g., I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job), each including six items. The reliability coefficient for this measurement scale was 0.84.

A nine-item scale adapted from the shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006) measured *work*

engagement. Hotel employees were asked their opinion of each statement utilising the seven-point rating scale. Sample items were “At my work, I feel bursting with energy”, and “I am enthusiastic about my job”. The alpha coefficient demonstrated high internal consistency ($\alpha= 0.92$).

Job embeddedness was measured by utilising the 7-item scale developed by Crossley, Bennet, Jex, and Burnfield (2007). The participants were asked to express how much they agreed or disagreed with seven statements using the five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items were “I feel attached to this hotel”, and “I feel tied to this hotel”. The alpha coefficient for this scale was 0.81.

5.2 Data Analysis

In order to detect the convergent and discriminant validities of the factors, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used by following the recommendations of Anderson and Gerbing (1988) Pearson correlation analysis was also conducted to identify the relationships among the independent variable, the mediating variables, and the dependent variable. The study hypotheses were tested through performing a serial mediation analysis with the help of an SPSS macro developed by Hayes & Scharkow (2013) by testing model (6) of the process by introducing three dimensions of job crafting (i.e., task crafting relational crafting and cognitive crafting) as predictor variables, PsyCap and WE as mediator variables, and JE as the outcome variable. Mediation was also tested with the bootstrapping method recommended by Hayes & Preacher (2014). This involved a 95 percent confidence interval (CI) with 1,000 bootstrap samples. Hayes and Preacher presented SAS and SPSS syntax for an alternative “bootstrap” test of the indirect effect that is almost always more powerful than Sobel’s test used in Baron and Kenny’s (1986) mediation analysis (Zhao,

Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Therefore, Hayes's approach is more powerful by using bootstrapping in mediation analysis because the Sobel test is low in power compared to a bootstrap test popularised by Preacher and Hayes (2004).

Chapter 6

RESULTS

6.1 Measurement Model

CFA demonstrated that factor loadings were significant, ranging from 0.61 to 0.91 ($p < .05$). In addition, all constructs showed the acceptable composite construct reliabilities (CCR) ranging between 0.81 and 0.94 (see Table 2).

Table 2: Measurement Parameter Estimates

	Standardized Loading	AVE	CCR
Task crafting			
Task crafting 1	.70	.59	.81
Task crafting 2	.73		
Task crafting 3	.70		
Relational crafting			
Relational crafting 1	.82	.60	.82
Relational crafting 2	.81		
Relational crafting 3	.77		
Cognitive crafting			
Cognitive crafting 1	.87	.72	.89
Cognitive crafting 2	.81		
Cognitive crafting 3	.83		
PsyCap			
Efficacy 1	.88	.76	.93
Efficacy 2	.85		
Efficacy 3	.80		
Efficacy 4	.79		
Efficacy 5	.77		
Efficacy 6	.76		
Hope 1	.90	.65	.94
Hope 2	.86		
Hope 3	.91		
Hope 4	.88		
Hope 5	.88		
Hope 6	.88		
Optimism 1	.90	.58	.89
Optimism 2	.77		
Optimism 3	.91		
Optimism 4	.86		
Optimism 5	.85		
Optimism 6	.90		
Resilience 1	.78	.58	.89
Resilience 2	.84		
Resilience 3	.80		
Resilience 4	.86		
Resilience 5	.80		
Resilience 6	.79		
Work engagement			
Work engagement 1	.75	.65	.94
Work engagement 2	.89		
Work engagement 3	.73		
Work engagement 4	.86		
Work engagement 5	.86		
Work engagement 6	.75		
Work engagement 7	.90		
Work engagement 8	.81		
Work engagement 9*	–		
Job embeddedness			
JE 1	.61	.58	.89
JE 2	.83		
JE 3	.77		
JE 4	.80		
JE 5	.79		
JE 6	.83		
JE 7*	–		

Note: CCR = composite construct reliability; AVE = average variance extracted.

*Dropped item as a result of CFA.

All loading values are significant at the 0.05 level.

The average variance extracted (AVE) scores of constructs were between 0.58 and 0.74, demonstrating sufficient convergent validity. Analyses demonstrated that the hypothesised model yielded an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 2524.03$; $df = 975$; $p < .01$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .94; goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = .84; Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .95; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .058; and standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = .044), which recommended that these variables should be conceived as distinct constructs. Overall, the ratio of the AVE in each construct was greater than the square of the correlation coefficient between variables, ensuring discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

6.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 3 depicts the mean scores, standard deviations, and correlations for the study constructs. The correlation table showed that there was a statistically significant and positive correlation between task crafting and PsyCap ($r = .287$, $p < .01$), relational crafting and PsyCap ($r = .240$, $p < .01$), and cognitive crafting and PsyCap ($r = .269$, $p < .01$). The correlation between PsyCap and WE was significant and positive ($r = .401$, $p < .01$). There was also a significant positive correlation between WE and JE ($r = .297$, $p < .01$). These findings provided preliminary support for the hypothesised relationships.

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

Constructs	Means	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Task crafting	3.83	0.82	(.81)					
2. Rel. crafting	3.84	0.84	.481**	(.82)				
3. Cog. crafting	3.87	0.85	.501**	.419**	(.88)			
4. PsyCap	3.79	0.54	.287**	.240**	.269**	(.85)		
5. WE	3.84	0.95	.301**	.212**	.221**	.401**	(.90)	
6. JE	4.03	0.87	.305**	.217**	.249**	.286**	.297**	(.82)

Note: $n = 572$. SD denotes Standard Deviation; PsyCap is psychological capital; WE is work engagement, JE is job embeddedness. Values in parentheses along the diagonal represent the reliability (Cronbach's alpha).

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

6.3 Hypothesis Testing

The first three hypotheses of this study proposed that three dimensions of job crafting (i.e., task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting) have a significant positive effect on employees' job embeddedness JE. To examine the hypotheses, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed. The results showed that there was a significant and positive relationship between task crafting and JE ($\beta = .30, t = 7.65, p < .001$, Table 4, Model 2); between relational crafting and JE ($\beta = .22, t = 5.30, p < .001$, Table 4, Model 3), and between cognitive crafting and JE ($\beta = .25, t = 6.14, p < .001$, Table 4, Model 4), supporting H1a, H1b, and H1c respectively.

Table 4: Results of Hierarchical Analysis

	Dependent Variables									
	WE		JE							
	M1		M2		M3		M4		M5	
	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>
Task crafting			.30***	7.65						
Relational crafting					.22***	5.30				
Cognitive crafting							.25***	6.14		
PsyCap	.40***	10.44								
WE									.30***	7.41
<i>F</i>	109.00***		58.56***		28.13***		37.71***		54.96***	
<i>R</i> ²	.16		.09		.04		.06		.09	

Note: WE = work engagement; JE = job embeddedness; PsyCap = psychological capital.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Further, this study investigated the effects of three dimensions of job crafting on hotel employees' JE through the mediating effects of PsyCap and WE. The sequence of our study model demonstrated the favour of serial mediation. Therefore, a serial mediation analysis was performed via SPSS macro developed by Hayes and Scharkow (2013). The regression results indicated that the effect of task crafting on PsyCap was positive and significant ($\beta = .19, t = 7.14, p < .001$, Table 5, Model 1). This finding supported Hypothesis 2a. The results also demonstrated that relational crafting has a significant and positive effect on PsyCap ($\beta = .15, t = 5.91, p < .001$,

Table 6, Model 1). Thus, Hypothesis 2b was supported. In addition, cognitive crafting significantly and positively influences PsyCap ($\beta = .17, t = 6.67, p < .001$, Table 7, Model 1), supporting Hypothesis 2c.

Table 5: Results of Indirect Effect of Task Crafting

Variables	Model 1 DV = PsyCap	Model 2 DV = WE	Model 3 DV = JE	Indirect effects
				β (SE) 95% confidence Intervals [lower bound; upper bound]
Task crafting	.19 (.02)***	.23 (.05)***	.22 (.04)***	—
PsyCap	—	.60 (.07)***	.26 (.06)***	—
WE	—	—	.16 (.04)**	—
T.craft→PsyCap→JE	—	—	—	.217 (.15) [.087; .511]
T.craft →WE→JE	—	—	—	.165 (.10) [.066; .426]
T.craft →PsyCap→WE→JE	—	—	—	.080 (.05) [.034; .199]
R ²	.08	.20	.16	

Note: n=572; entries corresponding to the predicting variables are coefficient effects, β , with standard errors appearing in parentheses. PsyCap=psychological capital, WE=work engagement, JE=job embeddedness, T.craft = task crafting.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The analysis that examined the third hypothesis demonstrated that these two variables are positively associated, which means that the hotel immigrant employees, who possessed a higher level of PsyCap are more likely to engage in their work ($\beta = .40, t = 10.44, p < .001$, Table 4, Model 1). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

The results showed that they are significantly and positively associated, which means that the hotel immigrant employee, who possessed a higher level of WE tended to show a higher level of JE ($\beta = .30, t = 7.41, p < .001$, Table 4, Model 5). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

The hypotheses that involved the mediating effect were estimated using the serial mediation model, which is the method suggested by Hayes and Scharkow (2013). The result from the serial mediation analysis endorsed the mediating role of employees' PsyCap. That is, the finding displayed that the indirect effect of task crafting through PsyCap ($\beta = .217$, Table 5) was significant as the lower and upper

bounds of the 95 percent CI did not contain 0 [lower bound CI= 0.87; upper bound CI= .511]. Therefore, Hypothesis 5a was supported.

Furthermore, PsyCap has a mediator role in the relationship between relational crafting and JE ($\beta = .316$, Table 6). The lower and upper bounds of the 95 percent CI did not comprise 0 [lower bound CI= .113; upper bound CI= 1.213]. Thus, Hypothesis 5b was supported.

Table 6: Results of Indirect Effect of Relational Crafting

Variables	Model 1 DV = PsyCap	Model 2 DV = WE	Model 3 DV = JE	Indirect effects
				β (SE) 95% confidence Intervals [lower bound; upper bound]
Relational crafting	.15 (.03)***	.14 (.04)***	.13 (.04)***	—
PsyCap	—	.65 (.07)***	.28 (.07)***	—
WE	—	—	.18 (.04)***	—
R.craft→PsyCap→JE	—	—	—	.316 (.49) [.113; 1.213]
R.craft →WE→JE	—	—	—	.183 (.62) [.056; .447]
R.craft →PsyCap→WE→JE	—	—	—	.133 (.65) [.063; .594]
R ²	.06	.18	.14	

Note: n = 572; entries corresponding to the predicting variables are coefficient effects, β , with standard errors appearing in parentheses. PsyCap = psychological capital, WE = work engagement, JE = job embeddedness, R.craft = relational crafting.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The effect of cognitive crafting on JE was also mediated by PsyCap ($\beta = .273$, Table 7). The lower and upper bounds of the 95 percent CI did not include 0 [lower bound CI= .102; upper bound CI= .684], supporting Hypothesis 5c.

Table 7: Results of Indirect Effect of Cognitive Crafting

Variables	Model 1 DV = PsyCap	Model 2 DV = WE	Model 3 DV = JE	Indirect effects
				β (SE) 95% confidence Intervals [lower bound; upper bound]
Cognitive crafting	.17 (.03)***	.14 (.04)***	.16 (.04)***	—
PsyCap	—	.65 (.07)***	.27 (.07)***	—
WE	—	—	.18 (.04)***	—
C.craft→PsyCap→JE	—	—	—	.273 (.16) [.102; .684]
C.craft →WE→JE	—	—	—	.146 (.08) [.043; .379]
C.craft →PsyCap→WE→JE	—	—	—	.119 (.05) [.057; .272]
R ²	.07	.17	.15	

Note: n = 572; entries corresponding to the predicting variables are coefficient effects, β , with standard errors appearing in parentheses. PsyCap = psychological capital, WE = work engagement, JE = job embeddedness, C.craft = cognitive crafting.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The findings also showed that WE mediated the indirect effects of three dimensions of job crafting on JE (for task crafting $b = 0.165$, Table 5; for relational crafting $b = 0.183$, Table 6; for cognitive crafting $b = 0.146$, Table 7), and the lower and upper bounds of the 95 percent CI did not include 0 for task crafting [lower bound $CI = 0.066$; upper bound $CI = 0.426$], for relational crafting [lower bound $CI = 0.056$; upper bound $CI = 0.447$], and for cognitive crafting [lower bound $CI = 0.043$; upper bound $CI = 0.379$]. Thus, Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c were supported.

Finally, the findings from the serial mediation analysis provided empirical support for a serial mediation such that the effects of task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting on JE through PsyCap and WE were significant (for task crafting $b = 0.080$, Table 5; for relational crafting $b = 0.133$, Table 6; for cognitive crafting $b = 0.119$, Table 7), and the upper and lower bounds of the 95 percent CI did not include 0 for task crafting [lower bound $CI = 0.034$; upper bound $CI = 0.199$], for relational crafting [lower bound $CI = 0.063$; upper bound $CI = 0.594$], and for cognitive crafting [lower bound $CI = 0.057$; upper bound $CI = 0.272$]. The interpretation is that PsyCap and WE are variables that explain why hotel migrant employees tend to display a higher level of JE. Thus, Hypothesis 7a, 7b, and 7c were supported.

Chapter 7

DISCUSSION

Based on the JD-R theory and COR theory, the purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of job crafting on immigrant hotel employees' job embeddedness through a serial mediation mechanism that employed the employees' PsyCap and their work engagement as mediators. PsyCap and work engagement, both crystallise the relationship between job crafting and immigrant employees' job embeddedness. In other words, job crafting as an organisational and PsyCap as a personal resource, affect employees' work engagement. Thus, this study advances knowledge by providing substantial empirical evidence regarding the relationships between the considered constructs with the data gathered from the immigrant employees in a small island setting, North Cyprus.

In line with the suggestion of JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), the findings revealed task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting, as the three most important job design tools (Simons & Buitendach, 2013) that trigger immigrant hotel employees' job embeddedness and PsyCap. Karatepe and Eslamlou (2017) recommended that future researches should examine JE which consists of links, fit, and sacrifice as a potential outcome of job crafting in the hospitality work environment. This research responds to this call through demonstrating that job crafting positively and significantly affect JE in the hotel industry, while also elaborating on the association between job crafting and JE.

In addition, congruent with the guideline of COR theory, PsyCap increases employee work engagement. Current knowledge concerning the relationship between PsyCap and work engagement is scarce (Kang & Busser, 2018; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). This important finding expands our knowledge regarding the aforementioned relationship in the hospitality industry context. The finding recommends that immigrant hotel employees who have high PsyCap seem more energetic and engaged in their job in a hotel organisation. The significant positive effect of PsyCap on WE show that personal resources engender hotel employees to be immersed in their job. In line with Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) study, our findings also show the importance of personal resources in hotel immigrant employees' work engagement. This result also backs up limited empirical investigations (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015).

The results of this present research also demonstrate that work engagement significantly affect hotel immigrant employees' job embeddedness which provide support to empirical findings of Karatepe and Ngeche (2012) and Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008). This finding recommends that engaged immigrant employees are more embedded in the hotel organisation.

Results also show that hotel immigrant employees' job crafting behaviours affect their job embeddedness via mediating roles of work engagement and PsyCap. Congruent with the JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), workers may generate their resources and work engagement through job crafting. If crafting their jobs, hotel immigrant employees may gain support from their co-workers and supervisors and get empowerment and new duties (Vogt et al., 2016). This leads to employees' feeling themselves more energetic and dedicated in their work. These employees

taking individual initiative for crafting their jobs are more likely to engage in their works and be more embedded in their jobs (e.g., Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008).

Furthermore, findings also recommend that PsyCap mediates the relationship of job crafting and job embeddedness. This finding is congruent with the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989). Particularly, employees' job crafting behaviours through job resources engender their PsyCap. Such employees having job resources are optimistic concerning being successful at the moment and in the future (Luthans et al., 2007) and have the potential to get rid of hardship (Avey et al., 2011). These hotel immigrant employees in turn demonstrate higher levels of job embeddedness.

The findings of this study also reveal a serial mediation model of PsyCap and work engagement in the relationship between job crafting and job embeddedness. In line with theories of JD-R and COR, the findings show that job crafting behaviours result in high PsyCap and work engagement respectively which in turn ultimately engender employee job embeddedness in the hotel industry.

Chapter 8

IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

8.1 Theoretical implications

Regarding the relationship between Job Crafting, Psychological Capital, Work Engagement and Job Embeddedness from the perspective of immigrant employees, this empirical study highlights specific implications which help hospitality researchers, managers and practitioners gather useful insights in the three, four and five- star hotels.

In the services industry for example, hotels, airlines, medical, and education have recently encapsulated the attention of researchers regarding conducting relevant issues. For example, some studies are about Job Crafting (Tims et al., 2013), psychological capital (Takawira, Coetzee, & Schreuder, 2014; Avey et al., 2011, Luthans et al., 2008), job engagement (Albrecht, Bakker, Gruman, Macey, & Saks, 2015), and job embeddedness (Karatepe, 2013).

Three kinds of crafting are task, interaction and cognition crafting. This is the first time they have been taken into consideration by a study from the perspective of immigrant employees on their psychological capital which was not tested in previous studies. The first empirical finding was in line with the previous researches which claim that organisational resources increase positive psychological behaviours

(Luthans et al., 2008) or enhance individual's attitudes like work engagement and on the job embeddedness outcomes (Macky & Boxall, 2007).

The three crafting movements predicted and enhanced work engagement. These results show that when employees are supported by management in terms of task design, relationship flexibility and judgment or positive perception, the changes toward the value of their jobs may bring work engagement.

The joint effects of the psychological capital's components have been found influential on work engagement which is in line with few studies in frontline positions (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). This is a very important insight for the managers who should understand that self-efficacious, hopeful, optimistic and resilient immigrant employees will get engaged to their work who will come to their job with high energy, forget how the time passes while job going on or devote themselves to their job.

Another empirical finding is the joint effects of psychological capital components have a positive impact on work outcomes like job embeddedness (Nafei, 2015). The finding points out those well-engaged employees would be better embedded. Job embeddedness significantly presents itself through job crafting in the productivity, pro-activeness and innovative workforce of employees in an organisation, which eventually leads to an increase in their general well-being (Schoberova, 2015). This empirical study can advance the current knowledge regarding immigrant employees' job crafting as how it may influence on the job embeddedness directly, and through which mechanism indirectly.

Numerous researches have proved that transformational leaders improve the psychological condition of employees, as well as their well-being (Ghafoor et al., 2011). On the other hand, transactional type of leaders showed that they help employees to decide what steps should be taken to achieve goals (McMurray et al., 2010). These kinds of leaders constantly supervise employees and detect their mistakes and show them the right path. Therefore, it can be said that these types of leadership approaches positively influence the PsyCap of employees.

8.2 Practical implications

The managers in the hospitality industry of North Cyprus need to show maximum attention to the job crafting practices regarding immigrant employees. Such supportive proactive strategies when they are provided help immigrant employee's psychological capital and work engagement increase. In return, high levels of psychological capital may result in engagement and the employees become embedded which results in extra-role performance (Chaurasia & Shukla, 2014), service performance (Sun, Zhao, Yang, & Fan, 2012) creative performance (Sweetman, Luthans, Avey, & Luthans, 2011), and job satisfaction (Bitmis & Ergeneli, 2013). The immigrant employees with high levels of optimism, hope, self-efficacy, and resilience should be preferred at the interview and promotion stage in the selection processes. We can indicate that in the hospitality industry in North Cyprus, the management of hospitality institutions may keep, retain, engage and embed such employees via offering job crafting opportunities to the employees.

The findings of this study show that job crafting within hospitality firms in North Cyprus does not only give a signal to an immigrant employee about caring his/her value, but also it will enrich the job descriptions that are significant in hiring immigrant employees in North Cyprus hospitality industry. Thus, by using job

crafting which enables extending the task, relationship and cognition boundaries of employees, hospitality managers in North Cyprus may strengthen their retention policies and so lessen the turnover rates. Turnover rate is a crucial problem in the hospitality industry of North Cyprus (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010) and reducing the gap between the employees' expectations and industry's negative image such as low salary payment, anti-social working hours, high task responsibilities and stress, low quality employee food and shelter, limited training and development opportunities, long career schedule or other negative issues.

The joint implementation of three job crafting strategies assists immigrant employees to enhance their psychological capital and engagement to their organisation which may lead to job embeddedness. Thus, hotel managers in the hospitality industry in North Cyprus with stiff domestic and international competition (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010) should be aware of immigrant employees' job crafting behaviours that will allow them to improve more embedded immigrant employees in their jobs through PsyCap and work engagement which may assist them in increment their competitiveness.

8.3 Limitations and future research suggestions

This study investigates the mediating roles of PsyCap and work engagement in the relationship between job crafting and employees' on the job embeddedness among immigrant hotel employees in North Cyprus. North Cyprus as a developing country has become an emerging new market for European tourists (Roudi et al., 2018) and today, its economy is highly dependent on the tourism industry (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). Similar to others, this empirical study has its limitations. First, to reduce the effect of common method and single source biases, this study might have used different sources for data collection. Thus, for further generalisations, a larger sample

size and multiple resources of data in other geographies is needed. It is suggested that other researchers conduct similar studies in different countries and other service sectors such as restaurants, airlines, and travel agencies, and/or in other industries (i.e. banking, hospital industry) to minimise the common method bias and to provide better evidence regarding the causality issue as well as the basis for conducting a cross-national study. Examining the study model through cross-national samples like Southern Cyprus, Greece, Italy, and Spain, would increase knowledge and understanding about the effects of job crafting in the hospitality industry in Mediterranean countries.

Second, other direction for future research includes a serial mediation analysis of job crafting and employees' on the job embeddedness link via a causal chain of PsyCap and work engagement from the other employees' perspective, such as seasonal employees and part-time employees. The potential distinct of further exploration outcomes enable considering the effects of job crafting with the findings of this present study and enlarging the academic understanding of the hypothesised relationships.

Thirdly, it would also be useful to examine the consequences of three dimensions of job crafting on other employee-level outcomes, such as creativity, service, innovative behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour, and extra-role performance in the hotel industry. Hence, this study recommended further investigation in this avenue.

Lastly, immigrant employees as study participants could be used to run extensive research on how their cultural background influences them within the workplace. Such cultural study within the hospitality context may reveal how immigrant

employees from different countries respond to their managers' demands, and how well they get along with their peers.

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